



# ADOLESCENCE AND FAMILY LIFE EDUCATION

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# Preface

Adolescence and Family Life Education play crucial roles in supporting young individuals as they navigate the complex and dynamic period of adolescence. This stage of development, marked by significant physical, cognitive, emotional, and social changes, presents unique challenges and opportunities for growth. Family life education programmes tailored to adolescents aim to provide them with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary to navigate these challenges effectively. By addressing topics such as communication skills, conflict resolution, sexuality education, and substance abuse prevention, these programmes empower adolescents to make informed decisions and develop healthy relationships.

One key aspect of adolescence and family life education is the promotion of open and honest communication between adolescents and their families. By fostering open dialogue and creating safe spaces for discussions about sensitive topics, such as sexuality and relationships, family life education helps to strengthen parent-adolescent relationships and build trust. Additionally, family life education encourages parents to be supportive and understanding of their adolescent's needs and concerns, while also providing guidance and setting appropriate boundaries.

Furthermore, adolescence and family life education emphasize the importance of holistic development, addressing not only physical health but also mental, emotional, and social well-being.

Programmes may incorporate components focused on self-esteem, body image, decision-making skills, and coping strategies to help adolescents navigate the challenges of adolescence with confidence and resilience. By promoting positive self-esteem and self-care practices, family life education fosters a sense of empowerment and self-efficacy among adolescents.



Moreover, family life education programmes recognize the diversity of experiences and backgrounds among adolescents and strive to be inclusive and culturally sensitive. By acknowledging and respecting differences in values, beliefs, and cultural norms, these programmes ensure that all adolescents feel represented and supported. Cultural competence and sensitivity are essential in creating inclusive and relevant family life education programmes that resonate with the diverse needs and identities of adolescents and their families.

Adolescence and family life education provide valuable resources and support for adolescents as they navigate the challenges of this critical stage of development. By equipping adolescents with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed to make informed decisions, build healthy relationships, and cope with challenges, family life education contributes to the overall well-being and resilience of young individuals as they transition into adulthood.

The book on Adolescence and Family Life Education offers comprehensive insights and practical strategies for educators and parents to support adolescents in navigating the complexities of relationships, sexuality, and family dynamics during this critical stage of development.

*–Author*

# 1

## The Education of Adolescents

“Understanding” means, in the most factual sense of the word, “to stand under another,” that is, to bear his burden and take his place, to share his point of view. To understand the adolescent mind, we have to become perfectly aware of the way it conceives *itself* and *reality*, so as to share completely its point of view.

The era of adolescence is essentially one of trouble and problems. The formation of the definite self is the central problem of adolescence. Formation means something not yet achieved, something not stable, something in the process of becoming. Accordingly, it is essentially a period of *unrest and uncertainty*. The reliability of things and of persons vanishes, not because these things and persons have become different, but because the adolescent’s relation to them changes. This change of relation is due to the change in the individual himself, or rather in the consciousness he has of himself.

The naive attitude which the child had towards himself, that is, taking himself, his existence, his life and its conditions for granted—all this unproblematic being in harmony with all and each—*disappears*. It is as if the child, when passing from childhood to adolescence, has to rediscover the whole world, and this task is definitely more difficult than the original discovery, because it has become *conscious*.

The happy unconsciousness of early childhood is lost forever. Unknown can ever hope to understand the adolescent mind, and even less to influence it somewhat, unless he is fully aware of the fact that uncertainty is the very basic feature of this age.

The adolescent has, so to say, no character, or rather the essential point is that his character impresses the observer as not deserving the name of “character.”

This impression is caused particularly by the *instability of behaviour* which is so characteristic of many adolescents, and with which, quite unjustly, they are very often reproached. The adolescent indeed is not guilty of, or at least not responsible for, the inconstancy of his behaviour. It is an inevitable result of this state.

Influence is already a problem in the training of children. But as long as the original bond of loving trust persists between parent and child, the task of influencing children is not too arduous. Adolescence is no longer inclined to rely on others. The rising knowledge of being a person in one's own rights *causes authority to be doubted*. The awareness of increasing strength makes the young mind long for independence.

Yet, the adolescent has not, however, gained sufficient insight to be capable of understanding the necessity and the right of authority. Laws appear to him as willful restrictions imposed by the tyranny of the older people. Authority is held to be the illegitimate claim of those who possess it for retaining a position which they in truth ought to abdicate. The feeling that the era of the older generation is passing away and that of youth beginning is very common with these adolescents.

Adolescents are, as is well-known, quite *inclined to criticize everything*. Whatever the older generation holds to be right is held to be ridiculous by the adolescent. He feels that laws and rules ought to be changed. He is easily captivated by all kinds of new and revolutionary ideas. Being keenly aware of his newly awakened personality and its uniqueness, he easily develops a kind of relativism, making "man the measure of all things." Objective and eternal truths are doubted. The very existence of such truths becomes questionable to the adolescent mind. If one refers him to such truths or to laws which have proved valid throughout the centuries, he is not impressed at all. For him the world is as new and as ambiguous as he feels his own personality to be.

If you want to know an adolescent, you have to *gain his confidence*. If you want to gain his confidence, you have, first of all, to take his ideas and problems seriously. Discarding his ideas as unripe, making light of his difficulties, telling him that these things come to everyone and will pass away (as has happened with all those who have become old enough to see the futility of these problems and difficulties), refusing to listen to him because it has been thus with boys and girls since time immemorial—all these well-known attitudes of adults, born partly from their being disenchanted, partly from envy, partly simply from laziness and evasion of responsibilities, are the surest way of estranging the young person and of creating a profound cleavage which will never again be closed.

If essential, bring in "outsiders," such as a priest, football coach, scoutmaster, older brother or sister, who can give the child counseling. In the majority of cases, however, it is necessary to prepare *slowly and persistently* a way of approach. This takes time; but the time is not lost. While we still are far from enjoying the youngster's confidence, we may come to know him better, and he may, without being really aware of it, come to trust us and to show a certain disposition to get

in closer contact with us. The nearer the point we choose for establishing contact is to the adolescent's personal problems, the better. It hardly ever does good, however, to attempt to get hold of the adolescent's mind by surprise. Unless he is already willing to confide in us and needs but a little help to pass over the last obstacles, he does not want to be found out, though he may be very desirous of telling us what is in his mind. Surprise may prove to be a shock and scare him away. It is better for us to proceed slowly and with much patience. When we are commerce with young people (or, for that matter, with older, too), no quality is of greater importance than *patience*. If we wish to be of help, we must wait until an opportunity is offered to us. The better we know how to wait, the more surely will such an opportunity be given to us. In the meantime we can do nothing but try to keep on as good terms with the youngsters as possible, and to amass whatever information we may get.

Everything is worthy of consideration, whether it is of personal observation or from third persons. But we must keep those things in our minds and not hurl them at the boy or girl, even if we feel definitely shocked by what we have been told. The frequently-used challenge, "What is this that I hear of you?" ought to be discarded. Young people do not want to be spied upon, they do not like feeling controlled, and they are easily scared away, because they are so very anxious to preserve what they call their "independence."

Authority *as such* does not make an impression youthful minds. Simply to assert authority is rather a way to make the young people more restless and disinclined to listen or to obey. The adolescent is no longer like the child who either trusted implicitly and, therefore, obeyed even if he at first remonstrated, or who felt that the adults knew better in every case. But it may be quite useful to point out, even to a child, that he has to do what he is told, not simply because it is father and mother who say so, but because they are bound to know better.

The adolescent is impressed when he can be made to see the rights and the necessity on which such authority is predicated. Insofar as authority itself is concerned, the task of education in adolescence is much less the maintaining of this authority than building it up. Authority can never expect to see demands fulfilled which it ignores itself. The criticism of adolescents is directed not so much against authority as such, as against authority which believes itself exempted from its own rules.

There are, of course, many things permitted to adults which cannot be conceded to the child or to the adolescent, but the youngsters must know that these things will be accessible to them too after a certain time, and, insofar as possible, must be told why the adults may do or have this or that, while the younger generation is still denied the permission. Though they may be unable to think these things out quite clearly, children as well as adolescents distinguish very well between rules which apply to adults as such and others which are conditioned by development.

It is true that this capacity of discernment becomes somewhat blunted in adolescents, because the longing to be already grown up, to be really what the

young mind feels itself to be (though for the present but potentially) tends to lessen the sharpness of distinction. But even the adolescent may be made to see these differences, especially if the older people take care to explain to him how things stand and why he ought still to abstain from this or that.

*Encouragement* is amazing of which the adolescents are urgently in need. They do not seem, as a rule, to be discouraged, nor are they always. But every adolescent is subject, at least at times, to fits of despondency and of discouragement. This, of course, is very detrimental to moral development. The feeling that they never will overcome certain difficulties, never be able to realize certain ideals, *etc.*, works as a heavy weight drawing them down to lower levels. Discouragement is the necessary consequence of uncertainty, especially of uncertainty about the “self.”

Even if we sense sure that we have to deal with an unusually-gifted youngster (maybe a genius), we ought to be careful in expressing our appreciation of his doings. Here too we have to adhere to the middle course, not discouraging the adolescent by telling him that his achievements are nothing, nor letting him believe that he has already attained the summit.

The wisest route is to make the young people see that they have to content themselves at first with *smaller achievements*. If one bluntly tells them so and refers them to the future, they may feel discouraged. They want to be great and important and successful right now. They cannot wait for the realization of a future of which they have but a very dim idea, and which scares them at least as much as it attracts them. How indeed can they be expected to have a clearer idea of the future when they have but a very blurred notion of the present? To be effective, encouragement has to apply to actual things.

The task of encouragement has two sides, a negative and a positive one. One must beware of *discouraging* the adolescent. One ought, therefore, never to rebuke him for something wrong he has done, without letting him feel that one trusts in his capacity to behave differently. One has to be very careful especially with a youngster who has just become submerged in a fit of despondency.

## **ADOLESCENCE EDUCATION: A COMEBACK TO ADOLESCENT REALITIES**

It is universally accepted that the health needs, and particularly the reproductive and sexual health (ARSH) needs of adolescents, continue to be ignored and neglected. As they stand at the threshold of adulthood, they need authentic knowledge that helps them understand the process of growing up with particular reference to their reproductive and sexual health needs. By developing a critical understanding, they have to be well equipped to cope with the problems which they confront. They need guidance and independence simultaneously, education as well as opportunities to explore life for themselves in order to attain the level of maturity required to make responsible and informed decisions.

## **OBJECTIVES, THEMES AND SCOPE OF ADOLESCENCE EDUCATION**

The thought of ‘adolescence education’ was preferred to terms like sex education, sexuality education, family life education, reproductive health education, puberty education, life skills education and AIDS education at the National Seminar on Adolescence Education, organised by NCERT in 1993. The National Seminar endorsed the use of the concept of adolescence education and recommended the introduction of “suitable components of adolescence education in the curricula at all stages of schooling” (NCERT, 1994). As a follow up to its recommendations, a General Framework of Adolescence Education was finalised through nationwide consultations focusing on the following three requirements:

- Incorporating all the critical concerns of adolescent reproductive and sexual health (ARSH) in the specific context of Indian socio-cultural ethos;
- Preparing the scheme of contents suitable to provide adequate coverage to ARSH concerns in consonance with the nature and scope of existing school syllabi of different stages; and
- Identifying curriculum transaction strategies focused on promoting experiential learning suited to the specific needs of this new curricular area.

Psychotherapy of school curriculum showed that some concerns were already incorporated in it. It was, therefore, thought logical for the adolescence education framework to focus on those concerns were not incorporated in the school curriculum. Content analysis of the existing curricula indicated that the three closely interrelated areas – process of growing up during adolescence, prevention of HIV/AIDS and prevention of substance (drug) abuse were not adequately covered in the school curriculum.

Although the school syllabi and textbooks contain contents on the biological aspects of the reproduction system; education in these content areas cannot be complete by providing biological information only. There is a need to focus on physiological, emotional and socio-cultural dimensions of adolescent reproductive and sexual health (ARSH) in a holistic manner. Adolescence education was thus conceptualized as an educational intervention, focusing on critical elements that would enable young people to deal effectively with the issues related to:

- Growing up healthy, including issues related to reproductive and sexual health
- Prevention of HIV/AIDS
- Prevention of substance (drug) abuse

After serious consideration, a consensus has been reached in favour of the introduction of adolescence education in schools with a view to providing authentic knowledge to students regarding the process of growing up, HIV/

AIDS and substance (drug) abuse, influencing their attitudes, and developing in them the needed life skills to respond to real-life situations effectively. The 1993–96 version of the framework was missing out the element of life skills. In operationalizing the framework, it was realised that adolescence education should lay emphasis on life skills development, so as to empower adolescents to meet the challenges and optimize opportunities that may come their way. The present revised framework not only lays specific emphasis on life skills development but also conceptualises it based on pedagogical principles.

### **Positive Resource of Adolescent Realities**

Adolescents are a positive resource for the country. They have unlimited energy, vitality and idealism, as well as a strong urge to experiment and create a better world. Adolescence is a transition period between childhood and adulthood, usually characterized by youthful exuberance as its most endearing hallmark.

During adolescence the physical, intellectual, and emotional characteristics and patterns of childhood are gradually replaced by adult ones, and girls and boys progressively evolve into a state of relative socio-economic independence (UNICEF, 1999). The definition given by WHO defines adolescence both in terms of age (10-19 years) and in terms of a phase of life marked by special attributes. These attributes include rapid physical, psychological, cognitive and behavioural changes and developments, including, urge to experiment, attainment of sexual maturity, development of adult identity, and transition from socio-economic dependence to relative independence.

*The special attributes that mark adolescence include:*

- Rapid physical growth and development
- Physical, social and psychological maturity, not necessarily at the same time
- Sexual maturity and onset of sexual activity
- Urge to experiment/try out new things
- Development of adult mental processes and adult identity
- Transition from total socio-economic dependence to relative independence

### **Profile of Indian Adolescents**

The 2001 census tells us that 20 percent of the billion-strong population of the country would qualify as adolescents (age-group 10-19 years), *i.e.*, every fifth person in this country is an adolescent. India is proud to be home to 327 million young people in the age group of 10-24 (WHO, 2007), and is also responsible for developing this vast human resource in the best possible ways.

A significant aspect of adolescence is related to psychological development. It is a critical period for the development of self-identity. The process of acquiring a sense of self is linked to physiological changes, and also learning to negotiate the social and psychological demands of being young adults.



Adolescents are affected by socio-economic disparities prevailing in the country. The National Family Health Survey 3 (NFHS 3) indicates high percentage of anaemia (56% of females and 25% of males in the 15-24 age group were anaemic), which affects their physical growth, cognitive development, performance in school and at work as well as reproduction.

A national-level study, 'Youth in India: Situation and Needs 2006--07' conducted by the Population Council, New Delhi and International Institute for Population Sciences, Mumbai, indicates that although most youth preferred to marry after age 18; as many as 19% of young women aged 20-24 were married before age 15, and 49% before age 18. Domestic violence is widely prevalent within marriage, with almost a quarter young (married) women reporting that they had been victims of one or other form of physical violence at some point of time within their marriage.

As high as 47% of women and 16% men reported they have never received any information on sexual matters from anybody. A large proportion of young people (78% young women and 83% young men) were in favour of imparting sex education or family life education to youth. The most commonly cited preferred sources for information were parents, teacher, health care providers and other professionals and friends.

The youth study showed that only 28% of young women and 54% of young men had comprehensive knowledge about HIV/AIDS. It is noteworthy that over 35% of all reported AIDS cases in India occur among young people in the age group of 15-24 years and more than 50% of the new HIV infections occur also among young people (NACO, 2005).

Substance abuse among young people is also a matter of concern. The projected number of drug abusers in India is about 3 million, and most are in the age group 16-35 (UNODC, 2003).

Nearly 11% were introduced to cannabis before the age of 15 years and about 26% between the age of 16-20 years (UNODC & Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment, 2004). Findings from NFHS-3 show that in the age group of 15-24, 40% young men and 5% young women had ever used tobacco, while 20% of young men and 1% of young women had ever consumed alcohol. Gender roles are very distinctly defined, and adolescent girls continue to face gender based discrimination.

This is evident in the declining sex ratio, incidence of domestic violence, underage pregnancy, unsafe motherhood and increasing incidence of sexual abuse, abduction and trafficking (UNFPA, 2006).

The findings from NFHS3 do not indicate progressive gender role attitudes; 53% women and 56% men in the 15-24 age group felt that wife beating is justified under specific circumstances.

Sexual Harassment in public spaces, institutions of education, in and around home and at the workplace is a well established fact. Child abuse, bullying and ragging are also common and more so among boys.



## **NUTRITION EDUCATION FOR ADOLESCENT GIRLS**

The Indian population has crossed the one billion mark in the new millennium, out of which about 21 per cent are adolescents (10-19 yrs). The key role of this group in enabling India to achieve its goal of population stabilization is increasingly being recognized now. The United Nations Inter Agency Working group on population and Development has infact chosen 'adolescents' as its priority theme for the year 1999-2000. An overview of the studies available confirms the need for a special focus on the improvement in health and nutritional status of adolescents. Since majority of adolescent girls especially representing lower segments of our society are malnourished coupled with co-existence of social maladies like son preference, incidence of early marriage and high rates of maternal mortality, a strong focus on improvement in nutritional and health status of adolescents girls is warranted.

Therefore a study was undertaken to assess the nutritional status of the adolescent girls and devise, carry out & measure the impact of educational intervention on the nutrition knowledge of adolescent girls in the selected one hundred slums of twin cities under IPP-VIII, Hyderabad. The study was conducted in three stages. In the first stage, baseline data on 2500 adolescent girls (10-19 yrs) were collected using a specially designed comprehensive pretested interview schedule.

In the second stage an intensive nutrition education intervention was carried out covering all the adolescent girls living in slums for a period of 6 months mainly through IPC techniques. In the third stage, a repeat survey was conducted to find out the impact of nutrition education intervention in terms of improvement in knowledge scores. Though an effort was made to contact the same adolescent girls (follow up), only 2,326 could be covered during endline survey. The balance of 174 adolescent girls living in the same slums though covered as substitutes/ replacement to make up the envisaged 2,500 sample, they were excluded for the purpose of analysis.

The mean age of the adolescent girls was 14.3 years and majority of the girls were unmarried.) The educational levels of the adolescent girls revealed that 13.2 percent of them were illiterates, around 38% of them had primary education and 44% of them had high school (7 -10 years) education. Distribution of the respondents according to religion showed that the majority of them were Hindus (69.5%) and one third of them were Muslims. Among Hindus, greater proportions were either from backward castes (32.8%) or scheduled castes (28.3%). Regarding the type of family, 82.8% of respondents belonged to nuclear family.

Majority of respondents had 6-7 members in their family comprising on an average 3 males and 4 females. Regarding the educational background of the parents, almost half of the respondents had illiterate fathers and around two third of them had illiterate mothers. The mean height of subjects is 147.1 cms and their mean weight is 38.7 kg. The heights and weights of the adolescent girls were far below the NCHS standards and the deficit increased with age.

Further, the maximum increase in the height and weight was observed between 10 and 14 years of age and later it was stabilised. The malnutrition among the adolescent girls was found to be quite rampant. Only 21.9% were categorised as normal. Among those who were malnourished, 7.2% were severely malnourished, 27.9% moderately malnourished and 43% were mildly malnourished.

The weight for height classification indicated that half of the subjects were normal. A sizeable number of them were seen to compromise on growth (17.8%) and a good number of them (31.8%) were also observed to be lighter as they were found to be either mildly or moderately malnourished as per the weight-for-height NCHS Standards. The prevalence of chronic energy deficiency (BMI < 18.5) was found to be ranged between 98.7 & 51.2 percent among adolescent of 10-16 years age. However as the age increases the prevalence of chronic energy deficiency decreases and it reached to 3.7.4 percent at the age 19 years.

The analysis of diet survey revealed that except the daily consumption of cereals the intakes of all other food items were found to be far below the suggested daily requirement. Regarding the nutrient intake, barring the intake of Vitamin C (51 mg), Folic Acid (137ug) and to some extent fat (20 gms), (recommended dietary allowances for adolescents as suggested by ICMR, in respect of major nutrients like proteins, energy, calcium, iron Vitamin A, *etc.*, were not met. Iron deficiency anaemia was found to be the most common nutritional problem encountered by respondents. The data revealed that about 88% of subjects were found to be suffering from mild (49.0%), moderate (31.1 per cent) and severe (7.9%) anaemia. Only 12.0% of respondents were found to be having normal haemoglobin levels of  $\geq 12$  g/dl.

The mean age at menarche observed in the study population was 12.4 years. The widely reported premenstrual symptom was headache (11.7%), white discharge (9.9%), pimples (9.5%) and a few girls reported other problems like fatigue, irritability, depression, *etc.* Apart from pre-menstrual symptoms the girls reported menstrual problems also. The most commonly reported menstrual problem was dysmenorrhoea (pain in abdomen) (42.6%), the other problems were backache (26.5%), tiredness (23.8%) and irritability (15.3%).

Among the adolescent girls the knowledge regarding sexuality and related areas were found to be low. Majority of the girls did not know what safe sex means. The knowledge regarding STDs were found to be relatively better. The data revealed that 69.4 percent of the girls had awareness regarding STDs and 70.2 percent of the girls had awareness regarding abortion. Information about knowledge of family planning is also an important component as far as adolescent girls are concerned. Almost half of the adolescent girls were aware about the female temporary methods. Regarding the knowledge of terminal methods of family planning, all of them knew about the tubectomy and only 15.8% of them knew about vasectomy.

Out of the 40 married girls 33 girls were pregnant. Out of the total pregnant girls 48.5 percent have registered their pregnancy and all those who registered

have used government services. All of them have received TT immunization and IFA tablets. The preferred place of delivery among them was government hospital (48.5%) and private hospital: was next in order of preference (42.4%). Community based IEC intervention activities were conducted for a period of six months in all the intervention areas mainly through IPC techniques. Besides regular media like Television, Radio, Newspaper and Magazines, the other IEC tools used in educational activities included Cooking Demonstrations, Posters, Informative Booklet, Innovative Games and Nutrition Melas.

To inculcate the habit of taking more iron and calcium based preparations and energy and protein rich recipes in their daily meals, cooking demonstrations were held in all the intervention areas. They were held in collaboration with Food and Nutrition Extension Board, Govt. of India. Adolescent girls were taught how to prepare simple iron and calcium rich recipes. They were also exposed to nutrient values of some commonly consumed food articles, choosing the energy and protein rich food articles, right cooking methods and some tips to preserve nutrients while cooking. To infuse or build self-confidence and self-esteem among adolescent girls, some innovative games were developed. About twenty adolescent girls in each slum were exposed to participatory learning activities in the form of games. These innovative games are intended to build self confidence, knowledge and skills and to empower girls to begin to shape their own life.

The approach used in these games is called 'experimental learning'. It helps girls to participate in learning and learn from their own experiences, with facilitator-trainer as a guide. The games include 'My Daily Routine And My Meal', 'I Would Like To Introduce Myself', 'Role Model or Woman We Admire', 'My Grand Mother, Mother And Myself' and 'Good Health Practices During Menstruation'. All the games are based on the experimental learning model. Situations and problems are presented, discussed and analyzed. Problem-solving is emphasized. All the participants learnt things through a process of experience sharing activities, reflections and discussion. A facilitator's guide was prepared to aid the field investigators to conduct the games in the community for adolescent girls.

These games are intended to motivate young girls to change undesirable behaviours and adopt new behaviours, promote participation in the learning process. It is hoped that the experience gained by the participants would be applied in similar situations being encountered by them in future. The informative booklet on 'Adolescent Health and Nutrition' prepared in local language telugu are being distributed to all willing and telugu speaking adolescent girls is a ready reckoner to assess the nutritional status and nutrient requirements on their own.

The booklet also contains information on growth and development during adolescence, recommended dietary allowances, balanced diet, menstruation and some commonly asked questions/queries by adolescent girls and their clarifications. Four multicoloured posters on education, nutrition, health & hygiene and age at marriage evoked positive response among subjects.

All the respondents were given information pertaining to their heights and weights, anaemia status, *etc.* Both moderately and severely anaemic girls were given folifer tablets through UHPs to correct anaemia. In collaboration with three NGOs *viz.*, Pratyamnaya, Sivaranjani Educational Society and CHAIN operating in the study area, seven 'Nutrition Melas' were conducted. More than 2000 adolescent girls including other than sample population participated in these one day melas.

*Besides cooking demonstrations, experts have taken sessions on following areas:*

1. Adolescent growth & development,
2. Nutritional requirements & balanced diet,
3. Menstrual hygiene & Health care and
4. Women empowerment.

Poster exhibition on nutrition was also held. Services of Gynaecologist, Paediatrician, Public Health Specialist, Nutrition and Communication experts were utilized. Counselling sessions were held and many doubts with regard to nutrition, healthy cooking practices and menstruation were clarified by concerned specialists. Adolescent girls themselves presented some cultural items like songs, street play, *etc.* All the willing adolescent girls were given TT injections by the concerned UHP staff.

Aspects like adolescent growth and development, nutritional requirements, balanced diet, desirable food habits, right cooking methods, problems during menarche, age at marriage, care during pregnancy and lactation were dealt with in detail during IEC intervention. In addition, areas like building positive personality traits, countering the normal social depiction of adolescent girls in the society, inculcating health and hygiene habits were also included in IEC campaign. Though baseline data were available, based on the suggestions given by the participating NGOs and link volunteers, sensitive aspects like sexuality, family planning methods were excluded in the IEC campaign. The following results throw a light on the impact of IEC intervention on selected aspects.

Channels/sources/methods utilized during the IEC intervention like multi-coloured posters and innovative games reached about 45% of the study population. More than 30% of the subjects were exposed to cooking demonstrations. Nearly one-quarter of the respondents received and read the pictorial booklet on adolescent nutrition. One-fifth of the sample subjects attended 'Nutrition Melas' being organized as a part of the IEC campaign. Almost all the respondents received information pertaining to their heights and weights and anaemia status.

During the pre and post education intervention period, only one third of the respondents received nutrition related information through Television, 2% of the subjects through radio and about 4% of subjects through newspaper and magazines indicating limited reach of mass media channels in the study population. The knowledge about physical changes during adolescence has improved from 7.3 percent to cent percent. In the same way 56.4 percent of the

girls after intervention stressed the need of early education on menstruation as against 43.8 percent in the baseline. About 70% of the subjects specifically mention that they received information on growth and development for the first time during IEC intervention.

Regarding the menstrual hygiene, almost three fourth of the girls had knowledge of right method of using the sanitary pads. That means they were cleaning and drying pads properly or they were using commercially bought pads as absorbents. After the intervention more than 85 percent of the girls reported right method of using the pads as against 75% in the pre intervention period. Further, after the educational intervention it was also observed that they were changing their pads more often than they did it previously.

All the subjects were asked to recall the foods rich in nutrients like iron, calcium, protein and energy. The result, clearly indicate that 77.6% could correctly identify the foods rich in iron 55.2% could recall calcium rich foods and 62% could list the energy and protein rich recipes/food articles.

The consumption of various food items based on the previous day's diet was also analyzed. It was found that more than 90 percent of the girls had consumed cereals and fats/oils on the previous day. More than 60 percent of the girls had consumed vegetables (73.6%) and pulses (63.5%). Only less than 30% of the girls had consumed milk, meat or fruits. The usage of all other food items like, millets, oil seeds, rice flakes, condiments, jaggery, sprouted and fermented foods was found to be very low (less than 10%). Further, 37.9 percent of the girls were using iodized salt for cooking in their families.

The consumption of various food items also has changed after the intervention. The striking difference can be seen in the consumption of millets like ragi which is especially rich in iron and calcium. Only 3.5 percent of the girls had consumed millets in the baseline and the figure had gone up to 97.9 percent after IEC intervention. Further, an improvement was also observed in the consumption of iodized salt. The majority of the families were (52.9%) cleaning rice in water thrice or more than that before cooking. Majority of them (83.4%) were also discarding canjee and excess water after cooking. They were also seen to sieve the flour before use (93.2%). A small proportion of the families was even discarding excess water after cooking dal/vegetables (7.7%).

The awareness regarding the nutrient loss due to discarding water was also not very high. Only 48.2% of the girls knew that there will be a loss of nutrients if they remove water. Almost all of them followed the practice of covering the vessels while cooking and 70.2% stated that they wash the vegetables before cutting. The results of post intervention suggests an improvement in the practice of right cooking methods like discarding cahnjee has come down to 28.9%. The legal minimum age at marriage is not widely known in the study population. Overall only 60.6 percent of the girls reported correctly the minimum legal age at marriage for both boys and girls.

The results of the post intervention survey indicated an increase in the awareness of legal age at marriage. After the intervention, the figure increased



to 83.6 percent. Data related to pregnancy, ante natal care, delivery, immunization and breast feeding were also collected from the sample population. Out of the total, 58.2 percent of the girls stated that they know what pregnancy is, and this percentage rose to 60.7% after educational intervention.

Majority (68.9%) of the girls did not know when a woman should register the name for ante natal checkups. During pre educational intervention only 13.3% reported that soon after the cessation of the menstrual cycle the woman should register for antenatal checkups and this percentage rose to 24.8% after intervention. Marginal increase in the knowledge was observed with regard to the need for pregnant women to take TT immunization (36.8% - 45.8%), take adequate rest (85.4% -89.6%), avoid heavy work (11.6% -24.4%), need to protect themselves from anaemia (43.3% -51.0%) and take good food (38.9% -47.9%). Most of the girls could not identify the categories of women who fall under high risk.

Only a small proportion of the girls during pre intervention identified short stature (4.3%), young and old age pregnancy (5.1% and 3% respectively), high parity pregnancy (3.5%) etc as high risk cases. However, after intervention around 32% of adolescent girls could correctly identify all the high risk pregnant cases.

Knowledge regarding the vaccine preventable diseases, the most well known disease was Polio (72.2%) This percentage rose to 90% after educational intervention. Majority of the girls did not have a role model (80.6%). A comparison of data on the pre and post intervention period also did not indicate any major change regarding their role models. The pattern regarding their role model almost remained the same (77.6%) except that a few more could spell out who their role model is. Most of the girls graded themselves, a, cheerful (90.1 per cent), cooperative (80.8%), truthful (75.9%), tidy (71.4%). However, only a very few rated themselves as courageous (27.9%) or possess self confidence (34.4). After the IEC intervention though the trend remained the same, there was slight increase in each of these categories. The mean per cent score has also increased from 66.5 to 73.9

On the whole it was felt that the adolescent girls were in agreement with the accepted social norm, For example most of the girls agreed that they are generally quiet (87.6%) emotional (80.5%) dependent (76.5%) subservient (76.7%) etc However, only some of the girls stated that they are incapable (27.2%) or unimportant (39.4%). After the intervention, the mean percent score of girls holding negative concept, regarding their social depiction came down slightly (65.3% to 58.7%).

Overall the adolescent girls were found to follow good health and hygiene habits. In most of the categories the per cent distribution is above 80. A comparative analysis of pre and post intervention figures indicate that, as per the expectation, the health and hygiene habits improved (90.7%) in follow up cases.

Nearly sixty per cent of the subjects mentioned that they had attended more than one programme being organised under IEC intervention those who were

exposed to IEC intervention, nearly 82% of the subject appreciated the information given under IEC intervention and 18.3% were undecided about the quality of information given to them.

## URBAN STUDENTS

Having a plan, a goal, and aspirations for the future are important aspects to living a happy and meaningful life. Having future aspirations also facilitates adjustment to life stress for students who attend urban schools; and these aspirations are an important component of the self-concept of the student (Sirin, Diemer, Jackson, Gonsalves, & Howell, 2004). A research done by Sirin *et al.* showed that the level of career and educational aspirations were equally high for both urban and suburban children. In contrast the expectations of actually achieving those aspirations were very different.

For instance the expectation of actually attaining the occupation that they wanted was quite different for White students compared with students of Colour. Urban adolescents have lower expectations than their more privileged peers. Lower expectations are a participating factor in lower graduation rates and higher drop out rates (Williams, 2005). We need to understand where these expectations stem from and we must teach students that education is the key to success. By understanding the students we can better assist them in their quest for a better future. At an early age many students who live in urban areas and attend urban schools are introduced to oppression, racism, and poverty (Sirin *et al.*, 2004). These are debilitating barriers that shape the ways in which students perceive their current self-concept and future worth. Students who are of lower socioeconomic status also have fewer opportunities to make connections with school.

In addition, with the emergence of high stakes testing these connections have become even less. Most of the students who score lower on these assessment tests are of minority and lower socioeconomic status; and these lower-scoring students are many times pushed down to special education classes or pushed aside in order to ensure higher scores for schools (Darling-Hammond, 2002). These disadvantaged students are being told by their community and their schools that they are nothing and will amount to nothing. Schools are meant to be a haven from the cruel outside world. Schools are supposed to be equal opportunity and a place in which dreams are created.

However, if these schools are pushing students out and taking away educational opportunities what can these students do, but drop out. Students at risk are faced with numerous obstacles everyday. They have to avoid violence which often times occurs in their neighbourhoods and schools, they have to worry about the cost of going to college if the opportunity presents itself, and they must also worry about the societal problems they will eventually encounter. Some students are aware of what they need to avoid and what they need to do in order to succeed, but many students still do not know.

This is where the community and school systems need to intervene. Schools need to educate students and their parents on what needs to be done to achieve success. Schools need to promote school completion and students need to be informed of the problems they will eventually have if they do not graduate. They must also know that staying in school will lead to a better job and a better job will help them acquire social power they originally did not have on the basis of their socioeconomic position within the existing social order (Sirin *et al.*, 2004). Lastly, schools and communities need to keep students' dreams and aspirations alive. Future aspirations play a very important role in educational and future occupational attainment and goals of students. Once we know and understand where these students are coming from, we can better accommodate schools and curriculum in ensuring their future success.

## DEVELOPMENTAL PHASE OF ADOLESCENCE

In industrialized societies, adolescence is the developmental phase during which individuals prepare for their adult lives. Schooling and mentoring opportunities are provided to adolescents by parents and other adults, who help to prepare them for their culturally ascribed adult roles. Each adolescent's perspective about their future, or future aspirations, are influenced by a number of factors that fall within the domains of individual abilities and social context.

These domains are particularly important areas to consider for urban ethnic minority adolescents, the focus of this study. [In this paper, the term "urban adolescents" refers to the participants of this study, poor and working class African American, Cape Verdean and Latino/a adolescents who resided in the inner city.] We believe that a consideration of both individual and social/structural factors in the study of future aspirations to be particularly important, given that urban adolescents have been found to experience tension between their valuing of education and the (often) limited resources and opportunities they are afforded within their schools and communities.

Further, because of the effects of institutional racism and the limited contextual resources urban youth are afforded, we believe that future aspirations (and subsequent educational and occupational attainment) may represent a form of resistance to structural oppression. That is, urban youth who "dream and attain" resist the tracking into occupational positions that lack meaning and ascribed social power caused by structural oppression and the accompanying lack of resources. Thus, our goal in this learn was to learn about urban adolescents' future educational and vocational aspirations and to illuminate the individual and social factors that influence them.

*We hoped to answer the following questions in this study:*

- What do the future aspirations of urban adolescents 'look like'?
- How do these adolescents conceptualize their ability to influence expected future events, such as going to college or obtaining employment?
- What are the major factors in the social context (*e.g.*, school, family, peer group) that influence the future orientation of these adolescents?



## **FUTURE ASPIRATIONS OF ADOLESCENCE**

Adolescence is the time when individuals are more concerned about their future than any of the other developmental phases. For adolescents, future aspirations can be conceptualized as the educational and vocational “dreams” they have for their future work lives. A large body of research indicates that adolescents’ future aspirations, in the areas of career, education, and family, significantly impact their later life experiences.

In an extensive review of the adolescent future orientation and planning literature, Nurmi (1989, 1991) found empirical support for the notion that the level of investment into future plans is predictive of adolescent problem behaviour, such as delinquency, problems in school and in the world of work, and drug abuse. Wyman, Cowen, Work, and Kerley (1993) found that future aspirations facilitate adjustment to life stress for students attending urban schools in the USA.

They argue that, “Rather than being connected narrowly to distant goals, future expectations seem to be part of the fabric of a child’s ongoing self-experience and the attitudes with which she or he engages the world” (p.658). The level of educational and career aspiration is equivalently high for both urban and suburban adolescents in the USA. In contrast, the research of Sewell and Hauser (1975) and Gorman (1998) diverge from these findings in regards to career aspirations.

Constantine *et al.* (1998) and Fouad and Bingham (1995) reported that urban ethnic minority youth generally have the same level of career aspirations as their more affluent counterparts; however, Sewell and Hauser (1975) and Gorman (1998) both found that for a predominantly White sample that career aspirations varied with social class. This discrepancy may reflect historical effects, ethnic differences, or a factor not yet identified. Regardless, future aspirations represent an important aspect of the educational and career development processes.

## **STRUCTURAL CONSTRAINTS OF FUTURE ASPIRATIONS**

The literature suggests that a consideration of future aspirations among inner-city youth is also a consideration of external barriers to their future plans. These barriers are the product of institutional racism (Carter & Cook, 1992) and inequities in resources that are a product of social class position (Kozol, 1991; Rossides, 1990). These barriers have led to, as Wilson (1996) suggests, the “disappearance” of work from urban communities, few vocational role models, a paucity of work opportunities, and the anticipation of future work-based discrimination as the norm for urban youth.

The adult African American male participants in the qualitative study conducted by Diemer (in press) gave voice to the expectation that they were and would continue to be subjected to discrimination in their career development processes and in their labour force participation. They also perceived having fewer career development resources, such as personal networks they could

utilize, compared to what they expected their White counterparts to have. Further, in a study of Mexican-American and European-American high school students, McWhirter (1997) found that Mexican-American students were more likely to perceive future barriers to their educational and career goals than their European-American counterparts.

Mexican-American participants were also more likely to feel less confident in their ability to overcome these barriers than European-American students. These results were found while socioeconomic status was being controlled for in the analyses. Relatedly, in a review of the career development literature related to Latino/a populations, Arbona (1990) argued that Latino/a adolescents have the same level of aspirations as European American adolescents, but that they are less confident in their ability to overcome these barriers.

Social class also affects the likelihood of achieving more (financially and personally) rewarding work and educational and career attainment (McLoyd, 1998). As Blustein, Juntunen and Worthington (2000) argued, "One of the key ingredients in predicting favourable [career] outcomes is access to the educational and occupational opportunity structure".

In sum, the literature reviewed above suggests that, within the USA, (and, presumably, within other countries as well) social class has a strong influence upon the future aspirations and subsequent occupational attainment of adolescents, and in particular, urban adolescents.

## **METHOD INFORMATION OF PARTICIPANTS**

Before providing information about the participants, we would like to first situate our findings in the context of the high school where we conducted our study. Several years ago, this high school lost its accreditation because the state board judged that teachers and the curriculum used in the school were failing to provide the education necessary to meet state standards. Local government then intervened and infused money into the school; one of the many changes that has been made was the introduction of a new school principal.

The new principal is an African American educator who has appeared to enjoy a close relationship with the students. Another major change that ensued at this school was the firing and hiring of more than half of the school's faculty; the current staff represent more ethnic diversity. These teachers also have participated in voluntary professional training. Finally, there has been an increase in the number of guidance teachers and librarians.

Consequently, the school has regained its accreditation approximately two years before the beginning of this research. In terms of the whole school, the ethnic status of the student population was as follows: 87.6 per cent African American, 6.9 per cent Latino/a, 3.6 per cent Asian American, and 1.7 per cent White. Participants for our study were 18 adolescents aged 14-15 years of age attending the same inner city high school. They were each bused in from different urban centers within a major city in the Northeastern USA.

During focus groups, students provided the following information about themselves: Eleven of the students were 9th graders; seven were 10th graders. There were 12 males and 6 females in the group. Their current high school had not been their first choice when they applied for school (students rank order their preferences for high school in this area).

In terms of racial/ethnic background, 15 students identified themselves as African American, while the other 3 identified themselves as Cape Verdean and/or Latino/a background. One interesting point that we noted regarding the Cape Verdean participants was that there was a lack of consensus regarding the racial/ethnic self-identification that they preferred. That is, some of the Cape Verdean participants identified themselves as Black or African American, some as Latino/a, and some simply as Cape Verdean.

Finally, although some participants self-identified only one ethnic/racial group membership, it is plausible that some of the participants were members of more than one ethnic or racial group.

## **COLLECTED DATA FROM THE PARTICIPANTS**

The school and collected data from the participants before the intervention began. The third and fourth authors supervised this project and the data collection process. The fifth author served as an auditor of the data analytic process. Our research team consisted of two international graduate students, one European American graduate student, one African American faculty member, and a Cape Verdean American faculty member who was both the parent of a student attending this school and a member of the School-Site Council at this school.

We feel that this diversity in backgrounds and perspectives among the researchers enhanced both our ability to experience the data and the rigour of our findings. However, each researcher recognized the limitations in his or her experience and background and diligently sought to privilege the participants' perspective throughout all aspects of the study. For example, we employed very open-ended questions during the focus groups to enable participants to navigate us through their worlds. We attempted to ensure that we were really "listening" to student's words, facial expressions, and their use of material culture, without interjecting our personal views.

For example, as we explained the instructions for completing goal maps and collages, we asked participants to think of examples of how to complete the exercise, rather than impose our own ideas. Any probing statements used during the focus groups were always statements derived from the student's own words (*e.g.*, rephrasing their statements to qualify the meaning of what they had stated). These techniques, and our stance towards the research process, ensured that we remained self-reflexive and aware of our own biases in this research project. In sum, we attempted to "understand and capture the points of view of other people without predetermining those points of view ". We used a grounded theory methodology to ground our theoretical analysis and conclusions in the data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).. As part of this methodological stance, we decided to collect

all data from each participant before analyzing the materials so that we would not form theories from a partial data set. We also completed our literature review after we had collected the data so that we would avoid “finding” our a priori assumptions in the data set. The goal of the researchers was to understand the adolescent’s experience through his or her own words. Through an inductive process, we individually looked for patterns in the data, which we then formulated into coding schema; this schema was then revised using the constant comparative method. We then met to discuss the patterns that we had found individually. Through a series of discussions (and occasional argument) we reached a conclusion about the validity and meanings of our claims.

## **COMMUNITY METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION**

In an attempt to “give back” to the community from which we were conducting research, the data used in this study were collected before we implemented an intervention programme at this high school. The goal of the intervention was to help students to be positively engaged with school (both behaviourally and emotionally) and to develop strategies for future life transitions such as going to college or getting a job after high school. As part of the intervention, students met together as a group with two graduate student facilitators bi-weekly over the course of an academic year.

After the introductory meeting, subsequent groups took place in a classroom for approximately 60 minutes during a scheduled class period. Classroom teachers generally elected not to participate in the sessions. All of the focus group sessions were audio recorded and subsequently transcribed for analysis. Prior to the beginning to the intervention programme, the data collection process took place in four separate sessions. To capture the perspectives of urban adolescents about their future aspirations, we used four different sources of information: an introductory focus group session, a questionnaire, goal maps and group identity collages. Researchers also kept detailed field notes during each day of data gathering, detailing their reactions to the process, analytic memos, and interesting statements participants made. The procedures that were used to gather these four sources of information are described in the following sections.

### **Introductory Focus Group**

In the first session, the facilitators were introduced by the school principal as people interested in talking to students about their experiences in school, their communities, and what it was like being an adolescent at this school. After being introduced to students by the school principal and the two coordinators of this project, the facilitators devoted time to answering participants’ questions and developing rapport with the students. After the introductory group meeting in the classroom, facilitators held a series of focus groups (accompanied by an activity) devoted to the issue of students’ future aspirations. The data from this study are derived from these four focus groups.

## Questionnaire

During the next focus group, we asked students to complete a brief questionnaire that asked them to describe themselves now and five years from now and then tell us what they thought they would be doing five years into the future. More specifically, in a large classroom, the participants were asked to individually respond to the following open-ended written questions: “What kind of person are you now?” “What kind of person will you be in five years?” and “What will you be doing in five years?” Following the questionnaire, we held a discussion with participants regarding their responses to the questionnaire. The third focus group involved creating goal maps outlining future plans for achieving specific academic or personal goals. The goal mapping activity began with a discussion about dreams and hopes. Students were asked to think about what they hoped for in the future and to consider strategies that they could use to achieve future goals. After students described some of their aspirations, we then asked them to choose a goal that they wanted to achieve within the next 5 years. We then asked them to map out the “road” that they needed to take to get to their goals, using coloured markers and large poster-sized paper.

*The following instructions were written on a chalkboard and also presented orally to participants:*

- Identify where you are now.
- Identify the end point - which is the goal you chose.
- Next, identify the things you need to do to get to the end (your goal).
- Map these out as points between where you are now and your goal.
- For each point on your map, give 3-5 examples of how you will reach that point.

We then gave each student the materials, and remained present to help them or answer any questions. At the end of the activity, students presented their maps to other members of the group and discussed the meaning of their goal maps. We collected the maps and ensured that students had written their names on their completed maps.

## Group Identity Collage

The participants (in groups) completed collages that represented aspects of their group identity during the fourth and final focus group session. For this activity, we asked students to make (in groups of four) a collage that would tell us about what the people making the collage were like. We suggested that students could use the ideas that they had expressed during the focus group to make a collage about how they saw themselves, the things they do, and the world in which they live. We asked students to “tell us what you and your world are like in your collage.” Students were given materials, such as large poster board, magazines, scissors, glue, scotch tape, and markers. One boy chose to not participate in the activity, so he worked independently and drew a picture instead of making a collage. Before the period ended, each group explained their collage to the rest of the group.

## **THEORY APPROACH OF DATA ANALYSIS**

We adapted a three-step grounded theory approach to analyze the data. In the first step, we delved into the data to generate a list of codes that embraced common descriptive and interpretive categories in the data. In the second step, we explored the data further to propose plausible relationships among the codes. Finally, using our findings from the first two steps, we looked for a few “conceptually dense” theories in the limited sense. Throughout the data analysis process, we extensively used the HyperResearch computer programme to code and progressively organize the data. In the first step, we began by reviewing the data independently to identify codes that emerged from the data. Next, we began a series of constant comparisons of these codes. A large list of codes (about 35) was then developed. As the first code list was created, once again, two researchers looked back at the data and coded it separately using the HyperResearch programme. In the second step, a third researcher, the auditor who had not been to the school, joined the meetings to compare our findings and resolve discrepancies that arose. During this process, many codes were revised and refined. This recursive process enabled us to produce a number of codes that we believe represent the participants’ perspectives. The end result of this second step of our data analytic process is the results section of this paper. In the third step, we attempted to develop a conceptual framework to better understand urban adolescents’ future aspirations that was grounded in our findings. Following our development of this framework, we then integrated our findings with the literature in this domain. We offer this grounded conceptual model in the discussion section of this paper.

## **FUTURE GOALS OF DATA COLLECTION ACTIVITIES**

The data collection activities we employed were selected to illuminate patterns in the type of future goals that students were oriented to. All students envisioned attending college at some point in their future plans. However, sports played a large role in the views of college the boys held. One third of the participants, each of who were boys, indicated that playing in a “division level college sports team” was an important aspect of their future plans. Among the boys who stated that they wished to play sports, almost all of them had indicated that they planned to receive a scholarship for doing so. The majority of participants envisioned the type of career that they aspired to beyond graduating from college. Five participants planned to be lawyers, four planned on a business career, and only one person aspired to have a career in music. One boy planned to become a police officer or security guard. Finally, only two students did not indicate a defined career path that they planned to pursue.

### **Structure and Process**

These activities helped us to explore with participants what we have labeled the structure and process of their future plans. That is, how students perceived their future and how students went about planning their future goals. We found two patterns that were common to almost all of the students.



*These patterns involved:*

- The structure of their future planning and
- The processes that students had considered as they outlined the goals they hoped to achieve within the next five-year.

All participants had a basic structural plan that incorporated a beginning and an end point; this structure generally took on a narrative form. This was somewhat expected because students had been given clear instructions to include a beginning and end point and a basic structure. Only two students did not demonstrate a structure in their plans. Their plan did not progress in a logical sequence (*e.g.*, go to law school followed by graduate from high school).

The structure of student's plans was reflected by their awareness of the necessary steps to achieve one's future goals. Within the group, there was significant variability in the level of detail provided by each student's plans. For example, one participant's "goal map" involved 1) attending high school, college, and then starting a law firm.

*Whereas another student's plan was more specific:*

- Get a job, get money and save money
- Get through high school, avoid bad friends
- Graduate from high school, apply to colleges
- Go to New York University
- Go to law school
- Open a law firm.

There was also variability in participants' awareness of the process necessary to achieve each step of one's plan. Process was defined as participants' perception of the necessary functional requirements to fulfill the structure of one's plans. Some students' plans had a coherent structure with minimal awareness of process.

*For example, the structure of one participants' plans was:*

- Go to college
- Study business
- Save money.

Other participant's produced elaborate plans that described much of the process necessary to progress through the different steps of the plan.

*For example, one boy described his plan in three steps:*

1. High school
2. Scholarship and
3. College.

For each step, he described many details of the process such as "get good grades, try hard, no foolness, get above grade point average grades, be involved in extracurricular activities, pass the "X-test" [a 'high stakes' test students are required to take], find out what college costs, apply for college."

Overall, we observed that half of the participants were aware of both the structure and process involved in their plans, whereas the other half of students included only a basic structure to their plans, with little or no consideration of the processes necessary to progress through the structure they had created.

### **Self-reliance**

Students consistently discussed the theme of “self-reliance.” Two thirds of participants expressed the importance of exercising self-control over one’s thinking, behaviour, and body to achieve success. For example, one boy said, “in order to succeed, I need to keep my act together and stay on the ball.”

During the focus group session, one boy insisted that, “If Blacks work hard they will succeed in the long run, no matter what the circumstances are.” He suggested that African Americans should rely on themselves to succeed despite adverse circumstances.

He declared, “Racism is not over! The only way for Blacks to be chosen over Whites is to work twice as hard. ... it is all about your brain; I will make it if I work hard.” However, we should note that the majority of the participants did not share this perspective.

### **Idea of Being Serious**

The idea of becoming “more serious” in the future was prevalent among one third of the statements made by students in their goal maps and questionnaires. One third of the participants stated that in five years they wanted to “become a more serious person.” This theme was mentioned in relation to one’s maturity, education, and level of responsibility. A similar theme also emerged during the focus group.

Other students discussed becoming more serious as a developmental progression towards maturity. For example, one boy stated, “I am a real honest person and also a funny person. In five years, I will be a serious person,” while another participant stated “I will still be a responsible person. In five years, I will be a much more serious person.”

### **PARTICIPANTS OF TIME ORIENTATION**

Participants also varied in their future orientation. A third of the participant’s goal maps were focused on immediate goals. These student’s plans reflected goals that involved the “here and now”. For example, one student’s goal map involved learning a “cross-over” dribble for playing basketball. Another student’s goal was to travel to Ireland. A few students were concerned with basic survival needs and indicated that in five years, they hoped to be “still livin’” or “staying alive.”

There were however, other student’s who focused exclusively on details of distal plans without a consideration of immediate goals or issues involving the “here and now.” For example, one participant described how he planned to go to college, start a business and make the business successful. The predominant goal of this student’s map concerned “making the business grow” (*e.g.*, have good credit, borrow money from a bank, get people to work with me, negotiate with other companies to work with me, and put products on sale to make a profit).



## CONTEXT: RESOURCES AND BARRIERS

An awareness of resources and barriers was reflected in students' perception of their social/structural context. For example, only one third of students acknowledged environmental obstacles such as passing standardized tests, paying for the cost of college, and avoiding violence in the school. One student stated that he had to, "stay out of trouble and avoid bad friends" in order to succeed in his future goals. This boy also drew pictures of guns on his goal map between symbols of people who he indicated were "bad friends." These symbols were placed along his goal path, between his goals of completing high school and entering college. We interpreted these data to reflect students awareness of the way in which the school context and violence can serve as barriers to the realization of their future aspirations.

Other students indicated an awareness of the need to afford the cost of college. These students discussed strategies for obtaining part-time jobs to save money, having good credit to get a loan to start a business, and getting good grades so that they could obtain scholarships. Only two students in the study alluded to using resources in their context to achieve their future goals. One girl stated that she could ask for advice from adults in the environment about getting a job. Another girl mentioned that she would "ask her father for money to buy clothes." However, two thirds of the participants did not give voice to accessing contextual resources to overcome obstacles and meet their goals.

### Racial and Ethnic Context

All the students in our study indicated that they were proud of their ethnic/racial heritage. The African American students underlined the fact that they felt Black and proud. For example, one boy described himself as a "Hard working African American male: Black is beautiful." Another student summarized the group's feelings concerning this issue "I am proud of being Black." This theme was also evident in many collages where pictures of African American models were put next to written descriptions such as "Beauty, style, power, fashion." Participants indicated that they believed that they had more opportunities now than previous generations of racial/ethnic minorities. One student outlined a commonly shared idea in the group session that, "There is still racism in America."

Students were eager to share some of the difficulties that they were aware ethnic minorities face in the USA. They expressed concern over the high number of African Americans in jail and out of school. They discussed how both "the bad history" and the scars of slavery within the USA were two major causes of problems that they felt they experience today.

Participants also gave voice to bicultural communication skills. Some of the students in the group made the comparison between "talking Black vs. talking White." A girl described how she felt comfortable when she was around her Black friends because she could "talk Black," however; she clarified that she "knew how to talk around White folks."

## CONSIDERATION OF PROCESSES ASPIRATIONS

Overall, students who appeared to have a well-structured future plan (*i.e.*, both short and long term goals in a logical order) with a consideration of processes necessary to achieve their goals, seemed to have an explicit plan to attend college. Moreover, the majority of these students not only perceived themselves as college-bound, but they also wanted to further their education and obtain a professional degree, most commonly in the law field. In sum, most of the urban adolescents in this study had future aspirations in the educational and vocational worlds.

We should note that the method of data collection seemed to highlight different loci of influence in students' perceptions of their future plans. That is, personality characteristics were highlighted when participants provided information individually, whereas in the group activities such as the collage and focus groups, elements of the social context were highlighted. Participants consistently mentioned that their personal abilities (*i.e.*, self-reliance) were highly related to what they would or could not do in the future. This finding applied to most of the goal maps and questionnaires. The analysis of collages and focus group, however, provided some insights into how students perceived their environment as an obstacle to their future goals (*e.g.*, violence, racism and discrimination).

When students were asked to focus on their future goals individually, they were relatively clear about what they wanted and how they could obtain what they wanted. When they were in a group, however, they were more likely to consider contextual barriers that would impede them from attaining their future goals. In sum, students mostly were fluent about the role individual factors played in their future aspirations, but also gave voice to the impact of contextual factors.

## INDIVIDUAL LEVEL OF RESOURCES

Awareness of adverse social circumstances, such as racism and discrimination, did not impede most students from planning for a future involving college attendance and a meaningful career. This finding is consistent with other studies that have demonstrated equivalent levels of aspirations among urban youth and their suburban counterparts. Although students were cognizant of the social and structural barriers they faced, most students in this study indicated that they wanted to "stay on the ball." Almost all students planned to go to college, and imagined themselves to eventually secure a job that pays well. That is, despite an awareness of social and structural barriers, these youth maintained future educational and vocational aspirations.

To cope with these barriers, students suggested strategies such as "getting more serious." Students in this study perceived their social environment as a context where they have to be "tough" to combat the daily racism and discrimination that they experience. Hence, it appeared that participants felt that they needed to "get more serious" in the future so that they could cope with future contextual barriers.

Another individual-level resource for developing future aspirations was the ability to hypothesize about the structure and process of future-oriented plans. For example, one participant indicated plans to go to college, start a business (structure) and “making the business grow” through developing credit, and borrowing money (process). Although this participant incorporated both structural and functional process in his plans, other participants varied in their ability to construct the structure and process of future vocational and educational aspirations.

In summary, despite an awareness of contextual barriers, these participants still flourished at the individual level. That is, they were able to envision future educational and vocational aspirations, and gave voice to “getting serious” as a strategy for coping with barriers such as violence, poverty and discrimination.

### **Barriers**

Another individual-level barrier to future aspirations was a present-focused time orientation. Although this time orientation may be an adaptive coping response to the (at times) violent contexts that participants lived in, this focus upon the present may have impeded the development of well-formed future aspirations. For example, the goal map of one participant involved learning a crossover dribble for playing basketball. Although this goal may have reflected a step along the way to playing collegiate or professional sports in the future, this participant reported this as a final goal on his goal map

### **Contextual Level**

We believe that students ability to think structurally to be a valuable asset to their future aspirations. An awareness of context appeared to be a necessity for dealing with barriers to future goals and using available resources in the environment. Students who indicated an awareness of these aspects of the social context included this as a major part of the process of their goal maps. Students who indicated a well-structured future plan with a focus on the processes required to achieve their plans were more likely to consider environmental circumstances than students without a well-structured plan. In other words, it appeared that students who were more cognizant of contextual challenges were more prepared for their future.

Participants made it clear during the focus group that they wanted to differentiate themselves from stereotypical images of ethnic minorities portrayed by the media, such as people from housing projects, thugs, drug dealers, *etc.* One student said, “Black is not ghetto!” Similarly, another student mentioned her disrespect for some rap stars and the manner in which they speak on TV; she indicated that, “Blacks sound stupid on TV” and described how she felt that this portrayal perpetuated stereotypical images of African-Americans.

One participant indicated ways that he believed White peers are socialized in ways that perpetuate racism; “White kids are taught to hate Black people and that makes everything harder for us.” Another boy in the session said, “Now we have more chances, but White people are still thinking the same way as it was

in slavery.” A girl summed up the majority view by stating; “White people are obstacles for our future.” Despite these views and the student’s perception of racism, participants still maintained a positive attitude towards other races as one boy stated, “I don’t hate nobody, don’t care for their race. It is not about colour.” Further, the comments of one participant, “If Blacks work hard they will succeed in the long run, no matter what the circumstances are,” seemed to spur other participants to more fully reflect upon the role that contextual factors played in their own lives.

Students who demonstrated the capacity for structural thinking also demonstrated a subtle nuance between structural thinking and individual-level responses. Students who had more detailed structural plans with a consideration of required processes more often indicated the importance of self-reliance to achieve their goals, compared to students who did not generate detailed structural plans. Self reliance and a value placed on cognitive abilities appeared to be a critical component of student’s awareness of how to achieve future goals in concert with the ability to conceptualize structural barriers.

Barriers. Most students in this study perceived their social context as more of a barrier than a resource. However, some students gave voice to the importance of interpersonal support as a means of dealing with barriers. In the focus group, only two girls reported receiving support from others to achieve their goals. These girls were among the few participants who viewed interpersonal support as being a valuable asset to achieve their future goals. We have elected to present interpersonal support as a contextual level barrier because the vast majority of the participants (16 of the 18) did not appear to be able to use supports as a resource in the manner that these two participants did.

In the face of the myriad social and structural barriers urban youth face (cf. Kozol, 1991; Rossides, 1990; Wilson, 1996), we feel that interpersonal support may represent one (protective) factor within the control of urban youth that may help them negotiate their risk-factor laden context. However, social networks may also serve as a “conduit for social and racial oppression...” - needing social connections to secure jobs, for urban kids with limited social capital especially... As discussed in the “Individual Barriers” section, participants inability to use interpersonal resources and create alliances with institutional agents in their communities...

Gender was related to the choice of professional sports as a career. In our sample, none of the girls mentioned professional sports as a future career option. However, all the boys who aspired to be a professional in sports also indicated that they wanted to go to college. Most of these boys indicated that they would like to obtain an athletic scholarship for their efforts. Although the boys did not directly link playing sports to obtaining entrance and financial support to attend college, it was implied in many of their statements, such as in their aspirations to play “division level college sports.”

We have elected to classify these findings as structural barriers because of the evidence they provide about the constraining effects of gender messages.

Theory and research within the study of gender (cf. Mahalik *et al.*, 2001; Majors & Billson, 1992) indicate that societal messages about gender (such as the need for men to control the display of emotions other than anger) constrain the possibilities that men and women envision for themselves (Freedman & Combs, 1996).

In this case, we believe that the discourse surrounding “urban black male” led these urban black male adolescents to believe that their entrance to post-secondary education was dependent upon their ability to play sports. Further, this discourse likely played a role in many of these boys envisioning professional sports as the (only?) career option for themselves in the future. While it is possible that athletic ability may facilitate much-needed scholarships for some of these boys, the focus upon athletics may have closed off exploration and planning in domains other than sports.

This is especially saddening, considering the very low probabilities of college athletes “making it” to professional sports leagues. Almost all of the participants reported discouraging experiences as they attempted to achieve certain goals. The participants shared their frustrations about situations when they felt they had been discriminated against or had been the object of racism. For example, one participant told us about his recent weekend trip to a downtown mall with a group of friends from his neighbourhood.

He described how he and his friends were using the elevator to go upstairs while having a heated discussion with each other about their favorite music. He described the event as follows: “There were three White girls in the elevator who were trying to move away from us as much as they could. I could see it in one girl’s eyes, how scared they were of us. The girls walked out of the elevator and I heard one say, “That was close!” The student further explained how it was not the intention of him or his friends to scare the girls.

### **Person-in-context Model**

Our data led us to construct a person-in-context model, grounded in the data, that captures the influences upon urban adolescents’ future aspirations. Namely, individual-level factors such as interpersonal skills, “getting serious,” and self-reliance and contextual-level factors such as structural thinking about barriers and racial/ethnic and gender socialization messages emerged as influences upon urban youths’ future aspirations. These factors served to either constrain or facilitate youths’ aspirations; as such, we labeled them either resources or barriers.

*Limitations:* Our exploration of urban adolescents’ future aspirations was influenced by our collection of data through multiple modalities. We found that group activities and individual activities influenced the data produced by participants. While we perceived the multiple sources and methods of data to be a strength of this study, it could also be interpreted as a limitation. That is, the method of data collection may have impacted the manner that participants’ reported the various influences upon their future aspirations. For instance, the

individually-focused questionnaires may have led participants to give more weight to individual factors than if this study had utilized solely focus group methodology. It is unclear to what extent the methodology influenced participants' constructions, however it highlights the impact that methodology can have on participant's responses.

It is difficult to know whether the findings of the present study generalize to other urban adolescents from inner city settings. Although these participants did not give voice to the impact of the school culture upon their aspirations, the unique history of the high school - and the recent efforts to improve the curriculum and the school's academic orientation - all serve to make this particular school context unique. Further, the participants in this study were also participants in the intervention programme designed to foster their school engagement and future aspirations. Although the data from this study was collected before the implementation of this intervention, the special focus of this intervention may have altered participants' willingness to share their aspirations and perspectives. This alteration may mean that these participants' responses may not be generalizable or germane to other urban adolescents.

Gender appeared to influence data collection as well. The manner in which data were collected appeared to influence participants' responses. That is, there were gender differences in the themes expressed in the group identity collages and during the focus groups. Boys were very restricted in the manner that they expressed themselves. Most of the boy's collages involved few items that were generally "status" items, such as a house, a luxury car and female fashion model, or a sports hero. Girls, on the other hand, included more diverse types of pictures in their collages. Their collages frequently included family-oriented images or images that reflected interpersonal relations.

For example, pictures of brides and grooms, babies, children, mother and child, mixed groups of teenagers, and groups of girls standing together were common in the girl's collages. Girls also included more colourful and artistic items in their collages. For example, there were colourful graphic images, flowers, geographic scenes and pictures of beaches and mountain scenery. We believe that gender discourse may help to explain the manner in which the male participants restricted their self-expression during data collection, while the female participants were more expressive. Gender socialization messages, such as the "Cool Pose" (Majors & Billson, 1992), may have led these male participants to believe that it would be "wrong" to allow themselves to be expressive of themselves or their emotions during the data collection process.

Finally, the specifics regarding the neighbourhood and the racial/ethnic distribution of the participant in this study may have contributed the way in which the participants reported their awareness of the contextual factors such as racism and discrimination. We observed that some of the Cape Verdean participants self-identified as "Black," and as such, reported issues such as institutional racism from the perspective of a "Black" person, rather than as a "Cape Verdean." Relatedly, although some participants were of Cape Verdean



and/or Latino/a background, the issues such as bilingual education, acculturation, and immigration laws were not as salient as one would expect. It is possible that the place where the school is located may have explained this phenomenon: A historically African American community within a Northeastern city of the USA. Regardless of the reason why, it is important to note that our findings with regard to the contextual issues were mostly limited to the experiences of African Americans, and failed to capture the experiences of Cape Verdean and Latino/a adolescents' unique experiences.

### **Future Directions**

Future researchers may consider exploring this domain, and the person-in-context model developed herein, further. For example, the relationship between self-reliance and future aspirations found in this study suggests the need for an intervention strategy that would help urban adolescents cope with the individual and structural barriers identified by participants in this study. Also, the role of gender and racial/ethnic background on the development of future aspirations has not been fully identified in this study and warrants further exploration. Finally, the manner in which youth give structure and process to their future aspirations, and the ways in which structure and process may be more fully articulated, are also areas for future study. Regardless, future study is needed to illuminate this area of inquiry and give voice to the future aspirations of urban youth and the influences upon them.

Prior research on urban adolescents' perceptions of future indicate that urban adolescents, particularly African American students, espouse positive attitudes about their educational aspirations in the abstract while they are less likely than their White peers to believe that performing well in school will provide them with future opportunities such as attending college (Mickelson, 1990; Ogbu, 1991). Mickelson (1990) called this phenomenon the "achievement-attitude paradox," and showed that while many students in urban schools value education highly, they often do not perceive education as offering them concrete help in achieving their future goals.

Drawing on Bourdieu's (1985) concept of cultural capital, it is possible to conceive of urban schools as public institutions which have the potential of generating either positive (*i.e.*, by promoting the cultural capital valued in the broader society and by supporting the welfare of urban students) or negative (*i.e.*, by reproducing the marginality of urban students) cultural capital for their students. This suggests that higher incidence of failure among urban students as reported by the current statistics may be connected to both contextual barriers as represented by failing public schools in urban cities in the USA and the pessimism about future educational opportunities experienced by adolescents in those settings.

In the present study, we only illuminated the individual and contextual factors that influence urban adolescents perception of their future, but further research is needed to provide more insight into how these factors may actually contribute

to urban adolescents' current school performance, both directly and indirectly. Our perspective is that it is important for all persons to reflect upon and come to understand their place within the social order (cf. Freire, 1973; 1993).

However, for people who experience oppression, such as urban youth, we believe this understanding to be particularly important in order to resist the oppressive social order that they experience. One relatively unexplored method of resistance is, paradoxically, through achievement and attainment within the very social order that is oppressive. That is, future aspirations, and coming to understand the influences upon them, may be a means by which urban youth may resist the "tracking" of the social order into low-paying/low-status jobs through future planning and educational/occupational achievement. In light of the impact of social and structural influences upon the future aspirations of the urban youth in this study, we believe it to be important, from a moral and pedagogical standpoint, to facilitate youths understanding of individual and contextual influence and to facilitate the formation of their future aspirations. We hope that through the presentation of the participants' perspectives, and their reflections upon their worlds, readers may more fully understand the influences upon urban youths' future aspirations and ways in which the structure and process of future aspirations may be elaborated.

## **ADOLESCENCE AND MISTAKE-BASED EDUCATION**

There seem to be two main sources of instruction in teenage life. There is before-the-fact education that we call 'preparation' through which parents inform understanding before decision-making happens. And there is after-the-fact education that we call 'recovery' through which unwelcome lessons are taught after painful consequences have occurred.

So to prepare their teenage driver, parents say "don't drink and drive," and then explain the dangerous reasons why. When preparation fails to convey, however, then recovery from impetuous action may be required to convince. An arrest for DWI can be a life changing event. After-the-fact education is usually more costly than what is provided before.

In childhood, the age of dependence, a conscientious parent is often the best teacher. In adolescence, the age of independence, confronting hard consequences is often the best teacher.

Unhappily, sometimes parents who wish to protect their teenager from consequences that might discomfort the present or complicate the future will prevent this invaluable instruction. They will intervene to get him out of trouble, they will quash consequences, and by doing so an opportunity for education is lost. "He didn't mean to," "She promised never to do it again," "He just wasn't thinking," "She's really a good kid, give her a break." So the charges for DWI are dismissed.

In the long run this kind of parental help can really hurt. Better to support mistake-based education and let the young person encounter the errors of his or her ways.



*For example, consider some “reasons not to rescue,” some common examples of tough lessons to be learned:*

- Suppose that from confronting some natural consequences of doing wrong, the adolescent learns to act right.
- Suppose that from confronting some natural consequences of forgetting a promise, the adolescent learns to remember commitments.
- Suppose that from confronting some natural consequences of breaking a law, the adolescent learns to become more rule abiding.
- Suppose that from confronting some natural consequences of escaping work and failing, the adolescent learns to bear down and succeed.
- Suppose that from confronting some natural consequences of yielding to peer pressure, the adolescent learns to think and act more independently.
- Suppose that from confronting some natural consequences of indulging immediate gratification, the adolescent learns to resist temptation.
- Suppose that from confronting some natural consequences of acting carelessly, the adolescent learns to behave more responsibly.
- Suppose that from confronting some natural consequences of lying, the adolescent learns to be honest.

To support this after-the-fact instruction, parents not only need to act tough enough to let consequences happen, they need to honour learning in this way.

*To do so, they can describe to their adolescent Ten Principles of Mistake-based Education:*

1. Everybody makes mistakes. They are part of being human because no one acts perfectly correctly all the time.
2. A mistake is a choice people would make differently if they could it do over again.
3. People don't make mistakes because they want to; they make mistakes because they didn't know any better or didn't think more clearly at the time.
4. All mistakes are costly, but they can be worth the expense if they are used to inform and instruct.
5. Careless mistakes result from not attending and constructive mistakes result from trying something new or difficult. Both kinds of mistakes can teach a good lesson.
6. Making a mistake is not a failing; not learning from a mistake is a failing.
7. It is ignorant to make a mistake; but it is stupid to repeat a mistake.
8. Sometimes people have to repeat the same mistake a number of times when there is something hard they don't want to learn, before they finally stop acting stupid and wise up.
9. The smartest people are not those who never make mistakes, but those who risk making mistakes and use them to make better choices the next time around.
10. The stupidest people are those who are unable or unwilling to admit mistakes because they limit their education.

Explain to your adolescent how learning in life works - when you're growing up, and when you're a grown up too. "In the great school of life," you might say, "you and I will never graduate. We'll always be students because we'll never experience it all. We'll never know it all. We'll never master it all. We'll never pay enough attention. We'll never be careful enough. We'll never remember all we should. We'll never get it all right. We'll all do some foolish things. And neither one of us will get all A's. The best we can do is try our best, keep trying when the going gets hard, learn from the errors of our ways, and credit ourselves for doing what works out well. I may not have made your mistakes growing up, but I sure made a bunch of my own. I still do. And I always will."

One father put it well when his older teenager was in despair over messing up once again. "Son," the man said, "as far as I'm concerned, if you're not making mistakes in life that just means you're not trying hard enough." And with that opinion, or blessing, a father lifted a world of self-recrimination off the shoulders of his beleaguered son.

# 2

## **Programme for Adolescent Health Education**

Adolescents are most productive members of the society, due to their immense capacities. But it is sad to know that most of them are unable to utilize their potential due to lack of awareness and proper guidance. They are engaged in antisocial activities. They use Tobacco, alcohol and abuse drugs. They indulge in sex also. Such activities result in to their "High-Risk-Behaviour", All this makes them arrogant and irresponsible. Then they create health problems for themselves and social problems for the society. Global experience has shown that educational interventions if focused on life skills development will be very effective. It will help in empowering adolescents. Then they will be able to manage their reproductive and sexual health issues and other concerns.

### **BACKGROUND**

The Government of India has taken a decision to upscale the National School AIDS Education Programme (SAEP) and implement the Adolescence Education Programme (AEP) in all secondary and higher secondary schools. The Central Board of Secondary Education is implementing the AEP in all private schools affiliated to it. Adolescence Education is an intervention to impart accurate and adequate knowledge about the process of growing up with a focus on reproductive and sexual health in its biological, psychological and socio-cultural dimensions, emotional health and coping with life skills. Global and Indian experiences have shown that educational interventions focused on life skills development have proven very effective in empowering adolescents to manage their ARSH issues and concerns, including avoidance of risky behaviours.

## **ADOLESCENCE HEALTH EDUCATION PROGRAMME (AHEP)**

Reaching youngsters at an impressionable age before they become sexually active can lay the foundation for a responsible lifestyle, including healthy relationships and safe sex habits. NACO reaches out to youth through specially developed Adolescent Education Programme focused primarily on prevention through awareness building.

Adolescence Health Education Programme (AHEP) is a joint initiative by the Ministry of Human Resource Development and National AIDS Control Organisation, Government of India to equip every adolescent (children between 10–19yrs) with scientific information, knowledge and life skills to protect themselves from HIV infection and manage their concerns pertaining to reproductive and sexual health.

*The Adolescence Education Programme (AEP) aims at:*

- Co-curricular adolescence education in classes IX-XI
- Curricular adolescence education in classes IX-XI and life skills education in classes I-VIII
- Inclusion of HIV prevention education in pre-service and in-service teacher training and teacher education programmes.
- Inclusion of HIV prevention education in the programmes for out-of-school adolescents and young persons, and
- Incorporating measures to prevent stigma and discrimination against learners/students and educators and life skills education into education policy for HIV prevention.

Under the programme, teachers and peer educators are trained, who, in turn, conduct the programme amongst the student community. The programme covered 112,000 schools and trained 2,88,000 teachers. They have been provided reference material, which has been developed by NACO in collaboration with Ministry of HRD and vetted by NCERT.

Adolescence Health Education Programme (AHEP) is effectively being implemented in the state by the Department of Education with technical and financial support from the Kerala State AIDS Control Society.

In Kerala Adolescence Health Education Programme (AHEP) is being implemented by General Education Department and SCERT with the technical and financial support of Kerala State AIDS Control Society. AHEP is an umbrella programme to cover all secondary and senior secondary schools. Presently it is transacting by trained nodal teachers in classes 9th and 11th for minimum of 16 hours in an academic year.

*Key elements of ahep:*

- Life Skills
- Process of growing up
- Health and Hygiene
- Nutrition

- Sexually transmitting diseases/HIV and AIDS/RTI
- Substance abuse
- Teacher as a counselor

*Key features of the programme:*

- This is a comprehensive programme covering all the areas of adolescence concerns
- There is a module for the programme prepared by the experts in the field of Adolescence Health education and it is approved by curriculum committee and appreciated by other institutions
- It is a sustainable programme as it is implementing with the support of Education department and transacting through trained teachers in the school
- The funds for the programme is getting from National AIDS Control Organization and seems to be a cost effective programme to cover maximum students in 9th and 11th classes.

## **LIFE SKILLS AND A.E.P**

Life Skills meaning the abilities for adaptive and positive behaviour that enable individual to deal effectively with demands and challenges every day life (WHO). It further encompasses thinking skill, social skill and negotiation skill. It also helps the young people to develop and grow into well behaved adults.

Point of A.E.P, is life skills let us know about these skills And education, based on life skills. Meaning of Life Skills “The abilities for adaptive and positive behaviour that enable individual to deal effectively with demands and challenges everyday life “(WHO).

*Life skills can be divided in to three categories:*

1. Thinking skills,
2. Social skills and
3. Emotional skills

These skills if developed and enhanced properly help the learners to develop and grow into well balanced personality. Point of A.E.P, is life skills let us know about these skills And education, based on life skills.

*Core life skills as per W.H.O. There are ten core life skills:*

1. Self-awareness.
2. Interpersonal relations.
3. Communication.
4. Critical thinking.
5. Problem solving.
6. Creative thinking.
7. Dealing with emotions.
8. Coping with stress.
9. Decision making
10. Empathy.

We may add common sense and time management also. Life skills based education is a value addition programme for the youth to understand self and be able to assess their skills abilities and areas of developments. It allows the youth to get along with other people, able to adjust with their environment and making responsible decisions. Which also incorporate to build up their values and to communicate effectively? It should include health issues concerning reproduction, family welfare and population education.

Life skill education is all the more important because it is the learning of life skills. It enables learners to learn and practice skills in relation to major health and social needs *i.e.*, H.I.V./AIDS conflicts and violence. Life skills based education goes a long way to change the behaviour of the adolescents to make them responsible and empowered.

### **LIFE SKILLS EDUCATION FOR OUT OF SCHOOL ADOLESCENTS**

Shakti is a Hindi word, the literary meaning of which in English is Power. The objective of this project is to empower the dropouts and the under-achiever adolescents psychologically to make them well equipped in Life Skills. It is to motivate and reorient them towards a meaningful vocation, develop their personality and provide them guidance and support in vocational careers according to their aptitude and abilities. The methodology of training is participatory and primarily activity-based. It was started in collaboration with the Municipal Corporation of Delhi (MCD). Our UVCT Chapters in Mumbai and Vishakhapatnam have also launched Shakti programmes in their centers.

Started in October 1995, the project is a flag-ship programme of the Trust that provides personality development and life skills (thinking, social and negotiating skills) to school dropouts and under achievers, enabling them to become socially responsible and economically productive citizens. During the last 16 years, the Trust succeeded in assisting more than 14,000 school dropouts till May 2011, of which about 70 percent have succeeded in finding meaningful avenues, including reviving their educational pursuits. It came as a welcome note to the UVCT to get accreditation from the National Open School for its courses in Beauty Culture, Stitching & Embroidery, Typing and Word processing.

The programme has proved such a great success that the UN Inter Agencies Working Group have accepted it as a basis for their programme on “*Life Skills for Health Promotion of out-of-school adolescents*” (July 2003), and two batches were also supported by the Group on Population and Development (UN IAWG-P&D), under the auspices of the UNFPA (United Nations Population Fund). The programme, which was initially of 30 days duration, was increased to 45 days by giving additional inputs about adolescent sexuality, reproductive child health and other population related issues. The World Health Organization (WHO) provided technical support to improve upon the then existing curriculum and train the resource-persons, with emphasis on life skills education.

By the end of May 2011, a total of 100 batches (an average of 40 participants in one Batch) in Delhi alone were trained. The Govt. of India has also adopted

one of the plan scheme The programme is on-going the UN IAWG-P&D, and has since put out the programme for international circulation, under the title Life Skills for Health Promotion of Out-of- School Adolescents and graciously acknowledged the Shakti Programme of the UVCT as the basis for the same. The programme has also become a Plan Scheme of the Min. of Youth and Sports, and an international platform for mainstreaming school drop-outs and under-achievers.

*The Various Skills & Values imparted during the training are:*

1. *Self-Awareness:* It is one of the foremost aspects of life skills. What the disadvantaged and disabled need is a self image. The first question a participant is made to ask is: Who am I? The facilitator helps the participants, by using the Socratic Method to debate the issue of an individual's space in a family, a social group, a community and a country. The young people are made aware of their rights and duties; and their responsibilities to themselves and the society. They are made to realize the need to preserve their physical and mental health.
2. *Empathy:* The other part of self-awareness is the life skill of empathy. Awareness of the self should be counter-balanced by the awareness of others, their different thinking, feelings, desires and wishes. This requires some imagination and fellow-feeling. It is a part of the process of socialization and self-control. The Indian culture empathizes with human beings, animals and nature around us. A careful cultivation of this skill prevents aggressive stance for self-protection as well as self and group identity among the adolescents.
3. *Effective Communication:* It is like an art. It has been observed that among the wards from the less-advantaged families, communication is far from effective. Through practical experience, it can be found that a person from a middle and higher class background know both what is to be said as well as how to adjust according to the mood of the listener and the situation. The person who comes from slums or lower class background often speaks a dialect at home, which is distinct from the standard formal language used in offices, schools and other institutes. Effective communication, thus, leads to building successful interpersonal relationships.
4. *Critical and Creative thinking:* These are the two next pair of skills. Training to inculcate thinking abilities, as such, is very rare in both formal and non-formal classrooms. As media sends out a constant stream of messages, it is important to begin with critical listening and asking right questions. Telling young people to ask for cause-effect relationship and rational thinking is very essential, if they need to withstand pressures. Creative thinking requires patience and persistence that looks for new answers to old questions. It also needs the use of intuition as well as logical thinking.
5. *Gender Sensitivity:* Gender sensitivity of a person depends upon his/her empathy, ability of critical thinking, analyzing power on his/her



view of how he/she is experiencing the social system. In India gender inequality is still persisting as a curse to the society. Barring a few communities, male dominance is prevalent in every strata of the society. There is a difference between the legal and social concepts of gender equality. Contrary to the Indian Constitution's declaration on equal rights in education, sports, health facility, payment for work, *etc.*, to either gender, there's a differential and partial treatment for males and females since childhood, especially in lower and middle economic class.

6. **Interpersonal Relationship:** The foundation of a good Inter-Personal Relationship is based on empathy and the habit of good listening. The learning and practicing of coping with stress and emotions also contribute in making better relations with others.
7. **Decision Making:** This skill is based on the understanding of who decides and how much choice there is. The participants learn how to take decisions in a day-to-day life. In areas such as education, choosing a career, daily activities and even in eating habits, one has to choose a right thing. Therefore, everyone should be conscious about the merits and demerits of all the facts he/she is facing. Decision making and Problem solving skills are inter-related. Proper decision making leads to the solution of any problem.

## IMPLEMENTATION OF PROGRAMME

*The method and contents will depend upon:*

- Availability of human resources
- Availability of time
- Availability of audio-visual aids
- Age, educational level, sex and cultural background of the group.

*Methods:*

- Talks
- Group discussion
- Question box
- Question-Answer sessions
- Role play
- Drama
- Story telling
- Debates
- Showing films or slides

Though, talks is a conventionally used method, the other methods, if used, could bring a variety in the programme and maintain interest of the students.

Several topics could be picked up for the debates and dramas, *e.g.*, STD/AIDS, teenage pregnancy, dowry, premarital counselling, myths and misconceptions, homosexuality, child marriage, sexual abuse, gender discrimination, selection of partner. "Question Box" approach for sex education is found to be effective. This method consists of installing a question box in a central place in the school/

college campus. By putting a notice on the Notice Board all the students are informed to write questions (without writing their name) about their health problems or questions relating to their bodies and put them in the box. Once a week the box is opened by the teachers and the questions written therein are answered.

Question box approach to sex education is found to be convenient, easy to implement, takes care of embarrassment and fulfils the needs of the adolescents. Should sex education programme be included in a regular secondary school curriculum? Though, majority of principals and teachers are in favour of including sex education in the secondary school curriculum, some have expressed their reservations for it, the reasons being

- Some topics are sensitive and may raise controversy,
- Sex education would raise unnecessary curiosity and lead to misconduct among students.
- Students are already overburdened with studies,
- Schools have no extra time to allocate for sex education.

### **Who Should Give Sex Education**

Sexuality education should be taught by specially trained teachers or professionals or by trained peer groups. The community must be involved in the development and implementation of the programme. The programme must be carefully developed to respect the diversity of the values and beliefs represented by the community. Parents, teachers, administrators should be involved in developing a programme. In fact, briefing them about the developed programme prior to its implementation to students is quite essential. Preferably, the curriculum and the audiovisuals should be pretested.

### **Who Should train**

Sexologists, doctors, nurses, psychologists, social workers, teachers, volunteers, NGOs, media persons, peer groups, *etc.* They should be trained in the subjects. Since the subject of sex education is multidisciplinary, more than one resource persons may be required. Government, municipality, NGOs, can render help. Not only the knowledge of sexuality but the methodology should also be included in the training. The Trainers/Teachers should Have acquired accurate knowledge Have a good communication skill Have a good listening skill Be able to establish good rapport with students and teachers Be non judgemental Be comfortable with his/her own sexuality.

### **Maintain Confidentiality Selection of Teachers**

It has been indicated by the adolescents in a survey that they would prefer to get such information from their teachers. Teachers are also best judges about the level of understanding of school child and they would be the best persons to screen or filter the socially unacceptable portions of such training. However, not all teachers would volunteer to participate in the project.

Teachers have their own inhibitions, misconceptions and confusions. Therefore, those teachers who volunteer for teaching sex education should be selected for training. It requires a gifted prudent and morally upright teacher to stand up before a group of young people and impress upon them that sex is precious and dignified. Therefore, not every teacher may be willing to undertake sex education and not every teacher who is willing to give sex education has the ability to do so. Sometimes the most enthusiastic teacher may be the least suitable. The teachers should be selected only after thorough knowledge of their personality, attitudes and behaviour. Students should be encouraged to act as peer educators, and to share important information with those who don't have access to it in the way they do.

### **Organizational Chart**

When the sex education programme is to be implemented on a large scale, the following organizational chart will be of help.

*Planners:* Core Committee: Govt. representatives Civic body representatives Experts in Human Sexuality Representatives from NGOs Representatives from Principals of schools/colleges Master Trainers: Sexologists Psychologists Trained social workers Doctors Key Trainers: Teachers Volunteers Beneficiaries: Students Parents Audio-visual Aids and Resource Material

- Chalk-Blackboard
- Charts/Pictures
- Models
- Slides and slide projector
- Overhead projector
- Video cassettes
- Films
- Books
- Newspaper cuttings.

At present many types of audio-visuals are not easily available. It is better to prepare one's own audio-visuals that will meet the needs of the group.

Cultural differences in customs, dress, language and behaviour becomes so important that materials judged to be suitable in one region or culture may be totally unacceptable in another. Therefore, each cultural group should develop its own appropriate teaching aids. In order to achieve the best possible outcome from any programmes, it is necessary to invest in the development of competence of people who will be involved. Pretesting Pretesting involves getting feedback on communication materials prior to their widespread diffusion by measuring the reaction of a group of individuals in the target audience. Pretesting is a cost effective means of avoiding a communications disaster. If materials are inappropriate, misunderstood or unappealing, they will not be worth and should be changed. Pretesting finds out whether the curriculum and the audio-visual materials are acceptable to the culture, whether the message is clearly understood and whether the materials are relevant.

### **Ethics in Sex Education**

No body contacts No slang language No vulgar jokes No use of naked photographs/pornography No late hours No individual training Non judgemental No religious, cultural criticism No sharing of and asking for personal experiences No emotional involvement No advertisement or promotion of any commercial product.

Confidentiality about the communication on sexual and personal matters. Be honest and answer truthfully all the questions posed by children.

### **Evaluation**

It is essential to receive the feedback, evaluate and analyse and modify the programme from time to time. Evaluation helps in knowing the effectiveness and shortcomings of the programme conducted. Suitable modifications can be made in the next programme to make them more effective. The data collected can be useful for research. The evaluation form should contain personal details (name may be optional so as to hide the identity) and the comments about the contents of the programme, the speakers, the audio-visuals, the duration and other details.

Evaluation can also be based on stated objectives of the course and cover attitudinal, behavioural and cognitive changes. Questionnaire or interviews in small groups intended to identify the needs of participants will determine how far these are being met. On the basis of information gained from these sources the curriculum will require continuing modification and restructuring.

### **Research**

There are several methods of sex research. Each method has strengths and weaknesses. The selection of the method will depend upon the nature of the subject to be studied and the resources available. The methods are: Surveys, Observational research, Case studies, Clinical research, Experimental research.

#### **Survey**

Research Surveys are used for gathering information about a sample of population either by interviewing people or asking them to fill a questionnaire. Surveys are economical and permit flexibility in sampling. Surveys are affected by the accuracy of information provided by the subjects in answering questionnaires or interviewer's questions. Reliability of surveys depend upon obtaining a proper sample.

#### **Observational Research**

It involves the use of human observer or an instrument to record the events being studied. The study of sexual response done by Masters and Johnson was a landmark. The accuracy in observational research does not depend upon subject's self-reports. Volunteer bias may pose uncertainties in this method.

### **Case Studies**

Case studies are in-depth examinations of one or more people having a particular condition. Generalization can- not be done in this method. The biases of researcher can also put limitations.

### **Clinical Research**

It involves studies that test a type of treatment given for specific problem. The reliability will be maximum when done in comparison with a control group.

### **Experimental Research**

It permits scientists to isolate specific variables that affect a condition or a behaviour and may allow them to draw a conclusion about cause and effect. Experimental research is expensive and difficult to perform. Volunteer bias, artificiality of situation may limit the validity of such studies. At present surveys seem to be the only possible method of research in our country.

In evaluating the quality of research study it is necessary to look at such issues as the size and nature of the sample, the means by which data was collected, the type of data analysis that was done and the researcher's discussion about the limitations of the study. It is necessary to see whether the study has been replicated elsewhere. Independent verification or research is most powerful tool for confirming the validity of a study.

### **Planning a Curriculum**

There are no published countrywide accepted national guidelines for comprehensive adolescent sexuality education. Sex educators and teachers create their own curriculum for sexuality education. Some include anatomy and physiology of sex organs, physical, emotional changes at puberty, STD and AIDS, nutrition and hygiene and family planning; while some include family life issues such as relationship between family members, gender role, socialization and child development; few provide information about cultural and social aspects of human sexuality, sexual values and attitudes, beliefs, sexual activities and functioning. Very few include information on sexual behaviour.

Every expert has been dealing with it from one's own perspective and experience. Therefore, there is a need for a comprehensive course in sexuality education. There can be no ideal curriculum that will meet the needs of every community. However, there can be a document containing guidelines on topics that may be presented to the adolescents in a developmentally appropriate manner, and to suit their needs. These guidelines are given in the next chapter. The characteristic of local situation should determine the exact contents of the local programme. Community attitudes, developmental differences in children, local socioeconomic influence, parents' expectations, students' needs and expectations and religious and other perspectives should be paramount in designing the local sexuality education programme.

The suggestions given in the age-wise guidelines should also be flexible. It is important to allow as much autonomy as possible at local level to develop contents and methods which are suitable to local circumstances and preferences. In early years of life, the focus of student-interest is his own developmental adjustment with reference to sexual behaviour. At the later stage, when he has accepted his own sexuality and established his values, he is ready to concentrate on assimilation of knowledge, especially of those aspects of sexuality that seem most relevant to his special areas of interest.

Sex relationships are most sensitive of all human relationships. A programme will not be effective if there is no understanding of moral, ethical, aesthetic and religious sensibilities of the people for whom the curriculum is designed. Apart from accepting a few basic principles on which general agreement is reached, planners would be wise to adopt a flexible approach and avoid stereotypes. The programme will require modification from time to time depending upon the feedback, the need, the acceptance and the changing circumstances.

## **ADOLESCENCE EDUCATION PROGRAMME**

The A.E.P is an intervention to impart accurate and adequate knowledge about the process of growing up with a focus on reproductive and sexual health in its Biological, Psychological and Socio-cultural dimensions. There are 13 components of the programme. The programme has a planned schedule with procedural details to educate the adolescence.

### **Brief Objectives**

- To learn, develop and enhance life skills
- To enable the adolescents to understand developing gender sensitivity.
- To deal with gender stereotypes and prejudices
- To modify Adolescent's Behaviour for their betterment.
- To enable the adolescents to understand reproductive and sexual issues and other concerns
- To enable the adolescents to know the basic facts about,
  - Substance abuse and
  - H.I.V/Aids.

### **Objectives of Adolescence Education**

- To ensure the integration of AE elements into the school curriculum and in teacher education courses.
- To organize activities for life skills development.
- To help students acquire authentic knowledge about Adolescent Reproductive and Sexual Health (ARSH) including HIV/AIDS and substance abuse, especially drugs.
- To inculcate in students essential life skills to develop healthy attitudes and responsible behaviour towards ARSH issues, including HIV/AIDS and substance abuse.

## Training Programmes

*Under AEP, the CBSE is conducting empowerment programmes for different stakeholders:*

- Advocacy for Principals
- Nodal Teachers training
- Master Training for creating a pool of CBSE Resource Persons

*At least two nodal teachers per school will undergo training to conduct the following school level activities:*

- Advocacy activities at the school and community level.
- Using the Question Box and responding to questions raised by students.
- Conducting classroom sessions by organizing interactive student activities.
- Strengthening linkages with adolescent/youth-friendly health services.
- Peer educators will also be trained to reach the out-of-school adolescents who have either dropped out or were never enrolled.

## Materials of Training Programmes

*The materials for the training programmes consists of the following documents which will soon be available in each school:*

- Teachers' Workbook – for Student Activities
- Reference Material-For Resource Persons, Nodal Teachers and Peer Educators
- Facilitators' Handbook for training of Resource Persons and Nodal Teachers
- Adolescence Education Programme – Flip Chart

The training programmes at three levels – Advocacy, Nodal Teacher Training and Master Training are on the web site along with dates and venues. You may register by filling in the Pre-Registration Proforma which is available online.

## AN EDUCATION PROGRAMME EMPOWERS ADOLESCENT GIRLS

Traditionally, women in such areas marry young and often give birth to children when they are not physically or emotionally ready, at great danger to their own lives.

But in at least one district, things are changing. Anusaya, 14, lives in the village of Antapur in the district of Chandrapur, Maharashtra, central India. She is extremely shy but smiles easily. Until very recently, Anusaya spent her days at home cooking and cleaning, or in the fields, picking cotton under the hot sun to contribute to her family's meagre income.

Today she plans to go back to school. It's a complete turnaround from a few months ago when her parents started to plan her marriage. At that point, Anusaya had already been out of school for two years.



## RETURN TO SCHOOL

Rukma, 24, is a ‘prerika’, or volunteer facilitator, at the local Deepshikha adolescent girls’ group. The Deepshikha programme works to educate and empower girls and ensure their increased participation in decision making that affects them.

### Empowering Girls

Every child’s right to free expression is a guiding principle of the Convention on the Rights of the Child. Now the adolescent girls in Chandrapur are becoming active members of their community and are themselves challenging discriminatory beliefs and practices.

Deepshikha was launched by UNICEF in 2008 in partnership with the Government of Maharashtra and local non-governmental organizations. There are now more than 2,200 Deepshikha groups in four districts in Maharashtra, reaching more than 50,000 adolescent girls. “You can make a difference – a big difference – by capitalising on the energies of young women,” says Chief of Field Office for UNICEF Maharashtra Tejinder Sandhu. “Investing in an adolescent girl also means that you are investing not just in an individual, but a whole family.”

Potential ‘prerikas’ are identified by local village committees and nominated for a 20-day training programme in which they learn about child rights, health, and sex and gender issues. After the first 10-day training session, each one goes back to her village, identifies local adolescent girls and invites them to form a Deepshikha group.

### Widening Horizons

After completing 40 sessions, each Deepshikha is encouraged to form a Self-Help Group (SHG). The SHG opens up a savings bank account, with small amounts of money added each time, to form a small-scale fund. This is accessible to group members who need to cover essential education and health care costs. The money can also be put towards small business ventures.

Reshma, 17, is bright-eyed and confident. A few years ago, her parents decided she shouldn’t attend school. Reshma began learning how to sew clothes but soon realised that she wanted to do more. When the Deepshikha group started in her village, she decided she wanted to be part of it.

“The first time I attended a Deepshikha session, my parents were confused and they told me I wasn’t allowed to go,” says Reshma. “But then, when I told them what I’d learned about how to improve our community, they agreed to let me.”

Reshma’s has since grown in self-confidence and her father is now a fervent support of the Deepshikha programme. “Look at the change in all these girls. They’re working so hard now and they have so much courage,” he says. Of his daughter, he adds: “If she can now learn something, she can become someone.”

# 3

## **Family Planning Employment and Programme**

By employing women, family planning programmes provide many thousands of women with new roles and opportunities. Family planning programmes make a point of hiring women, especially as front-line providers. In most societies a woman-to-woman approach is the best way to communicate about family planning and to offer services. Female family planning providers can talk to other women and understand their needs better than men can. The United States Agency for International Development estimates that currently about 500,000 women work in family planning programmes in developing countries-about half of the nearly one million family planning workers estimated by the World Bank to be employed in both developed and developing countries. Jobs held by women range from community-based distributors to programme administrators to doctors, nurses, and midwives. What do women gain by working in family planning? Almost all research has concerned community-based distributors. Studies in seven countries conclude that women working as community-based distributors benefit because they earn money, receive useful training, and gain status in their communities. Of course, other kinds of work, outside family planning, might benefit women similarly or more, while still other kinds of jobs can make life worse.

**Income.** The salaries, honoraria, or fees for service paid to family planning workers can make a difference to their quality of life. In a survey by the Centre for Development and Population Activities (CEDPA) of 305 field workers employed in 11 family planning projects in Bangladesh, India, Kenya, Mali,

Nepal, Pakistan, and Turkey, 76% reported that the income they received from their jobs improved their economic status. Most of these women use their income to help their families. In the CEDPA study 51% used their earnings largely for general household expenditures; 29%, for their children's education; 10%, for themselves; and 6%, for other miscellaneous, unessential expenses. The remaining 4% gave the money to their husbands. By earning money, some women improve their position in the household. Most women in the CEDPA study gained more control over their children's education, medical care, and household expenditures. Many also found that relations with husbands and in-laws improved. Just earning money does not guarantee better status at home, however. Some case studies of women earning money in the informal sector (not in family planning) experienced no increase in household influence.

Of course, many programmes ask women to work as volunteers. Even if women cannot be paid for their work, programmes can make special efforts to recognize their contributions and publicly honor their contribution to their communities.

Competence in new skills. Family planning providers can learn new information and skills. In the CEDPA study community-based distributors' reports suggest that their leadership and communications skills improved, as did their knowledge of family planning methods and service delivery. For many, this is their first paying job. Unlike physical labour such as sewing, farming, or typing, family planning field work teaches women skills that meet the social needs of the community and that enable women to teach others. Community-based family planning providers often help people obtain medical care at clinics. Some are trained to provide directly and/or to teach oral rehydration therapy, immunization, nutrition services, safe delivery practices, and broader maternity care. Professional status and respect. Female family planning workers often win respect for their knowledge. These women become community authorities in family planning and other health matters. In Matlab, Bangladesh, both field workers and community members report that field workers are important community resources not only for family planning services but also for general medical advice and referral. Community members even seek field workers' advice on financial matters and neighbourhood disputes. Respect is not always easily earned, however. New roles for women sometimes threaten community norms, and those who break the rules may be scorned. For example, in Muslim countries where purdah is practiced, custom prohibits women from moving about alone in public, and yet family planning field workers must visit homes and clinics.

In the face of initial hostility from the community, female workers often find ways to maintain their self-respect. For example, Bangladeshi family planning workers redefined for themselves the traditional norms of purdah and female modesty. They spoke of "inner purdah," shifting emphasis from physical seclusion to an internalized moral code of conduct.

In various cultures and countries, female family planning workers have experienced initial rebuke, then gradual acceptance, and eventual respect. For

example, in Bangladesh the field workers initially scorned for violating purdah eventually regained their prestige and at the same time legitimized family planning services.

In a few cases female field workers have been unable to win community respect. A study of auxiliary nurse-midwives who provided family planning services in Maharashtra, India, found that many of the women had been abandoned by their husbands or had difficulty finding a husband. In general, women working as community-based distributors feel strengthened by their work.

They reported in the CEDPA study that their achievements and value to the community enhanced their self-esteem and sense of autonomy. Particularly in cultures that generally isolate women, work in family planning is a gateway to new ideas, new information, and new opportunities.

### **MODELS OF CHANGE: WOMEN WORKING IN FAMILY PLANNING**

Women working in family planning offer other women more than family planning information and supplies. They often are agents of change and new role-models for their communities. By persevering and winning respect, women working in family planning set an example for other women. They legitimize women's employment, and family planning workers can serve as examples that young women can aspire to emulate.

Family planning workers can stimulate change in their communities in many ways. Their work can loosen taboos detrimental to women and even help other women assert themselves. For example, after three years of a women-staffed community-based project in Mali, villagers were more willing to discuss such previously taboo topics as family planning and contraceptives. In Nairobi, Kenya, female volunteers in a family planning project spoke with confidence in public gatherings. In both India and Bangladesh community acceptance has enabled female field workers to intervene in family disputes, rebuking and advising men and providing moral support to women. Through careful selection, training, and support, family planning programmes can make special efforts to see that their female employees benefit from their work. Women's employment in family planning needs more study. Other female providers, not just community-based distributors, need to be surveyed. Also, pay scales, working conditions, and potential for training and career advancement should be analyzed with an eye to increasing opportunities for women.

Workers selected with their communities' input may have a better chance of being accepted than workers chosen by outsiders, as a review of community-based programmes in Africa suggests. In some cases newly employed family planning workers may displace traditional practitioners, such as traditional birth attendants and midwives, who play a vital social role. Collaboration may be important to win support from traditional practitioners and avoid resistance that could make the task of family planning workers more difficult.

Promoting family planning providers helps women win community respect as qualified, trustworthy professionals. Strengthening both the image and the skills of providers can attract and keep clients. Johns Hopkins Population Communication Services has dubbed this the PRO approach-Promoting Professional Providers.

A survey in Kenya showed that people who had heard the radio drama in the Haki Yako ("It's Your Right") PRO approach campaign were less likely to have a negative image of family planning providers than people who had not heard it. Visible symbols of family planning employment help, too. In Kenya and Zimbabwe, for example, female community-based distributors wear uniforms and have signs outside their homes signifying official endorsement of their work. Recognized as community leaders and authorities, family planning workers are often the only women who sit on the podium at official village events.

## **INDIA TO HOST FAMILY PLANNING MEETING**

India will play host to the Expert Group Meeting on Family Planning, Health and Family Well-Being in Bangalore from 26-30 October 1992. The meeting, one of six expert group meetings preceding the International Conference on Population and Development, 1994, will bring together renowned experts in family planning, policy-makers, representatives of both inter-governmental and non governmental organizations, and United Nations officials. Despite the success of a number of family planning programmes in developing regions of the world, implementation problems continue to hinder progress in some countries. The meeting will attempt to address these problems.

Changes in the social, economic and demographic conditions of the world are such that even when programmes are successful, there is no room for complacency. Programmes should be continually evaluated and reviewed. The considerable increase in the number of couples who will need access to family planning services and information by the year 2000 will be a major consideration in shaping family planning programmes in the years ahead. Family planning is not just a demographic issue. It is also an issue related to individual rights, socioeconomic development, preservation of the environment, and the health and well-being of women, couples, families and society at large. The participants will examine the issues in this light, and will place special emphasis on both operational and financial questions.

The general objectives of the meeting are how to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of existing family planning programmes and services; how to reach larger segments of the population; how to devise innovative approaches to new or existing problems; and how to obtain the funding needed for the ever-increasing demand for family planning services. The Expert Group Meeting encompasses seven sessions. The session on "Society and Family Planning" will examine societal aspects of family planning programmes in developing countries, in particular, the political, economic and socio-cultural context in which programmes operate, with special emphasis on the role and status of women.

The session on "Family Planning Programmes: Lessons Learned" will discuss the impact of family planning programmes around the globe and attempt to draw lessons from those experiences. "Programme Implementation" will address important operational aspects of family planning programmes, including their organization and management; quality of services; human resource development; unreached populations; adolescent fertility; information, education and communication activities; community-based delivery systems; social marketing of contraceptives; and future contraceptive requirements and logistics management needs.

Nowadays, family planning programmes are seen not only as programmes to reduce fertility, but as programmes which promote the welfare of the entire family. The session devoted to "Family Planning and Health" will discuss safe motherhood and child survival, and sexually-transmitted diseases, including AIDS. "Family Planning and Family Well-Being" will review changes in the size and structure of the family and consider the implications of these changes for family well-being and child development.

An emerging issue which will be addressed is that of people's involvement in family planning programmes. Direct community involvement helps ensure that services are provided in accordance with community preferences, and are thus more likely to be accepted. Another question which participants will consider is the cost of contraception for individual couples, which in some circumstances may still be an important barrier to contraceptive practice. How much can users around the world afford to pay, and how much will Governments need to spend to make family planning information, supplies and services fully available?

The future role of NGOs and the private sector in family planning service delivery will also be raised, in view of the expected rise in the number of users and the cost of providing high quality services.

The final session of the expert Group Meeting will be devoted to the discussion and adoption of a set of recommendations to be presented to the Preparatory Committee of the International Conference on Population and Development, 1994.

### **Child Survival and Health**

Babies who survive and children who enjoy good health are universal humanitarian goals. Strategies to advance these goals in developing countries include both direct investments in health and nutrition programmes and the increased availability of family planning services. These two strategies complement each other, and should be viewed together. Especially in times of fiscal austerity and reduced international assistance, they should not be pitted against each other in competition for scarce funds. The basic conditions necessary for newborns to survive and for children to flourish are no secret. The ideal would be for all babies to be born to mothers who are in good health, who have obtained adequate prenatal care and who have access to the health facilities



necessary for a safe delivery. Also needed are sufficient breastfeeding, good nutrition after weaning, hygienic living conditions-especially clean water and modern sanitation-and medical care that includes immunization against childhood diseases.

But two other, related factors also contribute to improved child health and survival in developing countries. These are smaller families and the use of methods of contraception that allow couples to plan their families. When women can plan when and how many children to have, the number of "high-risk" pregnancies and births is reduced, and infant and child health and survival improve. Because the conditions that enhance babies' health and chances of survival can be found in most of the developed world, the high infant mortality rates of the past have largely disappeared in the West. In France, Japan and the United States, for example, fewer than 10 babies die for every 1,000 live births. Thus, for most Americans, the death of a baby is a rare event. Yet some older Americans can remember when infant deaths were as common in the United States as they are currently in many parts of the developing world (Chart A). In 1920, the U.S., infant mortality rate was as high as Nigeria's is today (87 infant deaths for every 1,000 live births. In 1965, it still equalled the current rate of 25 deaths per 1,000 in Sri Lanka, and in inner-city communities particularly, the rate remains close to that level.

We have known for some time that better timing and spacing of pregnancies improves child health and survival. Large-scale studies in Western Europe and North America, published in the late 1970s and early 1980s, confirmed the beneficial effects that planned and timely childbearing have on child survival. More recent evidence from developing countries also compellingly links improved child survival with smaller family size and well-timed pregnancies.

This Issues in Brief will show how family planning can lead to significant improvements in the survival of newborns and the health of small children. Because women who use contraceptive methods can choose when to become pregnant, they are better prepared than women whose pregnancies are unexpected to seek care for themselves during pregnancy, and able to time their pregnancies to achieve the best situation for the infant.

## **FORAGING SOCIETY FAMILY**

Family organizations in foraging societies often revealed by their institutional components, the difficulty of living in marginal ecosystems. Whatever their original habitats might have been, contemporary foragers like the San and the Australian aborigines lived in desert-like regions, the Inuit in the frozen north, and the Batwa and Siriono in dense forests. Many of these groups may have been driven or retreated into the areas where they were encountered, and had subsequently adapted to local conditions. For example, many of the hunters on the Great Plains of North America are believed to have been river valley cultivators before they became equestrian hunters of the buffalo. Nevertheless, it is true, that the food producing repertoires used by foragers and consisting of



fishing, hunting and gathering wild plant foods, were common to human beings for more than 99 percent of their existence. Moreover, such implements as the digging sticks, clubs, spears, bows and arrows, fishing devices, traps, fire and containers for food, permitted these families to survive. True, under normal circumstances, the sparse and often irregular sources of plant and animal food inhibited foragers from congregating in groups larger than fifty or one hundred persons, but fisher folk, on the Northwest Coast of North America, could, and did inhabit relatively large villages.

Families in foraging societies were usually exogamous, meaning that they married outside domestic groups normally composed of near kin. Levi-Strauss noted the frequency of what he termed “restricted exchange” in band societies. Men usually exchanged sisters as wives, or more usual, exchanged women between bands. Such marriages effectively supported incest prohibitions, but also extended the range for food collecting during periods of scarcity. Edward Tylor wrote that early human groups quickly learned that people had to “marry out or die out.” Band exogamy, when linked to frequent changes of residence and limited food supply may have facilitated the development of a bilateral kinship system where people traced their descent from both mothers and fathers, rather than almost exclusively either through males or females. The aboriginal Australians had complex rules of band exogamy and kinship terminologies, but this did not prevent persons from moving from place to place and finding relatives with whom they could live.

Monogamy was the usual marriage rule among foraging bands. In some cases widows were inherited as plural wives, and high status men occasionally had plural spouses. But limited resources precluded plural marriages. Residence was normally virilocal, that is, with the husband, but as we have seen married persons often changed residence for economic or personal reasons. Without exception, the !Kung and San of South Africa required that all men spend several years providing “bride service” with the family of their brides. The reason they gave for this was that the parents of brides needed the proceeds from the hunting of their son-in-law. The Inuit were normally monogamous, but exchanged wives when specific women were needed to perform particular domestic chores.

While male dominance was usual in foraging societies, Kathleen Gough was basically correct when she asserted: “Especially lacking in hunting societies is the kind of male possessiveness and exclusiveness regarding women that leads to such institutions as savage punishments or guarding of female chastity and virginity, the denial of divorce to women, or the ban on a woman’s remarriage after her husband’s death.” Kung, San and Inuit men did not have the power to brutalize wives, and could be sanctioned by male relatives or by the entire community. Unreasonable Inuit husbands were known to be the butt of ridicule when they were defeated in “song duels.”

Children were valued in foraging societies as replacements for the old and deceased. Twins and children born when siblings were still suckling were often suppressed. Twins were considered unnatural beings who overburdened mothers

who could not provide enough milk for them. Children in foraging bands learned by doing. Boys were carefully trained to participate in the hunt, and girls were taught how to harvest plants, roots and berries. Yet even on this level, children acquired special knowledge during initiation ceremonies that marked puberty. Among the hunters of “great plains” in North America, young males were required to undertake vision quests to test their fortitude and to acquire “guardian spirits.” Successful youths often returned to camp filled with ambition to become great hunters and members of police societies that monitored the hunt. Failure to receive guardian spirits often indicated to the community that some youths had different religious, sexual and gender orientations. Such young men sometimes became skilled “medicine men” or *berdaches* whose life choice as female was respected by the band. The most valuable lessons learned by children in many foraging societies was to respect and even support gerontocide, the killing of parents unwilling to permit illnesses to jeopardize the safety of the community.

Most foraging societies were egalitarian and did not possess the resources to permit stratification among families. The Kwakiutl of the Northwest Coast of North America was a much studied exception. Profiting from their ownership of clam-beds, sections of river banks and off-shore areas, and of hunting, berry and wild-root areas, some families were able to take titles and erect totem poles. Individual men and women were able to engage in elaborate gift-giving contests known as *potlatches*. Wealthy families often held chieftainships, kept slaves and boasted that they did not fight with weapons, but fought with property. Admittedly, this behaviour was rare among foraging societies, and may have been due to contact with the West. Yet, the Kwakiutl indicated the social structure possibilities of foraging societies in favorable circumstances.

Data about the beliefs of families of foragers, suggest people tended to identify with *zoomorphic* animals and plants. This was especially true among the Australians whose totemic beliefs and rituals linked families to mythical people and animals. As the worship of the sea goddess, Sedna, among the Inuit indicated, the hope was mostly to augment the food supply. But beliefs about “dream time” among the Australians may have represented an attempt to keep track of historical events? Shamans, among the !Kung or Inuit employed curing ceremonies on behalf of family members. The Batwa Pygmies of the Ituri forests of Zaire held Molimo ceremonies to appease the denizens of their forest homes.

### **Herding Society Family**

Herding societies often referred to as “part cultures” because they were often linked to plant cultivators, normally provided families with greater resources than did foragers. These families were usually embedded in larger social units known as lineages, clans or “tribes” based on actual or putative “genealogies.” Generally, lineages viewed themselves as corporate groups possessing rights in persons and property, but these attributes were usually anchored in lineage segments that lived together. For example, the Somali dia-paying groups used to pay the families of

the victims of feuds), were said to be lineage-wide, but were really based on highly localized sublineages. Undoubtedly, the genealogical structure of herding families was a function of their need to adapt to the transhumance needs of their livestock, and a corresponding need to protect their animals against both human and animal predators. Nomadic herders ranged far and wide to secure pasturage for their livestock, and they often developed protective or aggressive institutions to replenish herds depleted through raids and diseases.

Marriage alliances among herders were usually arranged by heads of extended families and lineage segments often without regard to the wishes of the persons to be married. Central to these marriages was the *bridewealth*, a customary gift from the husband and his group to the wife and her group, before, at, or after marriage. Ostensibly the gift was a compensation to the bride's family for the loss of her companionship and labour. It was not a "brideprice" since the bride could not be subsequently sold. Bridewealth was very much a "progeny price" that gave a woman's children full membership in her husband's descent group, even though she remained a stranger to that group.

The bridewealth accomplished a number of ancillary functions. It tended to stabilize marriages and discourage divorce because persons who negotiated the bridewealth disliked haggling over refunding the gift in event of a divorce. Bridewealth also fortified group alliances because it was linked to the *levirate*, an institution in which the widow was inherited by her late husband's male relatives. A companion institution was the *sororate* in which families replaced a woman who died before bearing children for their husband's family or proved infertile, with another woman. It was not uncommon for men whose fathers had died before completely paying the gift, to finish the transaction to legitimize themselves.

Herding groups such as Arab or other Semitic pastoralists tended to be endogamous, that is, they approved marriages among persons with known genealogical relationships. Marriage with father's brother's daughter was not only permitted but was preferred. Such marriage practices undoubtedly served to preserve wealth within extended families or lineage segments, but they also solidified these units. The Somali and the Fulani of the Sudan further strengthened family bonds by adding a dowry from the bride's family to the new family. This gift included furnishings for the new household. Couples who received both parts of bridewealth and dowries, had an economic cushion when they established their households.

Families in herding societies were frequently stratified due to the exigencies of raiding and warfare, or the health and increase or decrease of their herds. For example, Mongol families were socially stratified on the basis of wealth gained or lost as a result of raids. Poor families became dependent upon wealthy ones, but wealthy families kept few chattel slaves and massacred captives deemed useless or dangerous since they could decamp with animals. The Tuaregs of the Sahara and Fulani, on the other hand, sought and held captives from cultivators and used them to produce plant products, and to perform household chores.

## **POSITION OF WOMEN IN HERDING SOCIETIES**

The position of women in herding societies differed widely, and may have been conditioned by relations with agricultural societies with whom they were in contact. Wealthy men were permitted to have plural wives and concubines, but the exigencies of nomadic life precluded secluding women who often traveled with the herds. Tuareg women in the Western Sahara, had extraordinarily high statuses. Girls were permitted to indulge in a great deal of “petting” with young men, while friendships between married women and men were taken as a matter of course. How much of women’s liberty was due their remaining at home while Tuareg men traveled widely, is open to debate.

While not as privileged as Tuareg women, Mongol women were fairly autonomous. They rode like men, and engaged in warfare when necessary. Each wife had her own “yurt” where she lived with her children and could acquire property on her own. The first wife in a Mongol’s household was regarded as head of the establishment and took charge of her husband’s herds while he was away. In marked contrast, the nomadic Arab family tended to be highly patriarchal with a corresponding diminution of the status of women. Men insisted upon of virginity of their brides at marriage, and often executed unchaste girls or an unfaithful wife and her lover.

There was a corresponding wide range of affective relations within the conjugal families of herders. Mongol boys were subject to their fathers and younger brothers to their elder brothers, but relations between Mongol mothers and their sons were close and persisted all their lives. They often formed an amiable conspiratorial group to circumvent the father.

In contrast, Arab fathers tended to be authoritarian within their families, and often invoked supernatural sanctions to control the sexual activities of their sons. It has been suggested that the combination of patriarchal suppression, and religious proscriptions often gave rise to homosexuality among Arab men, especially among boys and unmarried men. But this practice was usually replaced by heterosexual behaviour when men married and became independent of their fathers.

## **EDUCATION OF THE YOUNG IN HERDING SOCIETIES**

The education of the young in herding societies was primarily by emulation. Girls learned milking techniques from women when custom permitted, and how to care for their households, including erecting tents. Boys learned herding techniques from their male kin. In addition there were usually special institutions to train young males to protect their herds and to participate in the public affairs of their communities. Chief among these was the “age-set” system formed among boys who had been initiated, and who had jointly experienced the trauma of circumcision. They often received special instructions and were provided with a name to enhance their esprit de corps. Normally, such age-sets were formed during the period throughout the society, and even across ethnic groups. These age-set went through stages known as “agegrades.” Thus a specific age-set would

pass through the age-grade associated with herding, then through a grade known as junior warriors, then senior warriors, husbands, councilors, priests, and the ultimate, age-grade—the ancestors. Sometimes society-wide age-sets and those from neighbouring societies were organized into regiments for warfare. East African pastoralists had cycling age-sets, that were revived every sixty or more years permitting new groups of men to serve the age-grades of their societies. Some societies had age-set and age-grade systems for females, but most of these were auxiliary to those of the males. Maasai girls formed a cohort to frequent the bachelor quarters of initiated men where they engaged in heavy petting.

Religious practitioners such as shamans in pastoral societies tended to invoke the supernatural for protection of families and their herds and were not above invoking supernatural sanctions against evil-doers. Shamans among the reindeer Chuckchee of Siberia were often curers who used ventriloquism to impress their congregations.

## **FAMILY IN AGRICULTURE SOCIETY**

Family systems in societies of plant cultivators, ranging from horticulture to agriculture, reflected the increasing control by human beings of their food supplies. This adaptive strategy permitted human beings to occupy a greater variety of ecological niches and to live in larger settlements. This meant that their family organizations exhibited patterns of kinship, linearity, incest and marriage, locality rules, sex roles, stratification systems, and patterns of rearing the young, rarely found in other levels of sociocultural integration, including the early states.

There was a wide variation in the division of labour in food preparation, crafts, markets and trade, among families in plant cultivating societies. For example, men among the Igbo of Nigeria, considered the yams they cultivated as the most important crop, whereas women cultivated the “small crops” such as maize, beans and the like. Mundurucu men of Brazil cleared the forest for manioc gardens, implanted the stalks, leaving women to harvest this staple crop and cultivate the lesser appreciated beans and squash. Besileo men and women of Madagascar jointly cultivated the rice fields, but the rice terraces were largely prepared by men. Tallensi men in northern Ghana proudly cultivated the millets and yams, their main crops, leaving women to cultivate the pulses and vegetables used as condiments. Nevertheless, a sample of 515 horticultural societies, representing all regions of the world revealed that women were the main food producers for their families. In 50 percent of the families women dominated cultivation, in 33 percent their contribution to food production was equal to that of the men. In only 17 percent of the families did men do most of the work. This, however, did not prevent male cultivators from pretending that they produced more food than did women.

A division of labour between men and women also existed in craft activities. Men and women might collaborate in cloth production, but women spun cotton

into threads, men wove cloth, women dyed the cloth and men made the clothes. Only male smiths were permitted to produce iron hoes and other implements used for food cultivation and warfare. Their wives were often the potters. Men and women seldom sold the same products in the market places, and when they did so, they used different places. Extra-village and long distance trade usually were in the hands of males. Men were not invariably more successful than women in food production, in craftwork, or in commerce. Good luck and superior skills often resulted in females being wealthier than males. Nevertheless, men were judged the breadwinners.

Anthropologists have long debated the reasons for the patterns of kinship and descent among plant cultivators, and especially the reasons for the high incidence of matriliney and uxorilocality (men living at homes of wives) within them. It is perhaps significant that in 64 percent of the societies in which women were the main food producers in the families, descent was reckoned through the female line (or matrilineally). In contrast, in only 50 percent of those cases in which males were the major food producers was descent traced through the male line (or were patrilineal). Does this mean that despite the ideology of men that they cultivated the major crops, people tended to live with the main food producers?

There is, however, less debate about the tensions between descent principles and locality rules in the families of plant cultivators. Conjugal life in matrilineal families was especially tense because the rights of women very often came into conflict with the more universal pattern of male dominance. Not only did women produce most of the food in such societies, but they frequently lived matrilocally and had relatively high statuses. Succession to political positions, allocation of land, and overall social identities were often based on links through females. Public authority was often assigned to men, but actual power and decision-making belonged to women. In his description of what he termed, "A Woman-centered Family System," in a classical matrilineal society, Bronislaw Malinowski wrote:

The typical Trobriand household is founded on the principles of equality and independence of function: the man is considered to be the master, for he is in his own village and the house belongs to him, but the woman has, in other respects, a considerable influence; she and her family have a great deal to do with the food supply of the household; and she is—next to her brother—the legal head of her family.

What intrigued Malinowski was the relatively equal division of labour between females and males among the Trobrianders, and that in this matrilineal society, "descent, kinship, and every social relationship" was legally reckoned through mother only. Women had a considerable role in the life of the community, "even to the taking of a leading part in economic, ceremonial, and magical activities—a fact which very deeply influence all the customs of erotic life as well as the institution of marriage."

While the Trobrianders had a well-established institution of marriage, and the roles of "father" and "husband" were clearly defined, they were inexplicably



“quite ignorant of the man’s share in the begetting of children.” A man was considered an “outsider” in his family. Social positions were handed down in the mother-line from a man to his sister’s children, and restrictions of marriage, and taboos against sexual intercourse, the education of the young, leadership in both the political and magico-religious spheres, followed from this custom.

For example, only persons related through the maternal line were permitted to participate in funerals, mourning, that dramatized the unity of the family and the kin group. Parenthetically, one of the few cases of “polyandry” or “group marriage” in the ethnographic record comes from Melanesia. Men in matrilineal societies who were wealthy enough to have plural wives were permitted to give dependents access to these women.

The family organization of other matrilineal societies such as the Iroquois and the Zuni in North America, the Akan and Thonga in Africa shared many of the characteristics of those described for the Trobrianders. Most of these families were monogamous, although polygyny was also found. Marriages were characterized as “brittle” and divorce was easy and frequent. Among the Hopi and Zuni of the Southwest in the United States, matrilineal women who lived matrilocally simply placed their husband’s belongings outside the door, thereby initiating a divorce. Under the watchful eye of male relatives of their wives, husbands could do little but depart in peace. The situation was largely comparable among the Thonga of South Africa. Some men who uncharacteristically refused to live in their wives’ villages after marriage, also uncharacteristically insisted that the spouses of their married daughters join them, as was the custom. Surrounded by male kin of wives, Thonga men who married into their wives’ villages, had little control over these women and were easily divorced and expelled.

The stability of marriages among matrilineal cultivator families was also affected by the absence of bridewealth which, as we saw above, enlisted both “wife-givers” and “wife-takers” in a conspiracy to prevent divorce with the subsequent return of the gifts. Again, the absence of bridewealth often meant the absence of the “progeny price” that transferred the control of a woman’s children to her husband. The children belonged to their mothers’ matrilineages, and men were responsible for the children of sisters. Men, for their part, often resented passing on wealth and status to sisters’ children rather than to their own offspring, and were not above subverting matriliney by attempting to create patricentric bonds with their children. This became more pronounced as the state emerged. Whether because of these pressures or other requirements of their adaptive strategies, matrilineal societies disappeared from areas where they once existed or have left traces in societies that shifted to patrilineal family organizations.

## **FAMILY AND MARRIAGE CUSTOMS IN PATRILINEAL FAMILIES**

Family and marriage customs in patrilineal families of plant cultivators had many of the features of the families in patrilineal herding societies. Descent



groups such as lineages and their segments, played more important roles in their family organizations than in matrilineal ones. Bridewealth was usually exchanged at marriage, and practices such as the sororate and levirate were also quite common. But although wives remained strangers in their husbands' families they were considered "our" wives by even female members of their husbands' families. Also common were plural marriages such as polygyny, based, in part, on the belief of many cultivators that either they needed more help from wives, or more children to carry on their lineages. Infertility was very often the source of family tensions that led people to seek magical or medical help, or stimulated tensions that led to divorce.

Conjugal life presented fewer problems in patrilineal societies where women lived virilocally with their husbands after marriage. It was otherwise, when in patrilineal societies, men attempted to live uxorilocally with their wives even though such locality rules existed. The issue here was that unrelated patrilineal men found themselves living with women who were related. The problem was not with the brothers of these women since those normally lived elsewhere. The issue was often solidarity among the women in the villages. As if to establish some kind of male solidarity in the face of such a situation, men among the patrilineal Mundurucu in South America who lived uxorilocally often inhabited "men's houses," where they spent most of their time together. They only went to their wives' long houses for food and sex.

Men tended to dominate public roles in patrilineal families of cultivators. We are told that "In patrilineal-virilocal societies worldwide, men distribute prestige items, whether crops or animals, in alliance-forming marriages." The men among the Afikpo Igbo, of Nigeria, a classic acephalous people, had three values that dominated family and community life: attachment to the land, the importance of strength, and a sharp division between the sexes. Igbos men felt that farming was the best kind of work and their contribution superior to that of their wives. The importance of strength was demonstrated by the determination of people to achieve their goals, by being "pushy," "aggressive," and resentful of dictation of any kind. The division between the sexes was marked by strong male domination in almost all activities concerning males and females from early childhood onward.

Children were considered as great assets in the families of plant cultivators and they normally had a greater number of duties to perform. Living in settled communities, children were useful in household cleaning, fetching water and fuel, and performing other chores within their competence. Aboriginal plant cultivators in North America educated their children by "ridicule, praise and reward." Hopi children of the American Southwest were initiated into the *kachina* cult between the ages of six and ten years old. They were not only expected to master the "basic disciplines, the fundamentals of the kinship system and the main tenets of the Hopi Way, but also to have become a useful member of society with social and economic duties, responsibilities and privileges, in accordance with sex and age." For Mundurucu youngsters in South American

forest cultivating societies, education was less formal and was by emulation. Maturing Hanunoo girls in the Philippines learned to abandon the activities of the young and learn adult tasks such as weaving, and greeting visitors.

African cultivating societies used a wide range of institutions to educate the young. For example, among the Nyakyusa of Tanzania, six or seven year-old boys established play houses on the outskirts of their villages, and these eventually became full-fledged villages. Initially, the boys returned home for meals, but spent most of the day “in good company” where they educated each other. Later on, they slept in these villages while their mothers continued to provide food for them. Finally, the youth took wives to their villages and gave birth to the next generation.

While the process of enculturation of boys among the Nyakyusa was gradual, age-sets and age-grades, marked by initiation ceremonies such as circumcision and clitoridectomy, transformed children to adults in most African societies. While clitoridectomy was not as widespread as circumcision, age-sets and age-grades played comparable roles for girls as they did for boys. Among the Mande-related peoples of West Africa, age groups formed the basis of the semi-secret Poro and Sandwe societies for men and women respectively. These institutions, called “Bush Schools,” educated their members to deal impartially in village affairs without undue regard for kin. Such women’s groups among the Igbo played Lysistralike roles by forcing the men of the community to fulfill such obligations to the public as digging wells and building roads.

The families of cultivators used communal rituals to mark the stages of life or *rites de passage* of their members. The cults of the ancestors were almost universal in Africa. Ancestral spirits were venerated as benefactors by their descendants and feared as disciplinarians. They often appeared as masked figures at court trials. Spirit possession by gods in such cults as *bori* and *zar*, often permitted individuals to publicly reveal their desires or curse enemies. In aboriginal North and South America, shamanistic figures using intoxicants were used to foretell the future, and to cure members of the community.

## **SOCIAL CHANGE AND THE FAMILY**

### **PRE-MODERN FAMILIES**

Early hunting-and-gathering societies appear to have lived first in small nomadic bands and later, in some locations, in larger, more settled, and hierarchically organized communities (Wenke 1984). Judging from groups of !Kung, Native Americans, Australian Aborigines, and others whose lifestyles have remained relatively intact into recorded history, small kin groups of hunter-gatherers tended to be cooperative and relatively egalitarian. Although marital partnerships were formed, hunter-gatherer bands valued compatibility among their members more highly than continuous co-residence with a single band, and individuals might fluidly move from one related band to another (Quale 1988). They have been idealized by ecologists for holding values of living in

harmony with other life forms instead of striving to dominate and exploit them. However, the integration of such families into modern life tends to be a long and difficult process.

Most herders and pastoral nomads tend to have patriarchal families and a tendency towards polygyny. Women's productive work tends to be limited to herding of small animals, dairying, and food processing and preparation (Quale 1988).

Where exchange relationships must be set in place over widely dispersed territories, marriage partnerships may be strategically located, and the exchange of daughters in marriage may help to cement economic alliances. These families are difficult to integrate because their mobility interferes with the schooling of their children and the regular health care of their members. Pure forms of nomadic family types may be the exception rather than the rule. The Dinka of the Sudan, for example, grow about one-third and gather and hunt two-thirds of the food types that they use (Zeitlin 1977). Dinka women and old men tend to be sedentary year-round, while young men are nomadic pastoralists for a part of the year (Deng 1972).

Societies engaged in traditional agriculture, crafts, and trade have been broadly divided into those practicing communal land ownership and those practicing private land ownership (Caldwell and Caldwell 1990). Most populations of Europe and Asia made the transition from communal to private land ownership from 4,000 to 5,000 years ago, in response to the accumulation of significant agricultural surpluses, or possibly wealth from other sources such as copper mines. In sub-Saharan Africa, isolated by the desert, and with growing conditions that did not favour the accumulation of surplus, communal land ownership remained predominant.

Polygyny, as a family form, is well suited to a shifting agricultural system using abundant low-yielding communal land farmed by labour-intensive technologies (Caldwell and Caldwell). Each additional wife and her children permit the family to farm more territory and to achieve economies of scale in domestic labour and trade. The family unit, which is headed by the husband and the elders of his lineage, starts with one wife and adds more after accumulating the bride-wealth needed for each.

The more wives and children, the larger and more affluent this unit can become. Sexual fidelity of the wives is not a top priority, and all children born to a man's wives are legally his. Societies with this family form appear to place the highest cultural and religious value on child-bearing. According to Quale (1988), it may not be reasonable to assume that all early agricultural societies fit this model, when agriculture evolved in rich localized topsoil deposits of annually flooding rivers.

Monogamous marriage, with strong cultural safeguards for the sexual fidelity of women, is important for the maintenance of traditional subsistence agriculture on privately owned farms. Family lands must be passed to male heirs whose paternity is beyond question. For greater security in land transmission, cross-

cousin marriage may be preferred. Brothers whose children marry, reunite land and other possessions separated by inheritance. Such cousin marriage has been common in many cultures, with the highest current rate of about 60 per cent of all marriages claimed for Pakistan (DHSL/Institute of Population Studies 1992). It may also reduce property-related feuds common among societies of peasant farmers in the Middle East and elsewhere (Sweet 1970).

In spite of ethnographic variations, agrarian families are recognizable as a type. Throughout the world, these settled institutional families are organized around agricultural production, traditional crafts, or other family business ventures. They have large kinship networks and hierarchical authoritarian governance. These families are producers, employers, consumers, and social welfare agencies in one. Family management tends to be well developed. The highest family value is responsibility (Doherty 1992).

While the maximum kin that one person can keep track of fairly closely has been estimated at 50 (Quale 1988), the traditional hierarchical Yoruba lineage structure housed from 20 to 2,000 lineage members together in a single walled compound, in which the immediate family units lived and worked in public view under the watchful eye of the compound head. Marriage in institutional families is a functional partnership rather than a romantic relationship. Children tend to be valued as apprentices and next-generation managers of the family lands and enterprises.

Historical and current records indicate, however, that both former and present-day institutional farming families do not usually live in large residential units. The most common dwelling arrangement still is mother, father, and their children; or mother, her children, and others. These small traditional units differ from modern families in part in their economic interdependence with nearby family and community members, and in part in their attitudes towards family life (Hareven 1987).

### **Evolution of the Family**

As they evolve, family and community structures adapt to the physical and social conditions of production (Wenke 1984). Similar evolutionary forces lead to changes in family dynamics and in child-rearing practices. Parents adjust their child-rearing behaviour to the risks that they perceive in the environment, the skills that they expect their children to acquire as adults, and the cultural and economic expectations that they have of their children. There is a powerful interplay between a society's technology, family structure, and social values.

Yet technology is not a rigid cultural taskmaster. The same production technologies and ecological conditions accommodate variations in family organization, management style, and emotional climate. Within Indonesia, for example, the Javanese are known for their warmth towards young children whereas the Alorese are reported to be low in child nurturance. In Coastal West Africa, the Yoruba and Ibo of Nigeria have contrasting patrilineal hierarchies, family settlement patterns, and gender roles. The Akan of Ghana are matrilineal

by heritage. Americans and Japanese both are industrialized but differ culturally. Similar changes in technology stimulate family change in similar directions but from different starting points and along variable pathways.

## **THE MODERN FAMILY**

### **Early History**

According to research by Stone (1977), the presence of the modern family in the West was first documented in England in the mid-1600s, at which time the élite gradually stopped sending their infants away to be wet-nursed and swaddling of infants declined; there was heightened regard for the infant as a person and the woman's role as a mother; there were new ideals of intimacy and privacy for the couple; and there was growing emphasis on love, personal attraction, and compatibility as the basis for mate selection. Within the next hundred years, these changes gradually became predominant; the young were choosing their own mates even if resorting to pregnancy before marriage was necessary to do so.

The emphasis on emotional bonds between husband and wife set the modern family off from its predecessors (Stone 1977). The modern family is expected to be emotionally self-sufficient. Other relatives become peripheral, while the bonds among nuclear family members grow more intense and emotional. The modern nuclear family was shaped by three sentiments: romantic love between spouses rather than marriage arranged for reasons of property and social status; maternal love, or the idea that women have a maternal instinct and a need to care for young children; and domesticity, or the belief that relationships within the family are always more binding than are those outside it (Elkind 1992). As a family based on the personal satisfaction of its individual members, the modern family also has been termed the psychological family; its chief value is satisfaction (Doherty 1992).

### **Forces Driving Family Transition**

The modern family evolved in concert with industrialization, science, and technology. With the growth of specialized wage labour, economically productive work moved beyond the reach of the family compound. Individualized remuneration and liability led to a redefinition of kinship obligations. The family that was engaged in farming or crafts could be expanded because extra hands could produce extra food and other products. Its boundaries were elastic. The resources of the salaried family and the number of people who could be supported by its wage-earners were fixed. Living space in the neighbourhood of factories and other specialized worksites was expensive and non-expansive. Where neighbours were strangers, the modern family became a "haven in a heartless world" (Lasch 1977).

Even without significant industrial growth, the expansion of global markets, the mass media, the civil service, and other services such as health care,

education, and transportation led to the formation of modern families in developing countries. Caldwell and Caldwell (1977) described this change in Nigeria and Ghana as “a movement towards monogamy, a strengthening of the conjugal bond over all others, a strengthening of the parent-child bond over all relationships external to the nuclear family, and ultimately an emphasis on what parents owe children rather than what children owe parents.”

### **Falling Birth Rates and the Death of the Institutional Family**

Falling child death rates lead to falling birth rates, through the sequence of events known as the demographic transition (Caldwell and Caldwell 1990) that occurs under favourable socioeconomic conditions. Wherever such fertility control is successful it brings not only fewer children but fewer extended family ties in subsequent generations of children, who have far fewer uncles, aunts, and cousins than their parents' generation. The arithmetic of the demographic transition is such that it is impossible to lower death rates to internationally acceptable levels and simultaneously to control population growth without reducing the number of children per family to an average of two (Zeitlin *et al.* 1982). With the lure of out-of-family employment, this small number of children is insufficient to sustain the farming or other business enterprises of the institutional family.

## **ALCOHOLISM IN FAMILY SYSTEMS**

Alcoholism in family systems refers to the conditions in families that enable alcoholism, and the effects of alcoholic behaviour by one or more family members on the rest of the family. Mental health professionals are increasingly considering alcoholism and addiction as diseases that flourish in and are enabled by family systems. Family members react to the alcoholic with particular behavioral patterns. They may enable the addiction to continue by shielding the addict from the negative consequences of his actions. Such behaviours are referred to as codependence. In this way, the alcoholic is said to suffer from the disease of addiction, whereas the family members suffer from the disease of codependence.

Alcoholism is one of the leading causes of a dysfunctional family. As of 2001, there were an estimated 26.8 million children of alcoholics (COAs) in the United States, with as many as 11 million of them under than age of 18. Children of addicts have an increased suicide rate and on average have total health care costs 32 percent greater than children of nonalcoholic families.

Adults from alcoholic families experience higher levels of state and trait anxiety and lower levels of differentiation of self than adults raised in non-alcoholic families. Additionally adult children of alcoholics have lower self-esteem, excessive feelings of responsibility, difficulties reaching out, higher incidence of depression, and increased likelihood of becoming alcoholics.

Alcoholism does not have uniform effects on all families. The levels of dysfunction and resiliency of the non-alcoholic adults are important factors in



effects on children in the family. Children of untreated alcoholics score lower on measures of family cohesion, intellectual-cultural orientation, active-recreational orientation, and independence. They have higher levels of conflict within the family, and many experience other family members as distant and non-communicative. The cumulative effect of the family dysfunction may affect the children in families with untreated alcoholics' ability to grow in developmentally healthy ways. Prevalence Based on the number of children with parents meeting the DSM-III-R criteria for alcohol abuse or alcohol dependents, in 1996 there was an estimated 26.8 million children of alcoholics (COAs) in the United States of which 11 million were under the age of 18. As of 1988, it was estimated 76 million Americans, about 43% of the U.S., adult population, have been exposed to alcoholism or problem drinking in the family, either having grown up with an alcoholic, having an alcoholic blood relative, or marrying an alcoholic. While growing up, nearly one in five adult Americans (18%) lived with an alcoholic. In 1992, it was estimated one in eight adult American drinkers were alcoholics or experienced problems as a consequences of their alcohol use.

## **FAMILIALITY**

Children of alcoholics (COAs) are more at risk for alcoholism and other drug abuse than children of non-alcoholics. Children of alcoholics are four times more likely than non-COAs to develop alcoholism. Both genetic and environmental factors influence the development of alcoholism in COAs.

COAs perceptions of their parents drinking habits influence their own future drinking patterns and are developed at an early age. Alcohol related expectancies are correlated with parental alcoholism and alcohol abuse among their offspring. Problem solving discussions in families with an alcoholic parent contained more negative family interactions than in families with non-alcoholics parents. Several factors related to parental alcoholism influence COA substance abuse including stress, negative affect and decreased parental monitoring. Impaired parental monitoring and negative affect correlate with COAs associating with peers that support drug use.

After drinking alcohol, sons of alcoholics experience more of the physiological changes associated with pleasurable effects compared with sons of non-alcoholics, although only immediately after drinking. Compared with non-alcoholic families, alcoholic families demonstrate poorer problem-solving abilities, both among the parents and within the family as a whole. These communication problems many contribute to the escalation of conflicts in alcoholic families. COAs are more likely than non-COAs to be aggressive, impulsive, and engage in disruptive and sensation seeking behaviours.

## **Marital Relationships**

Alcoholism usually has strong negative effects on marital relationships. Separated and divorced men and women were three times as likely as married



men and women to say they had been married to an alcoholic or problem drinker. Almost two-thirds of separated and divorced women, and almost half of separated or divorced men under age 46 have been exposed to alcoholism in the family at some time. Exposure was higher among women (46.2 percent) than among men (38.9 percent) and declined with age. Exposure to alcoholism in the family was strongly related to marital status, independent of age: 55.5 percent of separated or divorced adults had been exposed to alcoholism in some family member, compared with 43.5 percent of married, 38.5 percent of never married, and 35.5 percent of widowed persons. Nearly 38 percent of separated or divorced women had been married to an alcoholic, but only about 12 percent of currently married women were married to an alcoholic.

## **CHILDREN**

### **Prevalence of Abuse**

Over one million children yearly are confirmed as victims of child abuse and neglect by state child protective service agencies. Substance abuse is one of the two largest problems effecting families in the United States, being a factor in nearly four-fifths of reported cases. Alcoholism is more prevalent among child abusing parents. Alcoholism is more strongly correlated to child abuse than depression and other disorders.

### **Correlates**

Children of alcoholics exhibit symptoms of depression and anxiety more than children of non-alcoholics. COAs have lower self-esteem than non-COAs from childhood through young adulthood. Children of alcoholics show more symptoms of anxiety, depression, and externalizing behaviour disorders than non-COAs. Some of these symptoms include crying, lack of friends, fear of going to school, nightmares, perfectionism, hoarding, and excessive self-consciousness.

Children of alcoholics score lower on tests measuring cognitive and verbal skills than non-COAs. Lacking requisite skills to express themselves can impact academic performance, relationships, and job interviews. The lack of these skills do, however, imply that COAs are intellectually impaired. COAs are also shown to have difficulty with abstraction and conceptual reasoning, both of which play an important role in problem-solving academically and otherwise.

### **Treatment**

*Suggested practices to mitigate the impact of parental alcoholism on the development of their children include:*

- Maintaining healthy family traditions and practices, such as vacations, mealtimes, and holidays
- Encouraging COAs to develop consistent, stable, relationships with significant others outside of the family.

## **Pregnancy**

Prenatal alcohol-related effects can occur with moderate levels of alcohol consumption by non-alcoholic and alcoholic women. Cognitive performance in infants and children is not as impacted by mothers who stopped alcohol consumption early in pregnancy, even if it was resumed after giving birth.

An analysis of six year-olds with alcohol exposure during the second-trimester of pregnancy showed lower academic performance and problems with reading, spelling, and mathematical skills. Six percent of offspring from alcoholic mothers have Fetal Alcohol Syndrome (FAS). The risk a offspring born to an alcoholic mothers having FAS increases from six to 70 percent if the mother's previous child had FAS.

People diagnosed with FAS have IQs ranging from 20-105 (with a mean of 68), and demonstrate poor concentration and attention skills. FAS causes growth deficits, morphological abnormalities, mental retardation, and behavioral difficulties. Among adolescents and adults, those with FAS are more likely to have mental health problems, dropping out or be suspended from schools, problems with the law, require assisted living as an adult, and problems with maintaining employment.

## **Family Therapy**

Family therapy, also referred to as couple and family therapy and family systems therapy, is a branch of psychotherapy that works with families and couples in intimate relationships to nurture change and development. It tends to view change in terms of the systems of interaction between family members. It emphasizes family relationships as an important factor in psychological health. What the different schools of family therapy have in common is a belief that, regardless of the origin of the problem, and regardless of whether the clients consider it an "individual" or "family" issue, involving families in solutions is often beneficial. This involvement of families is commonly accomplished by their direct participation in the therapy session. The skills of the family therapist thus include the ability to influence conversations in a way that catalyzes the strengths, wisdom, and support of the wider system.

In the field's early years, many clinicians defined the family in a narrow, traditional manner usually including parents and children. As the field has evolved, the concept of the family is more commonly defined in terms of strongly supportive, long-term roles and relationships between people who may or may not be related by blood.

Family therapy has been used effectively in the full range of human dilemmas; there is no category of relationship or psychological problem that has not been addressed with this approach.

## **History and Theoretical Frameworks**

Formal interventions with families to help individuals and families experiencing various kinds of problems have been a part of many cultures,

probably throughout history. These interventions have sometimes involved formal procedures or rituals, and often included the extended family as well as non-kin members of the community. Following the emergence of specialization in various societies, these interventions were often conducted by particular members of a community – for example, a chief, priest, physician, and so on – usually as an ancillary function.

*Family therapy* as a distinct professional practice within Western cultures can be argued to have had its origins in the social work movements of the 19th century in England and the United States. As a branch of psychotherapy, its roots can be traced somewhat later to the early 20th century with the emergence of the *child guidance* movement and *marriage counselling*. The formal development of family therapy dates to the 1940s and early 1950s with the founding in 1942 of the *American Association of Marriage Counsellors* (the precursor of the AAMFT), and through the work of various independent clinicians and groups in England (John Bowlby at the Tavistock Clinic), the US (John Bell, Nathan Ackerman, Christian Midelfort, Theodore Lidz, Lyman Wynne, Murray Bowen, Carl Whitaker, Virginia Satir), and Hungary (D.L.P. Liebermann) – who began seeing family members together for observation or therapy sessions. There was initially a strong influence from psychoanalysis (most of the early founders of the field had psychoanalytic backgrounds) and social psychiatry, and later from learning theory and behaviour therapy – and significantly, these clinicians began to articulate various theories about the nature and functioning of the family as an entity that was more than a mere aggregation of individuals.

The movement received an important boost in the mid-1950s through the work of anthropologist Gregory Bateson and colleagues – Jay Haley, Donald D. Jackson, John Weakland, William Fry, and later, Virginia Satir, Paul Watzlawick and others – at Palo Alto in the US, who introduced ideas from cybernetics and general systems theory into social psychology and psychotherapy, focusing in particular on the role of communication. This approach eschewed the traditional focus on individual psychology and historical factors – that involve so-called *linear causation* and *content* – and emphasized instead *feedback* and *homeostatic* mechanisms and “rules” in *here-and-now interactions* – so-called *circular causation* and *process* – that were thought to maintain or exacerbate problems, whatever the original cause(s). This group was also influenced significantly by the work of US psychiatrist, hypnotherapist, and brief therapist, Milton H. Erickson – especially his innovative use of strategies for change, such as *paradoxical directives*. The members of the Bateson Project (like the founders of a number of other schools of family therapy, including Carl Whitaker, Murray Bowen, and Ivan Böszörményi-Nagy) had a particular interest in the possible psychosocial causes and treatment of schizophrenia, especially in terms of the putative “meaning” and “function” of signs and symptoms within the family system. The research of psychiatrists and psychoanalysts Lyman Wynne and Theodore Lidz on *communication deviance*

and roles (e.g., *pseudo-mutuality*, *pseudo-hostility*, *schism* and *skew*) in families of schizophrenics also became influential with *systems-communications*-oriented theorists and therapists. A related theme, applying to dysfunction and psychopathology more generally, was that of the “identified patient” or “*presenting problem*” as a manifestation of or surrogate for the family’s, or even society’s, problems.

By the mid-1960s a number of distinct schools of family therapy had emerged. From those groups that were most strongly influenced by cybernetics and systems theory, there came strategic therapy, and slightly later, Salvador Minuchin’s *Structural Family Therapy* and the Milan systems model. Partly in reaction to some aspects of these *systemic* models, came the *experiential* approaches of Virginia Satir and Carl Whitaker, which downplayed theoretical constructs, and emphasized subjective experience and unexpressed feelings (including the subconscious), authentic communication, spontaneity, creativity, total therapist engagement, and often included the extended family. Concurrently and somewhat independently, there emerged the various *intergenerational* therapies of Murray Bowen, Ivan Böszörményi-Nagy, James Framo, and Norman Paul, which present different theories about the intergenerational transmission of health and dysfunction, but which all deal usually with at least three generations of a family (in person or conceptually), either directly in therapy sessions, or via “homework”, “*journeys home*”, etc. *Psychodynamic* family therapy—which, more than any other school of family therapy, deals directly with individual psychology and the unconscious in the context of current relationships—continued to develop through a number of groups that were influenced by the ideas and methods of Nathan Ackerman, and also by the *British School* of Object Relations and John Bowlby’s work on attachment. *Multiple-family group therapy*, a precursor of *psychoeducational family intervention*, emerged, in part, as a pragmatic alternative form of intervention—especially as an adjunct to the treatment of serious mental disorders with a significant biological basis, such as schizophrenia—and represented something of a conceptual challenge to some of the “*systemic*” (and thus potentially “family-blaming”) paradigms of pathogenesis that were implicit in many of the dominant models of family therapy. The late-1960s and early-1970s saw the development of *network therapy* (which bears some resemblance to traditional practices such as Ho’oponopono) by Ross Speck and Carolyn Attneave, and the emergence of *behavioral marital therapy* (renamed *behavioral couple therapy* in the 1990s) and *behavioral family therapy* as models in their own right.

By the late-1970s the weight of clinical experience—especially in relation to the treatment of serious mental disorders—had led to some revision of a number of the original models and a moderation of some of the earlier stridency and theoretical purism. There were the beginnings of a general softening of the strict demarcations between schools, with moves towards rapprochement, integration, and eclecticism – although there was, nevertheless, some hardening of positions within some schools. These trends were reflected in and influenced

by lively debates within the field and critiques from various sources, including feminism and post-modernism, that reflected in part the cultural and political tenor of the times, and which foreshadowed the emergence (in the 1980s and 1990s) of the various “*post-systems*” constructivist and social constructionist approaches. While there was still debate within the field about whether, or to what degree, the *systemic-constructivist* and *medical-biological* paradigms were necessarily antithetical to each other there was a growing willingness and tendency on the part of family therapists to work in multi-modal clinical partnerships with other members of the helping and medical professions.

From the mid-1980s to the present the field has been marked by a diversity of approaches that partly reflect the original schools, but which also draw on other theories and methods from individual psychotherapy and elsewhere – these approaches and sources include: brief therapy, structural therapy, constructivist approaches (eg, Milan systems, *post-Milan/collaborative/conversational, reflective*), solution-focused therapy, narrative therapy, a range of cognitive and behavioral approaches, psychodynamic and object relations approaches, attachment and Emotionally Focused Therapy, *intergenerational* approaches, *network therapy*, and *multisystemic therapy* (MST). Multicultural, intercultural, and integrative approaches are being developed. Many practitioners claim to be “eclectic,” using techniques from several areas, depending upon their own inclinations and/or the needs of the client(s), and there is a growing movement towards a single “generic” family therapy that seeks to incorporate the best of the accumulated knowledge in the field and which can be adapted to many different contexts; however, there are still a significant number of therapists who adhere more or less strictly to a particular, or limited number of, approach(es).

Ideas and methods from family therapy have been influential in psychotherapy generally: a survey of over 2,500 US therapists in 2006 revealed that of the ten most influential therapists of the previous quarter-century, three were prominent family therapists, and the marital and family systems model was the second most utilized model after cognitive behavioral therapy.

## Techniques

*Family therapy uses a range of counselling and other techniques including:*

- Communication theory
- Psychoeducation
- Psychotherapy
- Relationship education
- Systemic coaching
- Systems theory
- Reality therapy.

The number of sessions depends on the situation, but the average is 5-20 sessions. A family therapist usually meets several members of the family at the same time. This has the advantage of making differences between the ways

family members perceive mutual relations as well as interaction patterns in the session apparent both for the therapist and the family. These patterns frequently mirror habitual interaction patterns at home, even though the therapist is now incorporated into the family system. Therapy interventions usually focus on relationship patterns rather than on analyzing impulses of the unconscious mind or early childhood trauma of individuals as a Freudian therapist would do—although some schools of family therapy, for example *psychodynamic* and *intergenerational*, do consider such individual and historical factors (thus embracing both *linear* and *circular* causation) and they may use instruments such as the genogram to help to elucidate the patterns of relationship across generations.

The distinctive feature of family therapy is its perspective and analytical framework rather than the number of people present at a therapy session. Specifically, family therapists are relational therapists: They are generally more interested in what goes on *between* individuals rather than *within* one or more individuals, although some family therapists—in particular those who identify as psychodynamic, object relations, *intergenerational*, EFT, or *experiential* family therapists—tend to be as interested in individuals as in the *systems* those individuals and their relationships constitute.

Depending on the conflicts at issue and the progress of therapy to date, a therapist may focus on analyzing specific previous instances of conflict, as by reviewing a past incident and suggesting alternative ways family members might have responded to one another during it, or instead proceed directly to addressing the sources of conflict at a more abstract level, as by pointing out patterns of interaction that the family might have not noticed.

Family therapists tend to be more interested in the maintenance and/or solving of problems rather than in trying to identify a single cause. Some families may perceive cause-effect analyses as attempts to allocate blame to one or more individuals, with the effect that for many families a focus on causation is of little or no clinical utility.



# 4

## **Life Skills: Integral Part of Adolescence Education**

In view of the above, the revised framework of Adolescence Education incorporates life skills as one of the competencies, perhaps the most critical competency developed and inculcated through education. It is generally believed that a person who is educated is equipped with all the needed abilities including life skills. But in reality this does not happen. Knowing what needs to be done or knowing what needs to be changed does not mean that the learners automatically know how to bring about behaviour changes. It is the Life skills that, if properly developed, provide the know-how and the tools to actualize behaviour change.

Life Skills in this context need to be defined as psycho-social abilities that enable individuals to translate knowledge, attitude and values regarding all the concerned issues into action. These may not be confined to only those related to health, mental health, sexual development, HIV and AIDS and Drug abuse. Life skills development empowers learners to observe the process involving “what to do, why to do, how to do and when to do”. It encompasses the ability to build sound, harmonious relationships with self, others and the environment, the ability to act responsibly and safely, the ability to survive under a variety of conditions, and the ability to solve problems.

### **Life Skills are Different from other Skills**

- Other skills like mechanical skills, livelihood skills, vocational skills or language skills are technical, life skills are psycho-social (personal, social, interpersonal, cognitive, affective and universal) directed towards personal actions or actions towards others;



- Life skills are interpersonal skills empowering individuals to interact with the self as well as others and develop healthy lifestyle and responsive and responsible behaviour.; and
- Other skills are product of continued practice, while life skills are developed through interactive experiential learning.

### **Life Skills Development: Approach Framework**

It is important to note that life skills development does not mean development of skills afresh by a set of educational interventions at a particular point of time. Life skills development is an integral part of the all-encompassing process of socialisation that continues throughout human life. School education is an integral part of this process. In fact, individuals apply the acquired life skills in different contexts differently. An individual may have acquired a life skill and she/he may also be equipped with the ability to apply that skill in a context that is fundamentally different from adolescent reproductive and sexual health.

For example, an adolescent may be applying thinking skill or communication skill very effectively while interacting with her/his teacher or even peer group during a discussion on say, globalization or environmental pollution, but she/he may not have the ability to apply those skills on an issue related to sex and sexuality or negative peer pressure. Life skills development, therefore, may be more aptly defined as a process of acquiring the ability to apply concerned skills in the specific context and not the development of that skill afresh.

Since life skills are generic by nature, an educational intervention aimed at the development of ability to apply them may be effective only when it is focused on the specific context. The intervention may have to be designed and operationalized differently for different contexts, more particularly for a culturally sensitive context like adolescent reproductive and sexual health concerns. It needs interventions to focus on acquisition of authentic knowledge, development of positive attitude, and empowerment for avoidance of risky behaviour.

The design of educational intervention has to take note of the content area and also specific life skills. Since most of the contents of adolescence education are very sensitive, interventions need to be well conceived for doing justice to the content. Contextually relevant and age appropriate contents should be focused on. It is important to exactly identify which life skills are to be focused and also the reasons for doing so. In order to organize educational interventions for life skills development effectively, it is important to identify curricular as well as co-curricular activities that have the potential for developing skill application ability. Certain specific activity will be more appropriate than others in respect of a particular life skill. For example, role play can be very appropriate in respect of negotiation skills or interpersonal skills or skills related to empathy.

One activity can be organized to attain different objectives. It is the process of organizing that activity that makes a fundamental difference by providing exact direction for attaining the desired objective. Group discussion may be

able to attain knowledge, understanding and even attitude related objectives, but if it is to attain skill development related objectives, it has to be planned and conducted according to a particular process that sustains its focus throughout on skill development. Since life skills development primarily depends through the mode of experiential learning mode, the process of involving learners in the activity is very important.

## **ARGUMENTS FOR AND AGAINST ADOLESCENT EDUCATION**

Arguments Against Earlier there were many who did not think it proper to introduce elements relating to sexual development in the school curriculum. Even now such a mindset influences the thinking of some adults.

*They quite often put forth the following arguments:*

- Sex and sexuality are intimately private matters which are not to be discussed in public, and that too with young children. In India individuals have been receiving information about these matters indirectly through different sources available in their respective socio-cultural settings. Therefore, there is no need to introduce such an educational programme in Indian schools.
- If schools start providing knowledge about sexual development, young children will be encouraged to experiment with the newly acquired knowledge. This will promote promiscuity and sexual permissiveness, spoiling the youth and also the school and social environment.
- The regular discussion of sex and sexuality, which is a treasured sublime instinct of human beings, will reduce it to a mundane routine affair. The young students will be desensitised and will not be able to appreciate its sublime value in their future lives.
- Arguments for All these arguments were considered during the process of consensus building for introducing adolescence education in schools:
- It is a myth to regard the socio-cultural traditions of India as a safeguard against irresponsible sexual behaviour of individuals. There is definitely a need to make interventions to enable individuals, including young people to practice responsible behaviour and protect themselves from risky situations.
- A number of studies show that adolescents would like to get accurate information about the changes in their bodies including sexual development. However, discussion on issues related to sexuality is a taboo and there are no reliable sources of information to educate adolescents on these issues. This situation creates anxiety and confusion and generates myths and misconceptions among adolescents about various dimensions of their growing up.
- Since the average age at marriage is increasing, young people have a longer interval between their sexual maturity and marriage. In such a context, it is necessary for school curriculum to equip adolescents with authentic information on sexuality, HIV-AIDS and sexually transmitted

infections (STIs). This will enable adolescents to manage their sexual development responsibly and develop a healthy attitude towards sex and sexuality.

- Sexual abuse and exploitation of young girls and boys, and even minors, is a problem in our society. These situations demand urgent educational intervention, so that young people are made aware of the need to respect the inviolability of every person, and to safeguard themselves against abuse and exploitation.
- The impact of certain traditional values that used to influence sex-related behaviour of individuals has been waning. There is a need to reinforce those social and cultural values that may provide sustenance to responsible sexual behaviour.
- Children and adolescents are exposed to sex-related ideas and thoughts, and that too at times in a crude manner, through sources like cinema, film magazines and other periodicals, video parlours, commercial advertisements and certain television programmes. It is necessary to empower adolescents through education, so that they may appreciate and analyse such exposures in a proper perspective.
- The AIDS pandemic has added urgency to introduce adolescence education in schools. Preventive education is necessary to promote behaviour changes which can prevent the spread of HIV infection.
- Studies indicate an increasing incidence of smoking and use of tobacco, alcohol and other harmful substances by young persons. Frequently adolescents tend to see the use of these drugs as part of being grown up. It is, therefore, urgently needed to educate them on the effects of substance (drug) abuse.
- Studies indicate that education about reproductive and sexual health does not encourage students to experiment with their newly acquired knowledge. Rather, it encourages them to have positive attitude towards sex and inculcates in them responsible behaviour.
- The apprehension of teachers that teaching the elements of adolescence education will tarnish their “image” and promote indiscipline among students has been negated by experiences. Wherever teachers are responsive to the needs of adolescent students and help them cope with their problems, the teacher-pupil relation has become better and the school environment has improved.
- Although students always felt the need to get education in sex related matters, parents and teachers had serious apprehensions till very recently. But now a number of needs assessment studies conducted in different States have found that parents and teachers overwhelmingly favour the introduction of adolescence education in schools. The need to emphasise the development of life skills is being recognised on a greater scale.

## EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS OF INDIAN ADOLESCENTS

Educational Aspirations refer to the early impressions of one's own academic abilities and the highest level of education an individual expects to attain has also been linked to academic achievement. Today's modern society expects everyone to be a high achiever. The key criteria to judge one's true potentialities and capabilities are perhaps scholastic/academic achievement. Academic achievement has become an index of a child's future and is the resultant of various factors like personal, social, economic and other environmental factors. For students from disadvantaged backgrounds, expectations may start out high, but may eventually be lowered as they observe the successes and failures of those around them, thus leading to social reproduction (Hanson, 1994). Children thus do not form aspirations by rational analyses, but by looking at those around them and at their own chances of mobility in a subjective manner.

Social psychological theory posits that educational aspirations strongly influence scholastic outcomes and there have been many studies that cite educational aspirations as being one of the most important determinants of eventual educational attainment (Wilson and Wilson, 1992). However, several studies have showed that educational aspirations do not translate into comparable attainment among students from different racial, ethnic and gender lines (Gottfredson, 1981; Duran and Weffer, 1992; Kao, 1995; Ponec 1997; Kao and Tienda, 1998; and Trusty, 2000). Kao and Tienda (1998) and Trusty (2000) suggested that students from lower socioeconomic classes may express high educational aspirations because that reflects the dominant ideology.

They may not take suitable steps towards achieving these aspirations because the culture around them may not be able to provide them with concrete models and support. Geckova *et al.* (2010) observed that both school and the family have the potential to stimulate educational aspirations across all educational tracks. The attitude towards school and social support from the father are the most consistent predictors of educational aspirations across all three types of education.

In general, adolescent educational aspirations are found to be strongly related to their perceptions of parental support, parent's aspirations and their own early attitudes to school experience. Parental education and resources at home have an influence on aspirations, and influence adolescents' educational and occupational aspirations, whether the youth come from urban, suburban, or rural areas. Wilson and Wilson (1992), Smith (1991) and Taylor (2002) stressed the importance of the home environment on adolescent educational aspirations. Buchmann and Dalton (2002) found significant influence of home environment on the educational aspirations of the adolescents in twelve countries. They found that in both developed and developing countries with relatively uniform secondary school systems, significant others such as parents and peers can play a role, whereas in countries with secondary school systems exhibiting greater diversity, such effects are lost.

Adolescents educational aspirations could, to some degree, be predicted by parental expectations and were significantly related to contributing home environment and family systems (Marjoribanks, 2003; Kirk *et al.*, 2010; Ibtesam, 2010 and Nicholas *et al.* 2010). Hence, it is the home which sets the pattern for the child's attitude towards people, society, aids intellectual growth in the child and supports his aspirations and achievements. Educational aspirations were found to be enhanced by bringing change in environmental and personal factors (Garg *et al.*, 2002; Grieve, 2009; Salami, 2009; and Nicholas *et al.*, 2010).

Also, students belonging to the majority/ethnic groups were found to possess higher level of aspiration, whereas the rural students or the students belonging to the poor families have lower aspirations. (Mau and Bikos, 2000; Bajema *et al.*, 2002; Khattab, 2003; Zhou, 2005; Geckova *et al.* 2010; and Strawinski, 2011). However, single parent adolescents were found to be having lower levels of aspiration (Roberts and Moss, 2007; and Park, 2008) and support of the family was found to be the significant predictor of educational aspirations among adolescents (Plunkett, 2003; Lakshmanan, 2004; Li *et al.*, 2006; and Williamson, 2007).

Adolescents' perceptions of home environment were found to show varied and conflicting results (Svedin *et al.*, 2002; Leigh and Gill, 2004 and Kaur and Jaswal, 2005). Barry *et al.* (2011) indicated that as students engage in increased alcohol use and/or truancy, educational aspirations decrease. Thus, students who indicated a desire to attend a 4-year college/university were less likely to engage in high-risk drinking behaviour and/or truancy. On the basis of the above studies conducted in the recent past, it may be summed up that adolescent development and educational aspirations in relation to home environment has remained an area of interest among researchers in education, and like the previous studies, there is a need to look into the effect of gender and home environment on educational aspirations among adolescents.

- *Objectives:*

- To study gender differences in educational aspirations among adolescents.
- To study educational aspirations among adolescents in relation to home environment.

- *Hypotheses:*

- There will be no significant gender differences in educational aspirations among adolescents.
- There will be a significant relationship of educational aspirations and home environment among adolescents.

- *Delimitations of the Study:*

- The present study was delimited to adolescents studying in government and private secondary schools of Patiala district only.
- The sample was delimited to 200 adolescents students studying in +1 class only.

## METHOD OF ADOLESCENTS STUDYING

The population of the present study were the adolescents studying in +1 class in the schools located in Patiala city of Punjab. The total sample comprised of 200 students of +1 class taken randomly from the various government and private school of the Patiala city, giving due representation to gender and type of school. Research Tools Used: In order to collect the data for the present investigation, following tools were selected and employed by the investigator:

- Educational Aspiration Scale by Sharma and Gupta (1996) was used for measuring aspiration of pupils. It contains 45 items designed in paired comparison form. It is a self-explanatory scale and takes about 25 minutes to administer the whole scale. The total score ranges from 0 to 45.
- Home Environment Inventory by Mishra (1989) was used to measure the psycho-social climate of home as perceived by children. It provides a measure of the quality and quantity of the cognitive, emotional and social support that has been available to the child within the home. HEI contains 100 items related to ten dimensions of home environment.
- *Procedure:* The data was collected by the investigator herself after getting due permission from the school principals. The students were made aware about the purpose of the study and assured that the information will be kept strictly confidential and used only for research purposes. After data collection, the scoring was done as per the instructions given in the respective manual.

### The Gender Differences in Educational Aspirations

The use of t-test was made to study the gender differences in educational aspirations among adolescents and correlation was used to study the relationship of educational aspirations with ten home environment components. Gender Differences in Educational Aspirations among Adolescents. The means and SDs along with the t-value for educational aspirations among male and female adolescents. The mean educational aspirations score of female adolescents came out to be 27.78 with SD. of 5.22 as compared to male adolescents mean score of 28.31 with S.D. of 6.06. The t-value testing the significance of mean differences in educational aspirations among male and female adolescents came out to be 3.07 which is significant at 0.01 level. This means that there are significant gender differences in educational aspirations among adolescents. Further, Male adolescents possess significantly higher educational aspirations than their female counterparts.

### Educational Aspirations in Relation to Home Environment

The coefficient of correlation of educational aspirations and ten dimensions of home environment namely control, protectiveness, punishment, conformity, social isolation, reward, deprivation of privileges, nurturance, rejection and permissiveness among adolescents.



The coefficient of correlation of educational aspirations and home environment dimensions of reward (0.17), nurturance (0.14) and permissiveness (−0.17) are significant at 0.05 level. Further, the table II shows that the coefficient of correlation of home environment dimensions namely deprivation of privileges (0.25) and rejection (−0.23) is negative and significant at 0.01 level.

It is interesting to note here that educational aspirations among adolescents are negatively and significantly correlated with the negative dimensions of home environment *viz.* deprivation of privileges, rejection and permissiveness. However, the educational aspirations among adolescents are significantly and positively correlated with positive home environment dimensions of reward and nurturance. From the above discussion, it may be concluded that home environment of adolescents in terms of its positive and negative reward mechanisms, has a very important role to play in determining the educational aspirations of adolescents.

The results are suggestive of the fact that male adolescent possesses greater educational aspirations than their female counterparts. This may be attributed to the differential treatment which is given to the boys and girls in Indian society. Hence, the preferential treatment and the exposure given to the male children as compared to the female counterparts may be responsible for these results. Male children receive more independence and encouragement than females because of cultural roles assigned to both the sexes in adult life (Verma and Ghadially, 1985). Hence, the educational needs and aspirations of the female adolescents should be identified and nurtured. The results of the present study may be seen in the context of some related research evidences.

Grieve (2009) revealed high level of educational aspirations among urban African-American male adolescents. Non-significant gender differences in aspirations were found by a group of researchers (Strand and Winston, 2008; Talawar and Kumar, 2010). However, female adolescents' were found to possess higher educational aspirations (Odell, 1989; Mau and Bikos, 2000; and Singh, 2011) found that girls have higher educational aspirations than the boys. Though these findings support different hypotheses regarding gender differences, yet the studies encourage the fact that gender differences had played considerable roles in formulating the educational aspirations of the adolescents.

Home environment was also found to be correlated with the educational aspirations of the adolescents. These results are in line with the findings of Garg *et al.* (2002) who found that the personal factors like home environment had a strong direct influence on educational aspirations. Marjoribanks (2003) emphasized about family background differences among adolescents achievement, aspirations and their educational attainment. Though Leigh and Gill (2004) found substantial expansion in the educational aspirations of the adolescents students, but their families environment and background had played no role that. Li *et al.* (2006) emphasized on creating conducive home environment conditions for student's high educational achievements and aspirations.



Further, the results of the study as reported by Roberts and Moss (2007) showed that there was a negative correlation between family environment and educational aspirations. On the contrary, Singh (2011) revealed that home environment and educational aspirations have no significant relationship with each other in a sample of school students. The results of the present study has important implications for educationists, counselors and parents. The female students should be provided counseling sessions in order to maintain a higher level of educational aspirations. Parents, teachers and counselors need to be aware of the importance of students having high and stable educational aspirations and performing academically well from as early as elementary and middle school. Counselling sessions should be provided to address school and family issues for students with low aspirations. Counselors can help students understand their options, identify their goals and then get into suitable educational programmes (academic, vocational, *etc.*) to enable them to actualize their goals.

The results of the study further emphasize upon the significant role played by home in shaping students' aspirations, no matter what the income level or background of the family is. Hence, parents need to be made aware of the various positive and negative reward mechanisms that can be helpful in enhancing educational aspirations of their wards. Parents from lower socio-economic backgrounds and who have had no college educations should be educated about the college search and choice process and financial aid at an early stage may help them to not only have higher aspirations for their children, but also help them play a more active role later on when their children are in the college search stage. It becomes foremost duty of parents to make every effort to create a conducive and healthy atmosphere in the home so as to sustain high educational aspirations in children. In nutshell, it may be said that an understanding of the dynamics of educational aspirations development among adolescents would enable educators, parents and counselors to adopt measure tailored to meet the specific needs of adolescents, thus helping enhance their career opportunities and options. It is very much desired in youth and especially in adolescents to have high educational aspirations and ambitions for social and scholastic achievement.

## **CONDITION OF ADOLESCENTS INDIA AMONG THE WORST**

Almost 47 per cent of girls in the age group of 11 to 19 years are underweight in India, which is the highest in the world, a UNICEF report on the 'State of the World's Children' released here today said. Also a total of 56 per cent of girls and 30 per cent of boys in the age group are anaemic which places the country along with the least developed African nations. The report says that around 25 per cent (243 million) of Indians belong to the age-group of 11-19 years.

Almost 40 per cent of the section is out of school and 43 per cent get married before the age of 18, out of whom 13 per cent become teenage mothers. School attendance in the 11-13 years age group is 86 per cent and 14-17 years is 64 per

cent. On the positive front, the report shows that the number of girls who got married before the age of 18 years has decreased from 54 per cent in 1992-93 to 43 per cent in 2007-08. But the figure is the eight highest in the world and Pakistan fares much better with just 25 per cent of girls getting married before the age of 18 years.

Some 6,000 adolescent mothers die every year and there is a 50 per cent higher risk of infant deaths among mothers who are aged below 20 years. Adolescents with correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS is 35 per cent in boys and 28 per cent in girls.

The report further said that about one-third of adolescents report physical abuse and about one-third of adolescents report sexual abuse. “Certainly, now 74 per cent of adolescents are in school. Most of them are getting primary education. But there is a high-drop out rate afterwards, both in male and females. It is still an area of concern,” Karin Hulshof, country representative for UNICEF said.

On child marriage, she said, there is a gradual decline in the marriage before 18 years but still the ratio is “far from satisfactory”. The lack of knowledge regarding HIV/AIDS, health, abuse and unemployment are other areas where a lot of work needs to be done. Hulshof said “health and reproductive services and knowledge” must be provided to every person in the age group.

# 5

## Gender Differentials in Adult Literacy

Literacy, *i.e.*, the ability to read and write, is the foundation of education. NFHS-3 shows that only 55 per cent of women and 78 per cent of men are literate in India. Literacy has, however, been increasing over time for both women and men as measured by changes across age groups. In fact, literacy among women is almost twice as high in the 15-19 age group than in the age-group 45-49 that is 30 years older. Nonetheless, even in the youngest age group, one in four women and one in ten men are not literate.

Although the gender differential in literacy has declined over time, the differential remains high even in the youngest age group: among those 15-19 years of age, the percentage of females who are literate (74 per cent) is 15 percentage points less than the percentage of males who are literate (89 per cent).

Literacy is much higher in urban areas than in rural areas. Notably, the differential by residence for women is much greater than for men (29 percentage points for women vs. 16 for men) and the gender disparity in literacy is also much greater in rural than in urban areas.

Nonetheless, even in urban areas, one-fourth of women are not literate. Great disparity in literacy by wealth, especially for women. In the lowest wealth quintile, only 19 per cent of women are literate, compared with 47 per cent of men.

However, literacy increases sharply with wealth and the increase for women is greater than for men. Consequently, the gender differential in literacy narrows rapidly with wealth, so that in the highest wealth quintile, 90 per cent of women are literate, compared with 97 per cent of men.

## CONCERN OF ADULT LEARNING

We are concerned with adult learning that is itself a developmental activity and process. Adult learning is a change in behaviour, a gain in knowledge or skills, and an alteration or restructuring of prior knowledge; such learning can also mean a positive change in selfunderstanding or in the development of personal qualities such as coping mechanisms. Thus, learning is not just information-based, nor is it merely a change in observable behaviour. Learning can include the acquisition of information or the application of information. Learning also includes a change or reordering of content in one's cognitive apparatus. This may include the deletion of old material when new content requires this adjustment, or it may mean altering one's mental file cabinet to subsume newly acquired knowledge beneath or to superordinate it above prior content.

Here, we blur a previous boundary. Historically, some learning theorists have differentiated between the acquisition of knowledge (learning) and its restructuring (development). This seems to be a specious distinction in the absence of empirical studies finding that cognitive development occurs during knowledge re-structuring but not during knowledge acquisition. Thus, it seems appropriate to conclude that both the acquisition of material and its revision in one's cognitive schema involve learning, and that cognitive development is inseparable from such learning. Learning can occur consciously or unconsciously. Conscious learning transpires when one intentionally seeks knowledge or skill development that will expand or change one's database or performance.

Largely unconscious learning occurs, for example, in some forms of social modelling behaviour, in developing and using implicit (tacit) knowledge, and in acquiring and evolving an adult identity. Unconscious learning is difficult to study and, other than somewhat tangentially in the psychoanalytic area, has been largely neglected. However, it is possible to observe the results of unconscious changes in learning applications. This is particularly true in adulthood because this period is one in which substantial previously acquired conscious knowledge moves to the unconscious or preconscious level of nearly automatic functioning. Conscious or declarative knowledge is knowing that, whereas unconscious or preconscious procedural knowledge is knowing how. An example is found in operating a car. Declarative knowledge development occurs on first learning how to drive.

The learner is aware (conscious) of the items and incidents of learning, such as the car's essential mechanisms, the sequences in operating a vehicle, and the rules and patterns of driving from one location to another. Such learned information and behaviour then move to the procedural (pre- or unconscious) level in which the driver is barely aware of his or her knowledge and functions or of the car and its route. Importantly, years of productive work-based learning lead to a procedural form of knowledge that has also been termed implicit and tacit knowledge, that is, a practical intelligence. Such practical, procedural

knowledge and its associated strategic abilities occur when one learns adult roles, problem-solving strategies, skills, and productive expertise. In adults who continue to learn, such knowledge increases during the active, engaged years of life. Importantly, a number of investigators have found that learning and its associated tacit knowledge are unrelated to tested intelligence and to aptitude test scores.

## **CONSCIOUS KNOWING AND LEARNING**

It is important to distinguish between unconscious and preconscious knowledge and skills. Knowledge and its associated functioning are unconscious when the person is completely unaware of data, of the processes and sequence of knowledge use, or of learned behaviour. Such material is inaccessible to conscious awareness. Preconscious knowledge refers to attributes and functions that exist in the unconscious but that with effort, can be brought up to the conscious level. For example, with respect to unconscious (tacit) knowledge, highly successful managers are often unable to explain how they correctly interpreted key elements in the work environment and reached conclusions that turned out to be accurate (Sloan, 2004). On repeated questioning, many are never able to identify facts and processes that were essential to their conclusions (Reber, 1993). Similarly, many elite athletes cannot explain essential attributes of their highly developed psychomotor abilities, nor can some explain how they perform skill sequences.

Material and functioning remain at the unconscious, grooved neuron level and are inaccessible. However, with respect to preconscious knowledge, many assembly workers, for example, may not be able to readily explain how they know when and how to sequence line activities; however, when pressed, some are able to bring this content into consciousness to provide on-the-job training and mentoring for new employees. Physicians, for example, may be unaware of the knowledge and thinking processes they use in decision pathways that lead to differential diagnoses. However, on specific questioning, some can delineate key information and describe their thinking process, thought sequence, and deductions. Others cannot. Unexamined is the question of whether there may be unique talents in those who are able to access and surface such preconscious material.

For the purposes of considering adults, we include real-world learning and meaningful learning, as well as learning performance that is based on developed and maintained (practiced) expertise. This excludes idiosyncratic and laboratory-type learning tasks that are unrelated to relevant problems or situations in which we define relevance as it is construed by the subject. This distinction is important because relevance and life problems do not exist in laboratory settings, and adults may or may not elect to actively involve themselves in artificial or arbitrary tasks even when they seem to comply with performance requests. Furthermore, perceptual and cognitive slowing among adults is exaggerated when tasks fail the criterion of meaningfulness and when developed expertise is ignored.

Age-associated deficits are nearly always found in older subjects in the contexts of the laboratory and in situations in which material is novel or alien to their experience. Then, deficits are apparent in reaction time, serial learning abilities, short-term and working memory processes, speed of processing, and the ability to block distracting, task-irrelevant information and stimuli. However, as Salthouse (*e.g.*, 1984, 2000) reported, there are no perceptible losses when tasks require real-world or well-learned responses. For example, in Artistic, Cervone, and Pezzuti's (2003) study of younger (20–29 years) and older (65–75 years) adults, when tasks were common to both groups, younger subjects routinely performed better. However, when the researchers posed daily problems that were highly relevant to older adults, the older subjects routinely outperformed the younger group.

In a high-technology environment, it is not that older adults do not function well cognitively or that they do not learn. Rather, they are slower than their younger peers. Not having grown up with, for instance, computers, fax machines and ATMs, and cell phones, they appear deficient compared to almost anyone who in youth was developing and learning amidst the daily experience of computers and Internet access.

Schaie and Zanjani have synthesized findings from a number of studies showing that deficits among older adults are either drastically reduced or extinguished when perceptual speed and individual differences in task attention are removed from the equation. Gains have occurred through training programmes; some of those gains resisted decline over a 7-year period. Ongoing high performance in cognitive functioning and problem solving continues into later adulthood, particularly in the context of work tasks and life problems. Recent investigations of sustained effort and expert performance have reformed thought about the ways selective optimization with compensation (SOC) can maintain high levels of cognitive and even psychomotor performance into adults' 80s and 90s.

In SOC, one raises the threshold for cognitive and skill decline. This is accomplished by reducing the range of performance activities, selecting (S) only those that will be practiced intensely (O), and using a wealth of accumulated experiences and resources (C) to sustain expert performance and learning. For example, a 65-year-old physician retires, having found that the escalating requirements of private practice consume all of his energies and leave little time for life beyond the confines of professional work. He thus reduces his range of obligations (no more hospital visits, emergency room call schedules, after-hours patient phone conferences) and elects to focus (S) only on caring for patients in free clinics. There, he limits patient care to his subspecialty area (O), freeing up time to read professional journals, attend conferences, and keep up with his field (C). He thereby sustains a high level of professional performance and engages in fresh opportunities for learning.

In ongoing learning, the adult uses many sources, contexts, and strategies for learning. This does not occur passively, and content is not learned in final

form, merely pulled in from the external environment. Both in terms of motivation and with respect to perceptual-cognitive filters, the adult operates as the control who selects, reviews, revises, and sometimes rejects what is perceived and sometimes assimilated. The adult evaluates material as it arrives; he or she determines, with value primacy intact, content that will be accepted and material that will be altered, revised, or rejected. Thus the adult functions both as the agent of personal change and as the medium who differentially blocks and restructures, re-creates, and sometimes rejects content and opportunities for cognitive and behavioural change. The importance of the adult as a filtering power other than a mere conduit of information has not received adequate empirical attention.

## **LEARNING PROCESS AND ADULT LEARNING THEORY**

One of the most significant qualities unique to adult learning as compared to that of children, teens, and traditional college students is life experience. That experience offers adult learners a meaningful advantage in the learning process. The sum of those experiences provides many reference points for exploration, new application, and new learning.

Merriam and Cafarella (1999) review Jarvis's Learning Process in a wider discussion of adult learning. These authors quote Jarvis (1987a) who suggests, "All learning begins with experience." Real learning begins when a response is called for in relation to an experience. If an individual is unchanged by a situation, Jarvis questions whether real learning has taken place.

He proposes that new experiences need to be experimented with, evaluated, reflected upon and reasoned about for the most effective change and therefore learning to take place. Jarvis continues, suggesting that these post experience behaviours culminate in the best and highest form of learning where change and increased experience have happened. Jarvis's model offers an excellent learning model that can assist both facilitators and learners in advancing education and learning situations. A few questions come to mind in light of Jarvis's theory. Does Jarvis's model reflect a deeply postmodern worldview where experience is either ultimate or paramount? How might this worldview expand or narrow learning theory? Does Jarvis's model seem to accept the maxim that 'experience is the best teacher'? We can of course qualify this statement by asking whether there is any learning which does not consist of experience in some form, whether in the classroom, on the playground or on the battlefield.

Is it possible that some hurtful and negative life experiences could be avoided if a person learned from another person who has already encountered and experienced a significantly negative life situation? Learning from an older or more experienced mentor provides an incredibly valuable learning forum and support network. Listening, and learning from a mentor's successes, failures, or mistakes can help expand one's knowledge base and shorten learning cycles



experience alone would require. It seems that living largely out of one's personal experiences also short-circuits meaningful, relational connections that expand one's horizons and better equip one to succeed in this world and avoid so many of its pitfalls. Yet, it may be reasonably argued, that personal experience provides the most integral and visceral form of learning.

## TEACHING OF SCRIPT TO ADULT LEARNERS

In India, emphasis has always been put on the well-formedness of writing. There is no doubt that a good handwriting is an important in writing as a good pronunciation in speech. But, in India, script has assumed a mystico-religious significance. As a result well-formed writing is almost religiously pursued as a goal. Moreover, the diverse media used for writing favoured a clear, well-formed writing; rather than a cursive writing for easy execution and comprehension. Perhaps because of this overriding consideration for well-formedness and the inter-related mystico-religious significance attached to script systems, the traditional method of teaching writing at an early age is uncritically used for second language teaching even today.

It is not realised that, in case of the mother tongue learner, the child has already mastered the minimum mechanics of the language before he starts to learn writing. It is little appreciated that writing in a second language context cannot just be taught at a certain age grade without relevance to the preparation of the child as is usually done today. When there is so much ignorance about the stage, age and manner in which the child is to be taught reading and writing to an adult.

In the teaching of Indian scripts to adults. Very little attention was given to pattern-perception based on the similarity in the shape of the letters. As in the case of the children, the adults are taught the alphabet in its traditional arrangement. They are taught to learn to write the letters with meticulous care. Even now, script is never taught as a language-related topic. It is seldom realized that script is a secondary representation of language (*i.e.*, speech) and need be taught as the co-relation of sounds with symbols. On the other hand it is often assumed that the audio-lingual facility will somehow automatically follow the facility to manipulate these symbols.

In 1953, Miss Lambert made an attempt to study the Devanagari script from the point of its use by five of the Indian languages. The book, *Introduction to the Devanagari for Students of Sanskrit, Hindi, Marathi, Gujarati and Bengali*, is biased towards the extension of Sir William Jones attempt of presenting 'The Orthography of Asiatic Words in Roman Letters'. While Miss Lambert makes use of her linguistic insight in her analysis "in order to give a fuller understanding of special nature of the scripts and adjustments which are made in Sanskrit system in order to use it for writing the modern languages of northern India", she has also hoped that this will be an aid to students for learning to write the script concerned. She has, under calligraphy of the Sanskrit section, exemplified the order of writing the strokes in characters. But no indication is given about

the direction of the hand movement. This is a relatively sophisticated work to be used more by teachers and advanced students, rather than by the beginning students.

It was in 1965 that the American Institute of Indian Studies made an effort to exploit the similarity of shape of Devanagari characters in teaching the Hindi script. About the same time, Dr P. B. Pandit had utilized the similarity of shape of letters in teaching Devanagari script to adults. In a textbook entitled 'Naya Savera' published by the Literacy House, Lucknow, arrangements, but arranged on a basis of unstructured similarity.

There was a basic difference among linguists and psychologists working in this field in India. While in the American Institute of Indian Studies, we presented groups of letters similar in shape in pairs and in a set, the other group objected to it on the ground that this may create more confusion in the mind of the learner. Their contention was that symbols which are similar in shape should be sufficiently spaced so as to avoid confusion. This stand only paid lip service to the pattern-perception hypothesis, while, in practice, it in no way, improved upon the traditional arrangement of the alphabet, which did not consciously take into account the similarity of shape of the letters.

The Central Hindi Institute in Agra instituted a programme about April, 1967 to explore the easiest way to teach the Devanagari script. It suffered from severe handicaps from the very beginning, as the goals were not properly defined. For instance, it was not clearly stated whether the resultant book would be a graphemic analysis of the Devanagari script, a teacher's handbook, a reading and writing manual for children, or a similar manual for the adults. An attempt was made to dissolve all the Devanagari characters into five or so ultimate components, the various combinations and permutations of which would produce different characters. A further attempt was made to classify the letters from the point of view of their similarity of shape.

The direction of hand-movement was indicated by arrows after the place of the component in a letter was shown by the help of lines and dots. Some of the results of this study may conveniently be used for devising a preliminary hand-writing book in which pattern practices may be given to the children. This may also contribute towards a more rigorous classification of the letters in terms of their shape. But unfortunately no attempt has been made to classify the Devanagari script according to their structure in terms of the ultimate components.

In short, while it may act as a teacher's handbook in some ways, as a teaching manual, it will have little use either for the children or the adults. The American Institute of Indian Studies's effort in teaching script using pattern perception and contrastive presentation was carried on two levels. A Programmed Introduction to the Reading and Writing of Oriya script was prepared for the self instruction of students, while the Devanagari script continued to be taught in the class-room during the past three years. The teaching of script followed the teaching of sounds and it was pointed out that the script was a mere symbol

representing one or more sounds as *IE YÉ, etc.* Sets of letters similar in shape written on the blackboard to emphasize the similarity in their shape and the differences which kept them apart. Words, which were used to teach sounds, which in turn were selected from the conversation being taught simultaneously, were used as far as possible to illustrate these letters in writing. This provided additional reinforcement for learning and by reducing the burden of unfamiliarity facilitated the recognition of the letters. It is important to emphasize one of the underlying assumptions of this presentation.

It was intended to emphasize on the recognition of script and increase the speed in the reading before it was attempted to orient the students to writing. Once the students knew to recognize all the letters and their eyes were sufficiently conditioned to the direction of movement, the arrangement followed in the dictionary was given to them.

Each letter was written with arrow indication to point out the direction of hand-movement, so that they could practice writing at leisure. It was found out that following this procedures, it was possible to teach the reading of the Devanagari script within six to ten hours, while the writing needed a little more time.

So far, most pattern perception study is attempted on the basis of unstructured similarity. Very few structured scheme based on internal grammar of script has been attempted. While active interest “in the area of graphic data based conversation programme” has led to the preparation of sophisticated picture-processing models abroad, in India. Professor Narasimhan of the Tata Institute of Fundamental Research, Bombay, has worked in the area of syntax-directed interpretation of classes of pictures. Mainly designed for computer consumption, it is difficult to seen at the moment to what extent this would be of immediate pedagogical relevance in the Indian class-rooms. It may, for instance, provide confirmation to the classifications based on subjective visual evaluation. In any case, anyone interested in the teaching of script has to deep his eyes open to any research bearing relevance to the entire field.

## **ADULT LEARNING THEORIES**

Typical adult learning theories encompass the basic concepts of behavioural change and experience. From there, complexities begin to diverge specific theories and concepts in an eclectic borage of inferences. Up until the 1950's basic definitions of learning were built around the idea of change in behaviour. After this point more complexities were introduced “such as whether one needs to perform in order for learning to have occurred or whether all human behaviour is learned “.

Jean Piaget contends that there are “four invariant stages of cognitive development that are age related”. According to the authors, Piaget contends that normal children will reach the final stage of development, which is the stage of formal operations, between the age of twelve and fifteen. As cited by Merriam and Caffarella (1999), Arlin (1975, 1984), established from the work

of Gruber (1973) on the development of creative thought in adults, has attempted to identify a fifth stage of development, in addition to Piaget's formal operations.

"She [Arlin] contends that formal thought actually consists of two distinct stages, not one, as Piaget proposed". Arlin (1975) proposes that Piaget's fourth stage, formal operations, be renamed the problem-solving stage. According to Merriam and Caffarella (1999), Arlin's hypothesized fifth stage was the problem-finding stage. This stage focuses on problem discovery. Though Arlin's proposed fifth stage produced more questions than answers, it opens the door to understanding the learning needs of adults; to be approached as thinkers.

According to a literature review by Ross (2002), humanism, personal responsibility orientation, behaviourism, neo-behaviourism, critical perspectives, and constructivism are all important facets of, and perspectives on, adult learning theory. The most common treatments of the research of these areas of self-directed adult learning are learning projects, qualitative studies, and quantitative measures. Collins (1991) explores adult learning as the interactive relationship of theory and practice. In basic terms, the adult learner studies a particular theory and then puts it into practice when presented with the opportunity to do so. Thus, the understanding of an adult learning theory can prompt practice and practice can prompt adult learning theory revision.

Adult learning theories in and of themselves have very little consensus amongst them. There is great debate on an actual determined amount of theories that are even possible, as well as labelling those theories into groups like Hilgard and Bower's (1966) stimulus-response and cognitive theories as large categories of their eleven theories. Another groups dynamic labels theories as mechanistic and or organismic. Overall it seems that the theory of adult learning is broken down into two elements; 1) a process that creates change within the individual, and 2) a process to infuse change into the organization.

Malcolm Knowles might well be considered the founding father of adult learning. He contrasted the "concept of andragogy, meaning "the art and science of helping adults learn,"... with pedagogy, the art and science of helping children learn". Knowles' original studies and writings arose from the assumption that there are significant, identifiable differences between adult learners and learners under the age of eighteen. Primarily, the differences, according to Knowles, relate to an adult learner being more self-directing, having a repertoire of experience, and being internally motivated to learn subject matter that can be applied immediately – learning that is especially "closely related to the developmental tasks of his or her social role".

## **FUNCTIONS OF ADULTS EDUCATION**

Education as a lifelong process, at least for a portion of the population, is an ideal as old as Western civilization. For the Greek citizen, the medieval scholar, the Renaissance man, learning was an attribute of life, continuing until death. The central purpose of American adult education today is to preserve this ideal in the more formal structure of an organized programme, and to apply it to as

large a portion of the total population as is capable, by both innate intelligence and interest, of continuing to learn. This purpose is sought at all levels, from remedying the lack of primary skills to keeping persons with graduate degrees up to date in their profession: In 1950, there were nearly 10 million adults who were functionally illiterate, that is, who had four years or less of schooling.

While many of these, both Negro and white, were reared in the rural South, there are illiterates in virtually every state of the union. Many of those who can read and write, moreover, were never taught much more. One out of four of the healthy young men drafted into the Army are unable to learn any task more complicated than digging ditches or washing pots and pans; and while some of these soldiers are undoubtedly of low native intelligence, the staggering size of the inept proportion suggests that the principal cause of their deficiency is inadequate schooling. Even the simplest function of an educational system, vocational training, is relatively complex in an economy changing as fast as ours.

Among manual jobs, those that require no skill are becoming proportionately fewer; and in the labour force as a whole, the percentage of white-collar and professional positions is increasing even faster. The significance of these trends to each individual American is obvious: they mean that the traditional opportunity to raise himself up the social ladder still exists to a marked degree. The main prerequisite to a significant rise, however, has become the formal education appropriate to the position he is seeking. A degree pays for itself many times over: a four-year college education that costs a total of about \$9,000 (including the amount that could be earned by a teenager at relatively unskilled work) increases one's lifetime income by about \$100,000.

That the efforts of an individual to get ahead are commendable in terms of American values need hardly be said, and it is also a commonplace that the society as a whole is in great need of more highly educated specialists. The number of persons engaged in professions associated with industrialization has grown tremendously—from 30,000 engineers in 1890 to more than 530,000 in 1950, for example, and by similar ratios among chemists, physicists, biologists, accountants, and, most recently, administrators. Even this growth has not been fast enough, however, and there are serious and in some cases increasing shortages in several essential professions. Which these are depends to some degree, of course, on one's definition both of "essential" and of "shortages."

The most obvious, though not necessarily the best, criterion of a shortage of professional personnel is a large number of unfilled openings and a consequent disproportionate rise in salaries or earnings. But this definition, in spite of the fact that it has the sanction of economic theory, applies only to professionals subject to market conditions, such as engineers working for corporations or physicians in private practice. Persons who work for a government and are thus paid out of a tax fund often have lower salaries even if their services are more important to society. The shortages of physicians in salaried positions in health departments, for example, or of nurses in hospitals, or of teachers, must be

defined by comparing the number and quality of the supply with some standard of what the society needs. Sometimes such a need—for example, for a greater number of highly qualified theoretical physicists—can be appreciated only by one himself trained in the profession.

The principal reason for such shortages is that, in spite of the rapid expansion of America's educational system, too few young people are learning nearly as much as they can absorb. Furthermore: Today, less than half of those capable of acquiring a college degree enter college. About two-fifths of those who start college—many with superior ability—do not graduate. For every high school graduate who eventually earns a doctoral degree, there are twenty-five others who have the intellectual ability to achieve that degree but do not.

## **PROBLEMS CONFRONTING ADULT EDUCATORS**

For the successful implementation of the adult education programmes, frequent visits to the centres, constant dialogue with the instructors and effective monitoring and evaluation are needed. A jeep jatha was organised by the Centre for Adult Education and Extension in Karakulam and Anad Panchayats where 60 Adult Education Centres are directly run by the CAEE. The two day jeep jatha not only helped in evincing public awareness and support, but also in identifying the urgent needs of the community and the problems confronting them. Some of these were eye-openers to the team of 15 adult educators comprising of organisers, researchers, project officers, supervisors and social workers.

The jeep jatha which started from the University Students' Centre at 8 a.m., on 12-5-1984 reached Aruviyode Harijan Colony around 9 a.m. where 2 centres are run for men and women respectively. An emerging colony just outside the city limits, appeared remote and far from developed. The team was whole heartedly welcomed by a gathering of about 150 men and women. "Give us drinking water"—that demand came from all those who assembled there. They took us to a nearby well which was completely dry.

The well was deep enough but there was no water. We were taken to two neighbouring places which used to be their solace, but that too had gone dry. Water supply has not reached that area yet. So the colony people had to travel at least 200 metres for a bucket of water. The people are willing to extend manual labour but the walls couldn't be dug deeper due to mud and sand. But the adult illiterates are prompt in attending classes. They are half-starving, yet they are amenable to change. Which is the priority—drinking water or alphabets, they ask.

In a feeding centre attached adult education Centre-crowded to see us and talk to us. The attendance in that people is rather good, mainly due to the food supplied to the young-children. Mothers come with children and are taught health and hygiene, saving habits, first aid pollution, democracy, *etc.*, which they are eager to hear and learn. Their demand is that the quantum of food be increased so that mothers need not depend on the food supplied to their-children.



Though the target group is mainly of the 15-35 age group men and women of 50+ are found in some centres, eager to learn the alphabets. They are more regular than the youth. But the elderly ones are short of sight and are looking forward to the welfare agencies for the supply of glasses. What they ask is whether there is some provision for 'glasses' for the old, in the scheme of adult education. A question yet to be answered.

When we reached a centre in the same Panchayat, we found that classes were run in the open in the shade of a jack tree. The ground is not plain and there is nothing to sit on. The learners squat on the muddy floor. The roller board supplied to the centre was rarely used due to lack of space for affixing the same. Such a pitiable condition was prevalent in the area. A Harijan Colony of recent origin other facilities were also meagre in the area. But the interest evinced was so high that the average attendance was more than 30. How to construct a temporary shed is their problem.

Though the State boasts of providing electricity in all its villages, we found many centres near which no electric post could be seen. In at least two places due to lack of money, electric connection could not be extended to the centre. Can't this be done as a gift to the learners?

In one centre we found children below 15 years also in the class. They told us that they found the adult education class more interesting than the regular school because of timing approach, variety, freedom, *etc.* However these were only guest learners and not regular learners. On the first day we covered 20 centres within 11 hours and concluded the day visiting centre in a home for the physically handicapped, in the city area. Though not a literacy class in the strict sense, this centre was a non-formal education centre doing commendable work. The journey was so tiring as it was through the village roads steep and dusty without even metal not to speak of tar. Anyway the members of the team were all rejoicing at the sight of the learners who are eager to continue their learning even at the expense of their leisure time and work.

'On the 13th, as planned earlier, we marched to Anad Panchayat which has about 7000 illiterates compared to the 8700 in, 'Karakulam Panchayat. In either case women illiterates outnumber men. Centres are also mostly run by women and are for women. Half the centres are located in Harijan colonies. The presence of the Panchayat President in the team throughout the day was a morale booster. The problems that were brought to our notice on the 12th were there again. May be this is the situation prevailing in all mofussil areas. On the 13th we covered 25 centres travelling 125 kms. Even after 8 p.m. learners were waiting for the team. A cashew factory which reopened recently in Anad has posed problems for learners in some of the centres. Their timings overlap. Moreover, after the day's hardwork, with their hands unclean and a foul smell, find it difficult to attend classes. Only Sundays are free for them and they have a lot to do that day. Having class for continuous hours will pose further problems. How to solve this? Will the factory owner be kind-enough to spare at least half an hour twice or thrice a week for their studies as in the case of worker's education?



Another serious problem posed was on the impact of the programme. Some learners who used to give their thumb impressions for receiving widow pension and other benefits are now denied of the same as they started signing their names. The change in signature has to be accepted by the authorities. This is a laborious task and time consuming. Can't the Project Officers be authorised to declare the new signature of neo-literates as valid and avoid unnecessary troubles?

Adult education programmes, to drive fruits have to be linked with developmental programmes and welfare schemes. Income generating projects have to be linked with adult and non-formal education programmes as well as incentives for functionaries and beneficiaries to be instituted. The needs and problems of learners have to be identified and programmes planned effectively linking these with all possible streams and ensuring proper coordination. The unnecessary and avoidable wastage—both of money and energy—has to be curbed for ensuring desired results. Lack of understanding and coordination among the different implementing agencies is yet another lacuna. Though State and District are not level worth the. Boards are being organised, they Mostly they are namesake and serve no purpose.

The recent changes in the norms of financial support are consoling to some extent. Provision of transport and adequate staff for effective monitoring and evaluation still remains a The accountability part also needs special attention problem of all concerned.

## ADULT EDUCATION

Adult education in a multilingual country like India is the greatest challenge to the linguist. Faced with problems of instant communication to be linked up with the standardisation and modernisation of the languages, the linguist is called upon to develop a strategy of literacy which can steer through the maze of languages, dialects, styles, registers and such other varieties. Most literacy workers have convinced themselves that the dialect has nothing to do with literacy.

And yet when a farmer's literacy manual is written in 'Suddh Hindi' (Chaste Hindi) in Delhi and is not accessible to a farmer in Rajasthan or in parts of Bihar, they do not know what to do about it. It is not as if a linguist can solve all the problems of literacy.

After all there is the Mahaboobnagar experiment in Andhra Pradesh where one of India's well known linguists was associated in a programme for producing instructional material in the dialect. But the result was unsatisfactory. By the end of the course, the learners could read (and write) Mahaboobnagar Telugu, but they could not read standard Telugu with facility. What, then, is the role of a linguist in an adult education programme ?

The Mahaboobnagar programme clearly shows that unless adult literacy is functionally defined and all steps from the curriculum formation through apperception to self-actualisation are well integrated, adult education is bound

to be incomplete. Unless reading the dialect is linked with the reading of the standard by a switch over mechanism, this problem cannot be satisfactorily solved. It is not enough to identify the needs and set the objectives, but it is necessary to structure experience through language in such a way that the competence in a language would be of a level which will not permit sliding back to illiteracy. Use of dialect in illiteracy is not an end in itself, but a means to attain necessary skills in the literary language in which sufficient reading material is available for him to maintain literacy.

Mahaboobnagar as well as similar experiences of the project run by the Council for Social Development, the Seva Mandir in Udaipur (Rajasthan), the Institute of Indian Education, Poona and Central Institute of Indian Languages, Mysore go to indicate that whether it is for motivation or for ensuring the functionality of the programme, material sensitive to local language use is more effective for bringing the learners quickly to the threshold of literacy. But this is not enough. Constant bridging at all levels of language is necessary to relate the local to the standard, which invariably is the high status language.

The problem of literacy in case of language which have accepted another language as 'culture language' needs more serious attention. It is to be remembered that the purpose of literacy is not to develop the undeveloped languages and dialects, but develop the human potential through conscientisation. Therefore, a knowledge of language dynamics and language engineering becomes a must for a literacy worker in a developing country. It is not as if the linguist can be eliminated if the problem of dialect is isolated. In a poona slum where the literacy worker asks the child *tujhe vadil kay kartat* and gets frustrated as the child does not understand, the problem is of a different order.

Undaunted, the worker asks *tujha bap ka karto* and *pat* comes the reply *daru pito ani aila marto* 'drinks wine and beats mother'. This forcefully brings out the distance between the slum language and the standard spoken language, the problem of comprehension and the problem of status and attitude build into the language use. Linguists, who make it their business to study the structure of varieties of spoken and written languages in different domains, must be treated as indispensable allies of literacy workers to solve such problems.

In a meeting of the Scientific and Technical Terminology Commission, there was a discussion about the word for 'fishing rod'. Although many languages have the word 'bansi', the pundits rejected it in favour of a more Sanskritised word 'akheta danda'. Many people are in favour of such Sanskritisms without knowing their implication. The choice of a high culture word, whether Sanskritic or Perso-Arabic, determines the style of writing. Since this has serious consequences for literacy, it must be understood by the material producer. Take, for example, the Oriya word *nasika* and *nake* 'nose'. The choice of *nasika* will require *kuncana kariba* while *nake modiba* in the sense of disapproval.

This not only is a problem in collocation, but the style of writing itself would be determined as a result of such choices. Hindi *danta cikitsa* and *dat ka ilaj* illustrate similar problems as the above. Yet another dimension of the problem

of language which has direct bearing on literacy is illustrated by the Tamil word which is written as *patam*, read as *padam* and spoken as *pado* or the Assamese word which is written as *citi bach* but read as *siti bas*. The language specific conventions of writing and reading need to be analysed and integrated in the literacy curriculum. The rules for moving either from the spoken to the written or from the written to the spoken have to be carefully worked out and graded before texts are prepared. Telugu, where most textbooks and much of the printed material was written in the Granthika style presents another formidable challenge to those engaged in adult education. In spite of the decision to effect a phased change over to the SiÀa vyavaharika, the spoken standard style, the anomaly is bound to persist for some more time.

The literacy workers even though working in a small homogeneous dialect area have to keep these broader aspects of language development in view. Otherwise devoid of the continuing flow of reading material which is likely to be available in the standard language for years to come, the neo-literates are bound to lapse into illiteracy.

Linguistic minorities pose a major problem to the literacy worker. In many cases people are to be made literate in two languages, the mother tongue and the dominant language. The linguists must stretch their ingenuity to develop the strategy of transfer, thus making it feasible to run simultaneous literacy in the home language and the dominant language wherever possible. Of course, those of the dominant language area may have to be made literate in either one or both the languages according to their choice. Facilities may be provided for this purpose. The West Bengal Committee for Eradication of illiteracy, for instance, has taken commendable steps in this regard. But very little research and experiment has gone in to making the other minorities literate.

Another peculiar problem is posed by linguistic minority communities who use a pidginised varieties of a language as contact language. The most important among these is the pidgin Naga, which is popularly known as Nagamese. This variety is not only a bridge among the mutually unintelligible Naga language speakers, but also a bridge between the various tribal language speakers and Assamese speakers. No literacy effort in this area can ignore the existence of this variety. The various tribal language speakers in the Koraput District of Orissa use Desia as a communication language in this manner. Similarly those in and around Ranchi in Bihar use Sadri or Sadni. Desia is a variety of Oriya and Sadri is a variety of Hindi. To what extent these intermediate languages can be exploited for furthering literacy has to be examined very carefully.

Problem of Santhali somewhat parallels the situation obtaining in the case of Konkani speakers. The Konkani speakers are spread in Goa, Maharashtra, Karnataka and Kerala. The Konkani language is written in four scripts, the Nagari, Kannada, Malayalam and the Roman script. The Santhalis are mainly distributed in Orissa, Bengal and Bihar, though there are few thousands in Assam. The language consequently is written in five scripts, Nagari, Bengali, Oriya, Roman and the Ol scripts. The last is an indigenously developed script by one

Raghunatha Murmu, himself a Santhali. Since the matter of script is an emotionally surcharged problem and the adoption of one or the other has many wider implications, literacy workers would do well to inform themselves about various aspects of this question with the help of linguists who have worked in these areas.

The above list is illustrative of challenges which literacy workers are likely to face. The various efforts at script and spelling reforms pose constantly renewed problems which need watching by trained linguists and their implications spelled out for the literacy workers. However, it is not only in the area of more language analysis that a linguist is relevant to a literacy programme. In the area of material production three major operations are envisaged in the years to come. Apart from writing materials which would presuppose language analysis, it is visualised that there will be need for translating and simplifying manuals and reading materials written by specialists.

Many international agencies are called upon to send specialists to prepare manuals are either designed for village level workers in health and education or for voluntary organizations engaged in extension work. As the knowledge of English of the workers themselves is minimal, the texts need to be simplified. Take for example an instruction from a manual (v.1: 101) prepared by the Ministry of Health. "Schedule domiciliary visits to new acceptors of condoms at least one during the first two months and every six months after they have become regular users".

This sentence has so many variables that for a person educated up to SSLC level it is difficult to comprehend it in one reading. Even after reading several times the chances of confusion cannot entirely be ruled out. Texts such as these need to be simplified. However the question is not as simple as it sounds at the first instance. How the simplification of an agreement between the governments of UK and Rhodesia assumed different nuances in the hands of government writers goes to prove that a lot of expertise has to be brought to bear upon the problem. In Indian languages where prestige is often attached to the high style, texts have to be simplified to guide the inexperienced reader through graded steps into becoming an efficient reader.

Here a parallel may be drawn with preparing textual material for purposes of second language learning. As in the case of learning a second language the learner is first introduced to the simple language used for native speaker he is guided to progress to greater complexities, in this case simplified language for neo-literate inexperienced reader slowly moves through simple language to greater complexities. Needless to say that the help of a linguist is essential in this operation.

Translations will have to be resorted to, as, for sometimes to come, the experts will write in English. Even if some good reading material is published in one Indian language it may have to be translated into other Indian languages. Translation is one of the most neglected fields in the country. Without going into the details of discussion regarding linguistics and translation, it may suffice

to point out that with language belonging to four language families and many languages of doubtful affiliation, almost all structural and semantic complexities of translation one is likely to find in the tour of the world can be illustrated by Indian languages. Fourteen languages as medium of higher education, administration and mass communication should indicate the extent of translation needed in the country. Apart from the problem of vocabulary, the presence or absence of verbs in equational sentences, passive and gender concord, the different modes of relativisation, the differing case relations are few of the important areas which pose obvious problems in translation. What is important to understand in this connection is that a research base has to be created in all these areas if functional adult education is to be achieved in a meaningful way.

The preparation of instructional material is not independent of the curriculum and philosophy underlying adult education in any country. Lyra Srinivasan (1977) speaks of four curriculum models. The four models, the Information model, the Problem solving model, the Projective model, and the Expressive, the Creative or the Self-actualising model, from a continuum on the basis of maximal and minimal role of a teacher. Each model will dictate its own material and teacher preparation.

For example, when people speak in terms of textbooks and supplementary readers their thinking is essentially of the information model. The system in which the teacher engages himself in a one way communication of information where the textbook dominates the class, where education is not relevant to the important segments of living of the adult learner is incompatible with adult education. External incentives and persuasions may result in external allegiance to a programme but it cannot generate the necessary emotional and intellectual precondition for adult education.

The conventional thinking on the subject makes a distinction between adult literacy and adult education. Thus in a curriculum of 350 hours, 90-100 hours are given for literacy. This represents a gross distortion and misunderstanding of both literacy and education.

First of all it must be understood that language is not taught in a vacuum. Unless the content of the language instructional material is closely knit with the needs and interests of the learners this itself may act as the greatest disincentive for them. Therefore, taking structures like lala tala la, lala la, tala la, selected on an ad hoc and random basis, and trying to generalise it for all groups of learners may not be the most efficient introduction of literacy.

Many prefer to use the primer prepared for native children for initial literacy. This thinking does not take into consideration the special psychological problem of an adult who either feels deprived, because of being bypassed by the school or has a low self-image, because of being a drop-out. He certainly resents when treated as a child. Secondly, a primer is a unit of formal schooling where it is structured differently with the curriculum. Thirdly, even the primers themselves are often not even properly designed for the children. For example, the first seventeen pages of the current Marathi primer contains mostly imperatives.

Under these circumstances, no matter how convenient it is for the administrator from the point of sale of material, this is not the proper answer to adult education. The knowledge sought to be imparted in an adult education situation must be need specific and the medium of communication location specific. This would indicate diversification of instructional material. But even accepting this diversity as basis, to what extent the initial material can be generalised needs to be studied more thoroughly and scientifically. So far only assertions of various literacy workers for and against such claims are available. For example, when one claims that the same literacy manual is being used for small and marginal farmers, industrial and mining workers, urban service workers, workers in different trades, tribals, scheduled caste groups and women it has to be examined a little more carefully and should not be taken at the face value.

Literacy to be functional, language must be well integrated with content. If the aim of adult education is to impart a level of competence to the learner so that he can sustain his interest of his own without lapsing into illiteracy, then it is not enough to give a mere recognition and manipulation of scripts, reading of controlled texts and writing letters to the grand child about one's health and the village fair. The adult learner must be made a competent reader with understanding of fairly complex structures so that he can read newspapers and make sense of various governmental forms and notifications.

Very little research has gone into the officialise language of our country. The forms and notifications, even in English in many countries, are written in a language which need simplification in order to be accessible to the English knowing public. Many of our forms and notifications, which are not originally drafted in Indian language, but are translations from English, are not even comprehended by highly educated native speakers. Therefore, it must be understood that both the content and language must be graded to carry the learner through successive skills while maintaining their relevance and creativity. This presupposes a team work in which a linguist is an indispensable component.

When we think of adult education, often, it is considered to be connected with writing and reading. Since every body speaks a language, spoken activity is completely ignored in the scheme of things. It must not be forgotten that India has a 2000 year old tradition of oral transmission of knowledge. In any case through dialogue it is not only possible to establish a personal bond between the teacher and the learners, but also lay the foundation of problem sharing and culture sharing. Very little research has been conducted about the structure of oral presentation in the formal class room, the radio and under more non-formal conditions.

The research conducted by the Coimbatore Agriculture University tend to indicate that there is more similarity in the structure of the class room presentation and the presentation by the Radio. This may be because, the radio presentation is first written and then read. The linking of the oral structures to reading and writing must also engage the attention of linguists.



A question is often asked about testing those who pass through adult literacy programmes. In such situation the word 'assessment' should be used to include besides testing, such observation techniques as rating and interviews, class performance records, job records and evaluation of the total learning outcome to reflect developmental changes. This also requires formulation of the goals of literacy in a more meaningful manner.

Functional literacy in terms of UNESCO norms was considered to be equivalent to education of the level of class V. But in the circumstances where the emphasis is on non-formality the specification of goals has to be spelled out in terms of skills, learner's confidence level creative interpretations of a stimulus, problem solving ability, *etc.* This is the only way to ensure fairness of assessment of both individuals and groups in a pluralistic society.

Terms such as motivations, animators, facilitators are being freely used in connection with adult education. Following the Indian tradition in this regard, some have even suggested a three-tier organisation where a motivator is the programme in-charge whereas the facilitator is the teacher. Those in-charge of adult education must ensure that the new labels are not used to either maintain status quo or smuggle in the formal class room authoritarianism. Malcolm Knowles developing the concept of Androgogy (Knowles 1971) describes it as the art and science of helping adults to learn. Androgogy has also been termed as 'A technology of involvement'. This involvement on the part of both organisers and learners is crucial to the success of an adult education programme. This is the biggest challenge before the educationists and linguists of this country today.

## ADULT BASIC EDUCATION

In the U.S., each state is responsible for addressing the basic education of their citizens. Official state web sites direct people to classes, programmes, and organizations designed to teach adults how to read prose, documents like maps and catalogues, and how to make simple computations.

GED: Adults who complete basic adult education have the opportunity to earn the equivalent of a high school diploma by taking the General Educational Development, or GED, test. GED prep resources abound online and in classrooms around the country, designed to help students prepare for the five-part exam. Adult Education Programme- is quite an old programme though with changing facets. It yields rich and early dividends, as is evident from the phenomenal progress that Taiwan, South Korea, Singapore, Hong Kong and Brazil have made during a short period. But unfortunately we have not given this programme the priority that it deserves. As a result thereof only a little more than 35 per cent of our population can be called literate.

According to the 1981 census about 45 per cent male and 24 per cent female are literate. The rest of the population cannot even sign their own names. Therefore, in spite of the growth of our country's national income (GNP); the development of the people at large has not taken place over thirty-five years of our independence.



The rich minority of landowners and industrialists in the country have grown richer and the poor majority of small and marginal farmers and landless labourers have become poorer. Unemployment has increased even when GNP has risen. This is not development but maldevelopment. Development is in fact meaningless unless it meets the basic needs of the common man, narrows down the wide gulf between the rich and the poor and provides employment to all who are capable of it. This will happen only through education of man. The fundamental component of education is 'literacy'. Modern science is knowledge-based and knowledge means the written word. If one cannot read, it is a sad situation. It is only through the written word that the great ocean of knowledge and advancement can open to the people. The five assumptions in Government of India's policy statement in Adult Education imply the essentiality of literacy for both individual development and social and economic progress of the country.

## **TRENDS IN EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT**

Trends in educational attainment can be examined by looking at changes across age cohorts or at data from multiple time points collected using the same questions. The proportion of ever-married women age 15-49 who have 10 or more years of education in each of the three NFHS surveys. This comparison of educational attainment is restricted to evermarried women since never married women were not interviewed in NFHS-1 and NFHS-2. The educational attainment of a sample of ever-married women is not representative of all women since the more educated women in the younger age cohorts, particularly the 15-19 and 20-24 cohorts, are less likely to be married and, hence, will be under-represented in this sample.

Nonetheless, a sample of ever-married women serves well in representing the women currently bearing and rearing children and making reproductive health and nutritional decisions. Educational attainment of ever-married women has increased between the three surveys. In NFHS-1, only 11 per cent of ever-married women had 10 or more completed years of education; this proportion rose to 14 per cent in NFHS-2 and is now at 17 per cent in NFHS-3. Despite this increase, however, less than 1 in 5 ever-married women have completed 10 or more years of education in India.

# 6

## Sexual Education for Adolescents

### SEX EDUCATION IN INDIAN SCHOOLS

Firstly, it is important to know the aims and objectives of introducing the subject of sex education in school curricula. *Very* often, people advocate sex education saying that it will help in controlling AIDS and in reducing adolescent pregnancies and the incidents of sexual assaults on women. Such statements are misleading and are based on false assumptions. These false promises (and premises), may lead to frustration in future.

Beacuse, if it had been so, there would have been no such problem in western countries which have an elaborate system of sex education in schools. We all know that sexual promiscuity and homosexuality is widely prevalent in countries like USA where family as an institution is broken and many experimental family systems exhorting free sex have been tried. Even AIDS originated from there. Thus, sex education is not a proven guarantee against spread of AIDS and should not be promoted with such an aim. Experiences of sex education in India indicate that sessions on male and female sex anatomy are held separately for boys and girls!.

Why this double standards? On one hand they advocate sex education in schools and on the other hand they shy away from a common session for boys and girls! Simultaneously, it is often asserted that students should also be told about use of condoms and about hazards of prostitution. Is it really needed? Some people even say that it is 'Sexy' education rather than sex education. Way back in 1996, Chopra lamented about rather naive publicity blitz for safe sex being carried out by the Government in a thoughtless imitation of the West.

He wrote 'Safe Sex Posters' on lamp posts are unabashedly though indirectly peddling free sex and announcing society's stamp of approval for it. At one stroke, this campaign seeks to demolish the age-old tradition of restraint and self-control in sexual matters. The so called 'sex education' being advocated and promoted by many Western - oriented educationists seems only a euphemism for teaching safe - sex. It is assumed that students cannot be prevented from free sex, so teach them safe sex. This line of thinking will promote the concept of safe rape, safe hijacking and safe drug abuse.

*Before going full steam on advocating sex education in Indian schools it is important to clarify following issues:*

- What should be the specific objectives of introducing sex education in Indian schools?
- Are our teachers ready and willing to deal with these topics?
- Are our parents willing for introduction of sex education in schools?
- If introduced, whether the issue of feasibility of sex education in remote rural schools of backward states like U.P., M.P., Bihar, Orissa and Rajasthan has been considered properly?
- Are our teachers/students ready to use synonyms of male and female sex organs as used in colloquial language, in the class... which will be better understood?
- What mechanism are there to monitor the purity of the feelings of teachers imparting sex education? After all, they are also human beings.
- What policy will be adopted for answering awkward questions from students pertaining to sex?
- What exactly will be the contents of sex education at various levels? At what levels it will be introduced? Till what level it will continue?
- Will it be stopped at college/university level? if yes, why? and if no, how will it be dealt with? Will condom use be demonstrated to students?
- Should we teach high school students about evils of prostitution?
- What evidence has been collected in favour of sex education (on the basis of experience so far)?
- Why sex clinics have not been established in medical colleges so far, so that they could counter and compete with unscientific and unhealthy sex education being provided through other regular 'popular' sex clinics in the market? *i.e.*, we have not been bold enough to address the issue of providing sex education to adults. However, we have taken the liberty to 'pollute' the minds of gullible and innocent children.

As far as teachers' views are concerned, let us share what Dr. Srivastava (who is also a university teacher) writes further, 'Human development occurs on its own. Our responsibility is just to shape it, refine it, give it a proper direction and provide good moral values. Pre-adolescent period (7-12 years) is the time for character building of students and children. During this period through reward and punishment system parents and teachers should emphasize God, love for country, friendship and love for study, music and creative activities only.

She asks - "Were our ancestors given formal sex education,? Answer is 'possibly No' So did this lead to spoiling of our life style? Answer is certainly NOT. Our families were civilized and culturally/sophisticated (without sex education). So why do our children need it?

Feeling of emotions in a natural way as a part of our normal development in adolescence is a God gift. We should not take this happy experience away from our kids. The spontaneity and naturalness of arousal of a feeling for opposite sex at or before adolescence the inquisitiveness and curiosity about such issues... The blushing of cheeks... unspoken feelings communicated through their eyes, ear, nose, lips...an intensely private feeling of entry of a kind of *gudgudi* in their lives is 'priceless' we have no right to deprive children of this.

Their small tricks petty mischiefs... fill and decorate their golden dreams these evoke nostalgic feelings when they get old ...and cherish their escapades. Attraction towards opposite sex...golden thoughts which do not have any meaning...with time the thoughts also vanish...but these feelings, emotions, remembrances of school days, chatting with friends, natural infatuation with teachers is totally different from the experiences of various stages of later life.

Why should we deny and trivialize these experiences by labeling these as 'sex education'. Yes, Sex education is important...it can be incorporated under marriage counseling...for adults but not during adolescence.

Through sex education we will risk invitation of dirty and impure thoughts in delicate and pure minds of innocent children. Physical development and maturation is a natural process affected by geography, India is a tropical country. Here, physical maturity sets in earlier than temperate region. So, in Indian context more emphasis should be on moral education and character building before adolescence. Sex education is personal and is a family responsibility. If it is given an educational or governmental cloak it will emerge as a social problem. It must be emphasized here that even in US where the highest prevalence of adolescent pregnancies has been reported, nearly one third to one fifth of large school districts states do not allow sex education in their schools. Principal at one school in US emphatically stated not to consider a programme or even providing teenagers with information about pregnancy prevention.

Parents at school made it clear '...the issue shall not be raised and shall be handled only by parents at home'. On the anticipated impact of sex education a US teacher opined...she is uncertain whether her intervention will actually accomplish the prevention of pregnancy or disease... or merely hold out the potential for benefit'. The afterlife of the MMS clip case in India captures many anxieties about the social transformation that sections of Indian society are undergoing. It has added another dimension to the debate on sex education in schools.

We must realize that students are not content with the school based 'sarkari' sex education. The erotica is available to them through various sources, high tech or otherwise. So why offer them sex education which they reject or even mock at. It was always naive to suppose that the economic and technological

transformations of the last decade would not have implications for the character of our social relationships and our sense of self. From metros to small towns, there is a brewing revolution in social mores.

In libidinal matters, there is little doubt that we are making a transition from a society premised on secrecy, repression and relatively rigid social control to a society where dangerous knowledge, publicity, freedom and individual experiments are going to become more the norm rather than the exception. There are people who think censorship, getting rid of the internet and rigid social control is an answer to what they see as impending decadence. It is very clear that a punitive attempt to turn back the clock will not work.

Today everything becomes available for vicarious consumption. The difficulty is that we have few models and sources of moral education left. The traditional model of moral education confused it with didacticism. Our schools are unequipped to deal with the complexities or moral discrimination. So, what should be done about it? Who is to be blamed?

Baazee.com episode is being analyzed by sociologists and psychologists. But people who point a finger towards children forget that their three fingers are directed towards society, themselves as well as ourselves. This episode is evidence that as a teacher, administrator, educationist and parent we have totally failed. We have been unable to provide a worthwhile role model for them. We have ignored value-based education...whereas many eminent educationists like S. Radhakrishnan and D.S. Kothari had emphatically advocated its need.

he irony is that Indian culture and tradition have guided everyone for centuries. Today, there is a state of value/normlessness all around. We have to reintroduce norms, standards and ideals of value-based education so that the Indian youth develop a proper self-identity. In India, knowledge, philosophy and character are considered as the comprehensive base for education. We need to harp back on the strength of our own system of socialization of future citizens of India through education based on Indian value system.

## **SEX EDUCATION TO ADOLESCENTS**

Adolescents gather in sequence about sexuality from friends and through the print and electronic media. Often this information is wrong and unscientific. They have a great curiosity and concern about the sexuality of their own and of the opposite sex. Adolescents often have neither access to accurate information on the issues related to sexuality and sexual health, nor solutions for their problems, due to socio-cultural barriers.

There is a increasing rate of morbidity associated with sexual ignorance, poor decision making and inadequate sexuality education. The study on the effects of sex education in schools show that sex and AIDS education often encourages young people to delay sexual activity and to practise safer sex, once they are active. This is contrary to the popular belief that teaching young people about sexuality and contraception encourages sexual experimentation.

In a study of AIDS prevention programme done by UNICEF of selected Municipal Schools in Bombay (Mumbai), it was found that students' queries ranged from sexual intercourse to marriage and sexual harassment. Many women's organizations feel that the girls should not be ignorant about basic facts of life and become victims of sexual abuse, unwanted pregnancy and deception.

A survey shows that 50% of the daily clientele of an STD clinic comes from 15 to 25 age group. Children are not less informed but they are malinformed. Ignorance and misinformation provide the ideal environment for all sorts of risky behaviour. It is such behaviour that spreads HIV infection. Aims of Sex Education to adolescents

*To help children understand that each part of the body and each phase of growth is good and purposeful:*

- To understand the process of reproduction.
- To prepare children for the changes of developments which come with growing up.
- To help young people see that sexual conduct involving other persons needs to be based upon a sincere regard for the welfare of the other.
- To make children proud of their own sex and appreciate attributes and capacities of the other sex.
- Responsible sex behaviour.
- Building up of healthy attitudes to sex.

The aspire is of prepare the adolescents of today to be productive, to have responsible and positive social-sexual behaviour, and to be caring and healthy adults of tomorrow. The need for this is knowledge, attitudes and skill gained through sequential sexuality education programme.

*Sex Education is:*

1. *Information:* To supply accurate information about human sexuality, including growth and development, human reproduction, anatomy and physiology of genital organs, pregnancy, child birth, parenthood, contraception, abortion, sexual abuse, HIV/AIDS and sexually transmitted diseases (STD).
2. *Attitude, values and insight:* Opportunity to question, explore and assess their sexual attitudes in order to develop their own values, increase self-esteem, develop insights concerning relationships with members of both genders, and understand their obligation and responsibilities to others.
3. *Relationships and interpersonal skills:* Help them expand skills like communication, decision making, assertiveness, peer refusal skills and ability to create satisfactory relationships. Develop capacity for caring, supportive, non-coercive and mutually pleasurable intimate relationships.
4. *Responsibility:* To help young populace exercise responsibility regarding sexual relationships, including abstinence; resist pressure to prematurely involve in sexual intercourse and encourage the use of contraception and other health measures.



To avoid teenage pregnancy, STD and HIV infection and sexual abuse. When to Begin? There is little value in giving anybody information after the moment when they need it. Girls need to know about menstruation before it happens to them, and boys need to know about masturbation before they are experiencing the desire to masturbate. Boys experience nocturnal emissions from the age of about 14 years and girls attain menarche at the age of about 13 years.

Some boys and girls experience these events even a year or two earlier. It is felt that the adolescent sex education should begin before these events take place. Std. VI (age 11 years) is thought to be the age when sex education for adolescents should begin. Ideally sexuality education for adolescents should be introduced from Class VI (age 11 years) and continued through junior and senior colleges (age-20 years).

Students of Std. X and XII should be spared for their Board examinations. The aim is to provide information and guidance before they become curious, face problems due to physical and psychological changes or become sexually active. How to implement? Sexuality education should be offered as a part of overall comprehensive health education programme. It should include health promotion and disease prevention.

The sexuality teaching should be taught in a graded manner like mathematics. Secondly, the messages once introduced should be reinforced repeatedly at different levels. Age-wise suitable curriculum should be available. Level I – Std. VI to X - Age 11 to 15 years. – to cover basics and essentials. Level II – Junior College and Senior College Age 16 to 20 years – to cover advanced studies and reinforcement of education. It is possible to develop more than the above two levels for the age group of 11 to 20, but then it would be difficult to demarcate the borderline between the levels while teaching the subjects.

Some aspects of sex education are gender specific and hence gender relevant. Therefore, separate sessions for boys and girls give opportunity to discuss the concerned topics at length, avoid embarrassment while discussing the subject and overcome shyness and anxiety while listening and enable them to share their doubts and views openly.

Girls feel shy, uncomfortable and uncomfortable in the presence of boys and hence non-communicative. Therefore, they do not participate in the open discussion. Girls and boys have different problems. If the sex education programmes are to be made acceptable, girls and boys should be given sex education separately. The general topics of sexuality and health could be discussed in a male-female mixed group, while specific issues related to different sexes should be discussed separately in the respective groups.

The advantages of combined sessions are saving of time and repetition, fostering healthy interpersonal relationship between boys and girls, developing mutual respect and reducing inhibitions and anxiety about the subject in the presence of the opposite sex.

The girls and boys feel more comfortable if the resource person is of the same sex as their's. Girls ask questions related to menstruation and gynaecological

disorders. Boys ask questions related to virility, masturbation, wet dreams, size of penis and coitus. Teachers and students will feel more comfortable if they both are of the same gender. Therefore, it is preferable that the girls are given sex education by female teacher and boys by male teacher. There will be a necessity of having one male and one female educator in the school. These teachers should be trained by social workers, doctors, sexologists and psychologists.

## **PROCESS OF SEX ORGANS**

Sex organs are the organs that are concerned in the process of reproduction. It is nature's way to produce progeny of its own kind, so as to maintain the propagation of life. The sex organs are also called as "genitals".

### **Male Sex Organs**

Testes, vas deferens seminal vesicles, prostate, cowper's glands and penis are the male sex organs. Penis and testes are visible, while the vas deferens seminal vesicles, prostate and cowper's gland lie inside the lower abdomen.

### **Penis**

Penis is a tubular organ drooping on the scrotum. When enthused it gets filled up with blood and becomes rigid, flaccid elongated and straight. The urinary passage called 'urethra' passes through the penis. Semen is also thrown out through the same passage. There is no muscle or bone in the penis. The length of the flaccid penis (rigid as well as flaccid) varies from person to person, just as the height of different persons vary. The average length of a rigid penis is about 5 inches.

Even a 2.5 inches long and rigid penis is considered to be normal, since it can effectively perform all the necessary functions (*i.e.*, urination, ejaculation of semen and intercourse). The penis is made up of three long spongy tubes. The upper two tubes are called "corpora cavernosa" and lower one is called "corpus spongiosum" through which the urethra passes out. All the three tubes are enveloped in a sheath called "Tunica Albuginea" which limits the girth and length of the penis. In an unstimulated state the penis is filled with little blood and remains flacid like a deflated balloon.

During the inspiration, the blood vessels open up and the blood rushes to the tubes and gets locked up. The penis, like an inflated balloon, becomes long and erect. After the ejaculation of semen (or when the stimulation stops) the locked up blood rushes back to the body and the penis becomes flaeid once again. The bulbous portion at the tip of the penis is called "Glans Penis." The rest of the penis is called "Shaft of the Penis." The groove between the glans and the shaft is called "Neck of the Penis." The glans and a thin fold of skin underneath, called "Frenulum" are most sensitive to sexual stimuli.

The entire penis is covered with skin. The part of the skin covering the glans, called "foreskin" or "prepuce", can be moved to and fro like a sleeve. The foreskin can be retracted over the glans except at the frenulum where it remains attached to the glans, nearly upto the urethral opening.

After puberty (coming of age or beginning of the adolescence) a thick white pasty secretion is produced by the skin over the glans penis. This secretion is called “Smegma.” It has an offensive odour and therefore should be cleaned every day by retracting back the foreskin, while taking bath. The urine from the urinary bladder and the semen from reproductive glands come out through the same passage in the penis called “urethra.” However, they do not mix with each other, since there is a “bivalve” mechanism.

When the semen has to come out, the urinary bladder outlet gets closed and vice versa. The semen contains spermatozoa (sperms), the male reproductive cells. Boys get unnecessarily anxious about the girth, length, angle, rigidity or shape of the penis. This is because of the myth that the pleasure of sex for men and women depends on the size and shape of the penis. The function of the penis is merely like a dropper to drop the semen upto the mouth of the uterus to facilitate fertilization.

The environment has combined “procreation” with “recreation”, so as to make propagation of life effective. It is only the glans in the males that is sensitive to sexual stimuli; and only outer one inch of vagina in females that can perceive sensation. Therefore, neither for males nor for females, the sexual pleasure will depend upon the size and shape of the penis.

The girls love the person and not his sex organ. Penis is not their pleasure instrument; the person is. In fact, some girls have a fear in their mind that the insertion of penis in the vagina may be painful. They fail to realise the fact that the vagina is so stretchable that any size of the penis can be accommodated without any pain. Boys fail to realise that the vagina is not so sensitive to sexual stimuli, but the clitoris is.

The size of the penis and the duration of the intercourse have no place in sexual satisfaction of a woman. Sexual intercourse for her is more of caring and sharing of the love rather than mere penetration of the penis in the vagina.

## **Testes**

The bag of skin beneath the penis is called “Scrotum”, which contains two testes (testicles). Each is of the size of a marble. Each testis constantly produces innumerable spermatozoa or sperms, (the male gametes) in a number of seminiferous tubules. It also produces the male hormone called “Testosterone.” This hormone is poured into the blood and it circulates throughout the body. It is the testosterone that brings about physical and psychological changes at puberty in males and is also responsible for the production and maturity of the sperms.

In a number of boys, one testis is little lower down than the other. This is quite normal. Some boys have only one testis in their scrotum, the other being in the abdomen. One testis produces enough number of sperms and the man can very well father a child. However, the undescended testis may shrink and later may develop cancer.

It is wise to bring down the testis into scrotum by surgery before the age of six years. The nature has judiciously brought the testes of the man outside his

body so as to make its temperature two degrees F. less than the rest of the body. This is to facilitate fast production of the sperms. There are muscles in the scrotal wall which contract or relax depending upon the temperature of the surroundings and hence regulate the temperature of the testes.

We human beings undo this usual regulation of temperature of testes by using a “langot” (or a tight underwear). Langot is used with an idea to prevent hernia or hydrocoele. The fact remains that langot cannot prevent hernia or hydrocoele, but it does harm by raising the temperature of the testes and interfering with the production of the sperms. Therefore, it is wise not to use a langot or a tight underwear. Testis is not a vital organ. A man can survive even after the testes are removed. If removed before puberty, the boy will not develop the changes that take place at puberty and during the adolescence. If removed in the adulthood, he will not produce sperms.

In some individuals the scrotum feels as if it is a bag of worms. There are dilated veins in the scrotum. Due to the warmth of the blood in these veins, the sperm production may deteriorate and may lead to infertility. In that case an operation to ligate the veins may be necessary. The sperms from the testis pass through a hollow tube called “Vas deferens” up into the lower abdomen and are stored in a dilated end portion of the Vas deferens called as “ampula” till they are mixed up with the other secretions to form semen.

### **Seminal Vesicles and Prostate**

Near the ampula on each surface is a hollow pouch which produces a colourless secretion for nutrition of the sperms. This pouch is called “Seminal Vesicle”. The contents of the ampula and of the seminal vesicle are thrown into the urethra through a common tube called “Ejaculatory Duct.”

Prostate is gland of the size of a betel nut situated around the urethra and below the urinary bladder. It produces a milky secretion for the motility of the sperms and pours it in the urethra. The sperms, along with the secretions of the seminal vesicles and the prostate, get mixed up in the urethra to form the “semen” at the time of the sexual climax.

Cowper’s Glands (Bulbo-Urethral Glands) These are two pea-sized glands each situated on either side of the urethra. The colourless secretion produced by it on sexual stimulation is poured into the urethra through a small duct. This secretion serves as a lubricant and also neutralizes the acidity of the urinary passage.

### **FEMALE SEX ORGANS**

Vulva, vagina, Bartholin’s glands, uterus, fallopian tubes and ovaries are the female sex organs. All the sex organs of the female, except vulva are inside her body.

#### **Vulva**

”Vulva” is a communal term for the external sex organs that can only be seen on separation of the thighs of a female. Just above the vertical cleft in the

midline is “Mons Pubis”, a pad of fat over the pubic bone, under the hairy skin. The vertical cleft in the midline is guarded on either side by “Labia Majora” (major lips) which stretch from Mons Pubis to the lower end of the cleft, in front of the anus.

They are pads of fat covered with skin and hair. When major lips are separated, two vertical thin folds of skin without hair are seen. These are sensitive and are called “Labia Minora” (minor lips). The minor lips unite upward to form a hood where small budlike projection is seen. This is called “Clitoris”, which is the counterpart of the penis and is equally sensitive to sexual stimuli. Clitoris swells up slightly during the sexual stimulation. The clitoris is partly covered by the hood of the labia minora, which produces smegma as in males, and therefore needs cleaning daily.

At the lower end of the vertical cleft is the vaginal opening, guarded on either side and below by labia minora. This opening is covered by a thin membrane with one or more openings in it for the menstrual flow, and is called “Hymen.” Among the clitoris above and vaginal opening below, there is a small opening, small enough to allow the tip of a ball pen. This is the opening of the “Urethra” through which urine is thrown out.

### **Bartholin’s Glands (Greater Vestibular Glands)**

There are two small opening of the Bartholin’s (greater vestibular) glands, one on either side of the vaginal entrance. These glands are situated under the major lips and produce a sticky and colourless secretion on sexual stimulation, that acts as a lubricant.

### **Vagina**

Vagina is a three inches long hollow muscular tube in the female. The outer vaginal breach is situated at the lower end of the midline vertical cleft of the vulva, about two inches in front of the anus. The opening is covered by a thin membrane called “Hymen” having one or more apertures for the menstrual flow. At the inner end of vagina, the cervix of the uterus enters into it. The direction of the vaginal barrel is upwards and backwards, *i.e.*, towards the spine. The entire vaginal barrel is lined by a velvety, soft and multifolded layer of mucus membrane which remains wet like our mouth.

On receiving the sexual stimuli, the vagina produces profuse watery secretion (like saliva in the mouth) which acts as a lubricant during the intercourse. This secretion decreases after the menopause, *i.e.*, around the age of 45 years when the menstrual periods stop.

When the sexual stimuli continue, the inner two-third of the vagina dilates and the outer one-third narrows, turning the vagina into a pitcher like structure. This is nature’s way to hold the pool of semen. If the woman gets orgasm, the outer one-third of the vagina contracts rhythmically. It is only outer third of vagina that is sensitive to touch. The inner two-third is insensitive. Sensuous stimuli are appreciated by the clitoris and not by the vagina.

*Vagina serves as a passage for the following three functions:*

- At the intercourse, for the passage of semen inside.
- At the menstruation, for the passage of menstrual flow outside.
- At the delivery, for the passage of the baby outside.

The vagina is highly stretchable. It can accommodate a penis of any length and any cinch. Not only the penis but also the head of the child which has a circumference of 35 cms. Normally, the two walls of vagina remain collapsed over one another, like a deflated balloon. Boys have a misconception that the vagina is a pleasure-organ for the girls. It is not.

Girls at puberty or later complain of white discharge from the vagina. Normal vagina is always moist. The vaginal discharge normally increases just prior to the menstruation, during the ovulation (*i.e.*, 14th day after the commencement of the period) and on receiving sensuous stimuli, *e.g.*, petting, seeing a romantic scene or reading a romantic novel. This is absolutely normal. However, the vaginal discharge also increases during the infection by Monilia or by Trichomonas. The monilial infection causes severe itching and milky white discharge. Trichomonal infection also causes itching, pain and greenish yellow foul-smelling discharge. In such a case the girl should contact the doctor and get treated.

A slight white or brown spotting on the underwear should not cause anxiety; but profuse, foul-smelling, yellowish green coloured discharge associated with pain or itching needs medical attention. Vaginal infection comes through the intestines or through the intercourse. If the male partner has a STD (sexually transmitted disease), or HIV/AIDS the female partner gets it and vice versa. To avoid the infection from the intestines, the girls have to take little care while washing and taking bath. They should wash the front side first, *i.e.*, Mons, labia, clitoris, urinary and vaginal openings and then wash the rear, *i.e.*, anus and buttocks. This will prevent the intestinal infection from entering into the urinary or the vaginal passage.

### **Fallopian (Uterine) Tubes**

The Fallopian tubes are the two long hollow tubes, one on either side of the broad upper side of the uterus. Each is the four inches in length. Its one end is attached to the uterus and the other end is free over the ovary of the same side. Free end of the Fallopian tube has finger like projections called “Fimbria” to attract the ovum. Fallopian tube has three important functions: reception, fertilization and transportation of ovum. It receives the ovum from the ovary, the ovum meets the sperm and gets fertilized here (a real birth place) and the fertilized ovum gets pushed forward into the uterus.

### **Uterus**

Uterus is a three inch long and a empty muscular organ, looking like an inverted pear, over the inner end of the vagina. The lower narrow end protrudes in vagina and is called “Cervix” (neck). The opening of the uterus is called “Os” (mouth) of



the cervix. The inner lining of the uterus is called “Endometrium.” This lining grows, disintegrates and is thrown out through the vagina in the form of “menstrual flow.” This happens every month during the fertility age (13 to 45 years) except when the woman is pregnant. The embryo grows here in the uterus for 263 days before entering into this world.

### **Ovaries**

The ovaries are two oval sex-glands located one on either side of the uterus. The ovary is of the size of an almond and contain 5 to 10 lacs of “Graffian Follicles.” During the fertile life span of a woman, only 400 to 500 follicles mature and the rest of them degenerate. Every month one Graffian follicle matures and expels out one ovum (the female gamete). This process is called “ovulation.” The ovaries produce two hormones in the Graffian follicles, called estrogen and progesterone. These hormones are responsible for the puberty changes in the girls, their menstrual cycle, pregnancy and delivery.

### **Pubic Hair**

Hair begins to grow approximately the sex organs at the age of about 11 years. This is one of the first signs of puberty. Girls develop hair earlier than boys. Some have scanty while some have plenty of pubic hair. The distribution of hair differs in the males and in the females. The males develop hair on the scrotal sac, around the root of the penis and upwards upto the umbilicus (navel) in the midline. The females develop hair on the libia majora and on the mons pubis only. The pubic hair should be washed well and kept clean. In a humid and warm country like ours, excessive perspiration may lead to itching due to fungus infection. Trimming the hair periodically is desired. Some are of the opinion that the hair stimulates the female sex-organs during the intercourse and hence should be preserved. The choice is theirs.

## **SEX EDUCATION TO ADOLESCENTS**

Sex education is defined as an educational programme aimed at promoting the individual's fulfillment, both in personal living and in his family and social relationships, by integrating sexuality in total personality. Sex education is a lifelong process of acquiring information and forming attitudes, beliefs and values about identity, relationship and intimacy. World Health Organization (WHO) and International Planned Parenthood Federation (IPPF) have stressed the need of sex education. National Council of Education Research and Training (NCERT) has accepted it in principle WHO Findings

- Sexuality education programme does not hasten the onset of intercourse. It can delay the onset of intercourse.
- There is no evidence that the sexuality education leads to earlier or increased sexual experience.
- Sexuality education increases the adoption of safer practices by sexually experienced youth.

## **SEX EDUCATION: WHY**

To acquire information, beliefs and values about identity, relationships, intimacy and reproductive biology. To understand the positive view of sexuality. To provide information and skills about taking care of and to promote their sexual health. To help them make decisions now and in future. To prepare for marriage and responsible parenthood. To learn to enjoy and control their sexual behaviour and to promote responsible reproductive behaviour. For freedom from shame, guilt and false beliefs about sexuality.

For freedom from sexual dysfunctions and organic disorders. To create awareness about sexual abuse, teenage pregnancy, STD-HIV infection, population explosion and quackery. To create awareness about sexual-social issues like gender discrimination, child marriage, dowry, prostitution and Deodasees. The primary goal of sex education is promotion of sexual and reproductive health. There is a pressing need to raise the levels of information of the young people who are embarking on sexually active life. From experience and research it is clear that sex education has the potential to improve the sexual health of an individual, and so of community and of the nation. Sex education is like immunization. It can help to prevent physical, psychological, marital and social problems related to sexuality.

The word “Sex/Sexuality” is still a taboo in many cultures. Therefore it may be camouflaged by calling as: “Adolescent Health Education” “Family Life Education” “Population Education” Though each differs in some respects, it does include sex education. Sex Education to Children under Ten Years Sex education to adolescents can best be a continuation of sex education to children; and hence is discussed here briefly.

### **Tips For Parents/Teachers**

Sex education begins at birth. Each new born baby needs to be wanted, loved and accepted. Building feelings of self worth is an important part of sex education. Parents should love, kiss, touch and hold the baby close to them. Answer questions when they come up. If you don't know the answer admit it and find it out. The answer should be with honest, simple and brief explanation. If children do not come out with questions, ask them if there is anything they would like to know. The child should be given information in a scientific and objective manner, without making the child feel embarrassed. Use standard terminology in regional language.

### **Sex Education—Father or Mother**

The parent to whom the question is directed should answer it. Though there is wisdom in mother-to-daughter and father-to-son approaching, sometimes atleast both parents should discuss sex matter with the child. During schooling, the teacher should pick it up. In fact, sex education is a joint responsibility of home school, college and community institutions.

If child is found touching or rubbing its genitals it indicates resentment, anxiety or guilt. Ignore, distract or substitute with a toy, game or with a sweet. Instruct the child (without scolding) not to do it in public. Never say, “Do not ask such stupid question” “Don’t play with yourself” “You dirty boy” “Shut Up” Parents should tell their children the correct name of the genital organ, as Penis, testis, vulva, vagina, anus as and when concerned; otherwise children will learn slang words from their friends.

*To avoid sexual abuse of children, the parents - should give the following instructions to their children:*

- Do not allow any one to touch your private parts
- Do not touch other’s private parts if asked to
- Do not keep it secret, if any such thing happen
- Do not accept sweets or gifts from unknown person
- Do not accompany unknown person if asked to.

Assure youngsters later especially when they go through puberty- that they are normal. Built up children’s self esteem. Recognise their talents and accomplishments and avoid comparing them with others. If the child is caught while indulging in masturbation, the parents should realise that masturbation is a natural stage in development of a child.

### **life Long Process of Acquiring Information**

Sexuality education is a life long process of acquiring information, forming attitudes beliefs and values. Sex education should begin whenever the child asks the question, regardless of age of the child. If the children are old enough to ask questions, they are old enough to get the answers. Some children ask questions about sex by the age of three years. Others may ask earlier or later. Whenever the child asks the first question about sex, it is the time for the parents to answer.

The parents answers and the way they voice them, play an important part in forming children’s future attitude and basic opinions about sex. Frank and honest response can help assure them of a healthy outlook. Their curiosity about sexual matters is without sensuality and as simple as that about plants and animals. Would it be dangerous to speak to him prematurely? Better a year too soon than a minute too late.

What if the child does not ask? Then find out the occasion: pregnancy in the family, arrival of a sibling a movie, or a story. When to seek outside counselling help? When you are very concerned about a behaviour or a problem, don’t hesitate to take help. Often help is directed towards the parents or the whole family rather than towards the child. When help is sought early, the problem may be solved easily. Child guidance Clinics, Psychologist, Psychiatrists, Counsellors, sex therapists and family service agencies offer help.

*The need for sex education at the age of 3 to 10 years:*

- That they have come from both their father and mother.
- Elementary information of fertilization, pregnancy and delivery.

- The object of this teaching is to strengthen their sense of belonging to their parents, and thus also their sense of security.
- This will enable children to set off any false idea that they may have acquired from their peers or from mass media.

All that is required is to give factual knowledge of sexual matters by asking questions put by the child over the years.

### **Age 3 to 7 years**

*Child has ability to identify with the parent of the same sex:*

- There is a steady liberation from a strong dependence on parents.
- There is considerable interest in sexual sphere.
- There is a need to mix with children of the same age and observe intersex differences in physical structure. The sex roles are also increasingly stabilised.
- An awareness of acting (or not acting) according to the demands and expectations of the immediate environment is developed.
- Playing with genitals is a normal phenomenon.

### **Age 7 to 10 years**

1. The information on sexuality given at this level should be elementary. Children at this age are intellectually incapable of acquiring a coherent picture as regards to anatomy and physiology of sex organs. However, all questions put by children should be answered.
2. Children receive false information from their school friends and through media that needs correction and creates insecurity and anxiety.
3. Teaching should be in the form of discussion and should utilise childrens' own questions and relate to current events.

The idea that a background for sex education can suitably be prepared by discussing reproduction in plants and animals (Birds and Bees) has persisted in general consciousness.

Such an approach is rejected on the grounds that children at that age do not possess a knowledge of plant and animal reproduction sufficiently extensive to provide a basis and starting point for teaching reproduction in man. Instead, teaching should start directly with a discription of how children are born, thus relating directly to the child's own life situation.

*Menstruation:* Information may be given that the female genitalia function in such a way that bleeding occurs once a month from the uterus into the vagina. Nothing abnormal need be feared if it takes place between 10 to 16 years. The most usual age is 13 years.

*Intercourse:* Children put logical question of how the sperm cells of man get over to the egg cell of woman. It becomes terrible and awful for many parents/ teachers to tell the child the fact of life. Child himself will listen without any sensuous feeling that the father puts his penis in the slit between two legs of mother and thus sperm cells from him get into the mother.

This information should be supplemented with an explanation that this is called “intercourse” and is something which has to do with love, tenderness, closeness and togetherness marriage and also arrival of a baby. Otherwise seeing the dogs copulating on the street, the boys may feel that the act of intercourse goes on for hours. After hearing from their friends or after seeing a rape scene on the T.V. the girls may say that intercourse is something strange and awful and that they would not like to participate when they grow. Such reaction cannot be avoided by not mentioning anything about intercourse in sex education. They will have to acquire knowledge in any case. It is desirable that the reaction should emerge when the child is in contact with the parents/teacher.

The girl should know that it is a natural process, that the whole thing will feel different when she grows up, that it is not painful and that in any case she need to experience it before getting married. (Those girls who receive the message that intercourse is painful may suffer from a condition called “Vaginismus”, an involuntary spasm of the vaginal muscle at the intercourse that may lead to unconsummation and marital disharmony.)

*Pregnancy:* The reasons for dealing with it are that it is an account of child’s “past history” and that girls are worried that it will be extremely painful when they bear children themselves. Boys and girls find information of pregnancy useful when further child is expected in the family.

*Delivery:* The question that whether it hurts to have a baby should be answered in the affirmative. It should be mentioned that it is different for different people. Coloured pictures will help to understand the elementary knowledge about the subject. However, photographs showing blood and other details can frighten the children and hence should not be shown.

*Sexual Behaviour of children from Birth to ten years:*

- *Birth to Two years:* Infants learn about sexuality through being held and caressed and as they begin to explore their own body. By the age of one year most babies enjoy touching their genitals. Normal curiosity makes babies start to explore their own bodies. During the process of toilet training, childer become more aware of their genital agea. All babies explore their sex organs and some like to fondle them often.
- *Three to four years:* Children begin asking questions about, “where babies come from” Three years old is too young to understand anatomical differencess in males and females. At the age of 4, boys have increased genital sesations. They grasp their genitals when upset. By the age of 4, they begin playing” Mummy and Daddy” or “Doctor” and examine one another’s genitals. This behaviour is a natural part of developing sexual indentification. They are capable of all the sensual feelings. They just don’t see it as “sexual”. Children may like to watch adults getting undressed. They learn about public and private behaviour and about respecting privacy of others.
- *Five to Six years:* They want to become close to the same sex parent. They become sure of their masculinity or femininity. This is the time to

bring sexual topic and encourage openness about sexuality. By five years most children become modest and want to have privacy for dressing and bathroom use. Their interest in sex play is less than at the age of four. Children become sensitive to difference between two sexes. They develop strong same-sex friendship and increased interest in male/female roles. Children become conscious that certain kinds of questions make adults uncomfortable. But just because they don't ask questions does not mean that they don't have questions. They are aware of AIDS, rape, child abuse, family planning, *etc.* So, parents need to keep on talking. News paper headline can be used as a conversation opener.

- *Six to eight years:* Children learn new words referring to sexuality. Some of them are slang. Such words may be used as an attention seeking device. Self esteem and decision making are enhanced through the responsibilities the child has at home *e.g.*, making his bed, helping in daily chores he likes. The child learns to direct his activities in constructive ways.

Sexual fantasies involving a male/female relative are quite common at this age. Parents need to convey to children that feelings, thoughts and fantasies should be accepted non judgementally and that they are not synonymous with carrying out fantasy. Children playing with one's own genitals, is common act at this age. If they do this openly, they should be reassured that it is not wrong but that it is one of the things that people do in private.

- *Nine to Ten Years:* Rapid growth spurts are common. Some develop early others late. Some rapidly, others slowly. The nipples may start budding. In some boys and girls hair may start growing in pubic region. Private fondling of genitals occurs. It is a normal activity and is a natural release for sexual tension. Questions about intercourse may arise. Honest answers are best because children hear many stories from the friends. Adult emotions involved in sexual intercourse are beyond the capacity of the preteen to understand. Physical changes are a major concern to them. They will often examine the genitals of friends of opposite sex or of the same sex. This is the way they compare and confirm their own physical development as being acceptable.



# 7

## **The Ideal Physical Education Programme Places Human Relations**

### **THE OBJECTIVES OF HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS**

Human relationships may be defined as the relationship that exists between individuals. Good human relations may be summed up in the Golden Rule: “Do unto others as you would have others do unto you”. Good human relations imply that people live together, work together and play together harmoniously. Each individual appreciates the other person’s viewpoint and attempts to understand his actions. Good human relations are found in families where brother and sister, mother and father, father and son, and mother and daughter live cooperatively and happily together. They are found among friends who are willing to help each other in time of need, among classmates who share responsibilities, among neighbours who thrill to the accomplishments of others, and among workers who help solve each other’s problems. Poor human relations also exist. These occur when a business competitor seeks an unfair advantage, when a football player drives a cleated shoe into an opponent’s face, when a boy shows disrespect for his parents, and when a fellow worker condemns a colleague.

The question of human relations is one of the most pressing problems of this day and age. Good human relations is the key to a happy and successful life and a peaceful world. Therefore, it is important that education play its role to the fullest extent in accomplishing the objectives of human relationships.

Physical education can make a worth-while contribution in this area of human relations. This can be done through the following means: (i) placing human relations first; (ii) enabling each individual to enjoy a rich, social experience through play; (iii) helping individuals play cooperatively with others; (vi) teaching courtesy, fair play, and good sportsmanship; and (v) contributing to home and family living.

The human being is the most valuable and the most important consideration of anything in this life. Nothing is more important than human life. One human life is worth more than a handful of diamonds or any other abundance of material possessions that could be accumulated. It rates at the top of all the values in the world. Such being the case, then human welfare should receive careful consideration in all walks of life. When a new law is passed by Congress, there should be due consideration for its effect on human welfare; when a machine is invented, we should take into consideration if it will affect human beings beneficially or adversely; and when an accusation is made, the effect on human welfare should be considered. The more human welfare is considered the happier the living for all.

The ideal physical education programme places human welfare first on its list. When an activity is planned, it takes into considered the needs and welfare of the participants; when a rule or regulation is made, the player's welfare is considered; when a student is reprimanded, his welfare and that of others are considered. The desire or convenience of the teacher is not the first consideration. The physical education programme takes into consideration the weak and the less skilled and makes sure adequate arrangements have been made for such individuals. It is a student-centred programme with the attention focused on the individuals for whom the programme exists. Throughout the entire procedure there is prevalent among students, teachers, and administrators the thought that the human aspects are the most important consideration. Through the media of precept and example, consideration of others is the keynote of the programme. When the student plays, he considers the welfare of others; and when the teacher plans, he considers the welfare of all. By placing human relations first, a spirit of good will, fellowship and joyous cooperation exists.

Play experiences offer an opportunity for a rich social experience. This experience can help greatly in rounding out a child's personality, in helping him to adapt to the group situation, in developing proper standards of conduct, in creating a feeling of "belonging", and in developing a sound code of ethics.

Children need the social experience that can be gained through association with other children in a play atmosphere. Many live in cities, in slum areas, and in communities where delinquency runs rampant, where their parents do not know the next door neighbour, and where the environment is not conducive to a rich social experience. In such neighbourhoods the school is one place where children have an opportunity to mingle and physical education offers a place where they have opportunity to play together. The potentialities are limitless in planning social experiences through "tag" and "it" games, rhythms, games of

low organization, and the more highly organized games. Here the child learns behaviour traits, which are characteristic of a democratic society. Because of his drive for play, he will be more willing to abide by the rules, accept responsibility, contribute to the welfare of the group and respect the rights of others.

The physical education programme should stress cooperation as the basis for achieving the goals an individual or group desires. Each member of the group must work as though he were a part of a machine. The machine must run smoothly, and this is possible only if every part does its share of the work. Pulling together and working together bring results that never are obtained if everyone goes his separate way. Former President Truman, in a speech delivered at Madison, Wisconsin, stressed the effectiveness of cooperation in our day-to-day living, citing such examples as farm cooperatives, cooperative stores and the bringing of electricity to rural areas through cooperative means. He then went on to stress that world peace is possible only through cooperation among the nations of the world and that the problems confronting the nations of the world today will be solved only through working together.

A physical education programme that would teach individuals to play cooperatively should stress leadership and followership traits. The success of any venture depends on good leadership and good workers or followers. Everyone cannot be a captain on a basketball, relay, or soccer team. Everyone does not have leadership ability. Those who are good leaders should also be good followers. A leader in one activity might possibly make a better follower in another activity. These are a few of the points that should be brought out. The important thing to stress is that both leaders and followers are needed for the accomplishment of any enterprise. All contribute to the undertaking.

All deserve commendation for work well done. All should reap the rewards. The question might be raised as to the advisability of the practice that is sometimes followed of using the class cut-up, the bully, the "Mickey McGuire", as the captain of the team. This is one procedure that is sometimes utilized for eliminating a discipline problem. Leadership, it seems, should be earned as a result of eliminating a discipline problem. Leadership, it seems, should be earned as a result of contributing to a group, of earning the respect of a group, and of proving oneself a good follower. To place the "Mickey McGuire", in such a coveted position seems to encourage rather than discourage antisocial behaviour.

A physical education programme that would teach individuals to play cooperatively should stress cooperation as the first consideration, rather than competition. Competition is good, but it seems that cooperation is the first concern of education. Students in our schools compete for grades, to make the honour roll, to receive a bid to certain societies, to be a member of the squad, and to be an officer of their class. This may be good if conducted according to proper procedures; but in many of our schools it breeds discontent, cheating, and cliques and results in nervous breakdowns and personality maladjustments. The person who takes home the honours, accumulates the prizes, and grabs the

headlines is too often the hero in the eyes of the public, whereas the diligent, hard-working, quiet individual who cooperates to his utmost for the success of a group enterprise receives nothing for his efforts. The success of the democratic way of life depends on cooperation among members of society and not on the exploits of a few who seek honour, prestige and glory. The “all for one and one for all” motto will accomplish much more than the “all for me” motto. In adult life people follow many of the objectives that were formulated in their youth. If competition rather than cooperation receives the main consideration in school, it will aggravate the competitive “survival of the fittest” existence that is so characteristic of modern-day living. Cooperation is the secret of successful living.

The amenities of social behaviour are a part of the repertoire of every educated person. They have developed as part of our culture just as the playing of baseball, eating “hot dogs”, and democratic living have. Some individuals in our societies are referred to as “ladies” and “gentlemen”, whereas others are called “hussies” and “rowdies”. Many times such courtesies as saying “please” or “thank you”, tipping one’s hat, offering a lady your arm, and acting in a polite, quiet manner have made the difference in these labels attached to certain individuals.

Courtesy and politeness are characteristic of good family training just as fair play and sportsmanship are characteristic of good training in physical education activities. On the one hand, it reflects the character of the parent or guardian and, on the other, the teacher or coach. When a player kicks his opponent in the groin, trips him up, or does not play according to the rules, he reflects the spirit of his leader. Some coaches and teachers will use any means to win a game or achieve a goal. Others feel that winning is not the prime objective. Instead, their main objective is to provide an experience, which will help the members of a group realize values that will help them live an enriched life.

Courtesy, fair play and sportsmanship contribute to good human relations. The player who is a gentleman on the field is usually a gentleman off the field as well. Such an individual makes friends easily, builds good will, and inspires trust among those with whom he comes in contact. Others know that he believes in playing according to the rules, that he will not take unfair advantage, that he assumes responsibility, and that he is considerate of others. These characteristics should be developed in every child who visits a physical education class or tries out for any athletic team.

Physical education has a contribution to make to family and home living. The make-up of a child depends to a great extent on the type of family and home environment he lives in. Many times such an environment determines whether an individual is kind or mean, quiet or boisterous, or polite or rude. In view of the imprint of the home and family upon the child, the school has the educational responsibility to improve and nurture the child, to interpret society to him in its correct light, and to strengthen family ties. Physical education can assume part of this responsibility. The coach and the physical education teacher are many times individuals in whom a child puts his trust and confidence and whom he desires to emulate. The nature of physical education work and its

appeal to youth probably are the causal factors of such practice. Consequently, physical education personnel should utilize their advantageous position to become better acquainted with the youth and his home and family life. Many times divorce and separation have affected children's lives. A change from rural to urban life with the difficulties of adjustment might be an experience through which a child is passing. There may be a lack of "belonging" or a protected existence, which causes anxiety and worry. By having knowledge of the whole problem, the teacher or coach will be able to help in the adjustment process and in making for better home and family living. This could be done through proper counselling and guidance, helping youth to experience success in play activities, talks with parents and home visitations.

The increased complications of family living, because of such factors as the prevalence of divorce, the desire for careers on the part of women, the turmoil of urban existence, and juvenile delinquency, place more responsibility upon education to help children make proper life adjustments. Physical educators, because of their programme in which children have a natural desire to engage and because children look to them for guidance and help, can contribute considerably in these adjustments.

## **SCHOOL PHYSICIAN**

The second chief function of the school physician is the annual assessment of the physical development and physical condition of school children. Children present number of growth disturbances, developmental abnormalities, and remediable defects that should be detected and corrected. The relationship of physical defects to school attendance has been noted many times in the literature. Experience shows that school attendance is more irregular among those children suffering from defects. In addition to the routine examination of all pupils, the school physician must examine boys and girls trying out for places on school athletic teams. The physician's decision in these cases should be accepted as final.

Children seeking working certificates are required by law to pass a medical examination before the papers are issued. This examination is the duty of the school physician. The physician should know the hazards of different occupations and be prepared to advise and decide accordingly.

A third function of the school medical advisor is to plan a procedure for follow-up and treatment of cases of defect. The purpose of the examination is not the history of defects but the correction of remediable conditions. A policy regarding treatment of pupils should be established and plans evolved for handling indigent cases. As a general rule the school does not give treatments. This policy is perhaps justified since the school is not equipped for therapeutic services rather than because social effort of this kind is undesirable. As a matter of fact this policy is frequently violated. School physicians treat whole classes for ringworm, pediculosis, impetigo, and scabies<sup>1</sup> and are justified in doing so by the extreme contagiousness of these skin infections. Nevertheless, until a

policy of socialized medical care is evolved that will win the support of public opinion, it is best for schools to refrain from treatments as routine procedure and to seek the enlargement of clinical services that will care for those children unable to secure private medical attention.

It is obvious that more than notification is required. Hence, there has developed the practice of following up these cases by the school nurse in home visitation. Success with this procedure is variable. Some communities yields as many corrections without home visitation as others do with it. The practice, however, has other justifications. Health and economic conditions are related. The nurse serves as an excellent contact for clinics and hospitals and is quite indispensable for those families that must rely upon charitable agencies. Close cooperation of the school physician's staff with social agencies is vital in this connection.

## **THE MOTIVATIONAL DYNAMICS OF SPORT**

Motivation is an internal energy force that determines all aspects of our behaviour; it also impacts on how we think, feel and interact with others. In sport, high motivation is widely accepted as an essential prerequisite in getting athletes to fulfil their potential. However, given its inherently abstract nature, it is a force that is often difficult to exploit fully. Some coaches, like Portugal manager Luiz Felipe 'Big Phil' Scolari, appear to have a 'magic touch', being able to get a great deal more out of a team than the sum of its individual parts; others find motivation to be an elusive concept they are forever struggling to master. What is it that makes individuals like the 45-year-old sprinter Merlene Ottey, who competed in her seventh Olympics in Athens 2004, churn out outstanding performances year in, year out? Elite athletes such as Ottey have developed an ability to channel their energies extremely effectively. Indeed, motivation is essentially about the direction of effort over a prolonged period of time.

There are numerous approaches to the study of motivation. Some are based on schedules of positive and negative reinforcement while others focus on an individual's sense of mastery over a set of circumstances. Some of the key findings from recent literature and provide four evidence-based techniques relating to the enhancement of motivation. You will be able to tailor the motivational techniques to enhance your participation in sport or the performance of others. You will learn that motivation is a dynamic and multifaceted phenomenon that can be manipulated, to some degree at least, in the pursuit of superior sporting performance.

## **DIFFERENT TYPES OF MOTIVATION**

One of the most popular and widely tested approaches to motivation in sport and other achievement domains is self-determination theory. This theory is based on a number of motives or regulations, which vary in terms of the degree of self-determination they reflect. Self-determination has to do with the degree to



which your behaviours are chosen and self-initiated. The behavioural regulations can be placed on a self-determination continuum. From the least to the most self-determined they are amotivation, external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, integrated regulation and intrinsic motivation.

Amotivation represents a lack of intention to engage in a behaviour. It is accompanied by feelings of incompetence and a lack of connection between one's behaviour and the expected outcome. For example, an amotivated athlete might be heard saying, 'I can't see the point in training any more – it just tires me out' or 'I just don't get any buzz out of competition whatsoever'.

Such athletes exhibit a sense of helplessness and often require counselling, as they are highly prone to dropping out. External and introjected regulations represent non-self-determined or controlling types of extrinsic motivation because athletes do not sense that their behaviour is choiceful and, as a consequence, they experience psychological pressure. Participating in sport to receive prize money, win a trophy or a gold medal typifies external regulation. Participating to avoid punishment or negative evaluation is also external. Introjection is an internal pressure under which athletes might participate out of feelings of guilt or to achieve recognition.

Identified and integrated regulations represent self-determined types of extrinsic motivation because behaviour is initiated out of choice, although it is not necessarily perceived to be enjoyable. These types of regulation account for why some athletes devote hundreds of hours to repeating mundane drills; they realise that such activity will ultimately help them to improve. Identified regulation represents engagement in a behaviour because it is highly valued, whereas when a behaviour becomes integrated it is in harmony with one's sense of self and almost entirely self-determined.

Completing daily flexibility exercises because you realise they are part of an overarching goal of enhanced performance might be an example of integrated regulation. Intrinsic motivation comes from within, is fully self-determined and characterised by interest in, and enjoyment derived from, sports participation.

There are three types of intrinsic motivation, namely intrinsic motivation to know, intrinsic motivation to accomplish and intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation. Intrinsic motivation is considered to be the healthiest type of motivation and reflects an athlete's motivation to perform an activity simply for the reward inherent in their participation.

### **Flow: The Ultimate Motivational State**

Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi, the highest level of intrinsic motivation is flow state. Flow is characterised by complete immersion in an activity, to the degree that nothing else matters. Central to the attainment of flow is a situation in which there is a perfect match between the perceived demands of an activity and an athlete's perceived ability or skills. During flow, self-consciousness is lost and athletes become one with the activity. For example, a World champion canoeist I work with often describes how the paddle feels like an extension of

her arms while she is in flow. An overbearing or unrealistic challenge can cause excess anxiety, which means that coaches need to ensure that athletes set realistic goals. Conversely, if athletes bring a high level of skill to an activity and the challenge that it provides is relatively low, such as Barcelona and Brazil's Ronaldinho playing in a minor football league, this can result in boredom. To promote flow, it is important to find challenges that are going to stretch athletes just a touch further than they have been stretched before.

### **Recent Motivation Research based on SDT**

A study examining the relationship between athletes' goal orientations and their levels of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation indicated that British collegiate athletes with task-related or personal mastery goals were far more likely to report high self-determination than athletes with ego-orientated or social comparison-type goals. The study provided tentative support for the proposition that focusing on personal mastery and self-referenced goals promotes intrinsic motivation to a greater degree than focusing on winning and demonstrating superiority over others.

This has important implications for practitioners who work with children, given the wealth of evidence that suggests that a focus on personal mastery and intrinsic motivation brings the most positive motivation outcomes. A very recent study showed that during competition deemed to be important, intrinsically motivated athletes developed task-oriented coping strategies. Conversely, extrinsically motivated athletes tended to avoid dealing with key issues and were far less likely to achieve their goals. In another study, researchers adopted a qualitative approach to answer the question 'why does the "fire" of elite athletes burn so brightly?'. They sought to demystify the differences between high achievers and also-rans in the world of sport.

*Their interviews with 10 elite Australian track and field athletes revealed three overarching themes:*

1. Elite athletes set personal goals that were based on both self-determined and extrinsic motives;
2. They had a high self-belief in their ability to succeed;
3. Track and field was central to their lives – everything rotated around their involvement in the sport.

Using a statistical procedure known as 'cluster analysis', colleagues and I have identified two types of 'motivation profile'. The first was characterised by high levels of both controlling and self-determined types of behavioural regulations and the second by high self-determined and low controlling motivation. A comparison of the two profiles on the motivation outcomes of enjoyment, effort, positive and negative affect, attitude towards sport, strength and the quality of behavioural intentions, satisfaction, and frequency of attendance showed that participants in the first profile reported higher levels on all eight positive consequences when compared to those in the second profile. This finding suggests that the simultaneous presence of high extrinsic and high

intrinsic motivation is likely to yield the most positive benefits for adult athletes. However, it is critical that extrinsic motives are nurtured on a firm foundation of high intrinsic motivation. Without high intrinsic motivation, athletes are likely to drop out when they encounter problems such as injury, non-selection or demotion. We conducted a follow-up study confirming the profiles identified in 2000 and came up with a similar solution using a new sample of adult athletes. Importantly, we found that participants in cluster 1 also reported better concentration on the task at hand.

## **PHYSICAL EDUCATION, SPORT AND PRO-SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR**

Historically, claims have also been made about Physical Education and sport in relation to positive social development and particularly, pro-social behaviour outcomes. In relation to social outcomes arising from Physical Education and sport, and specifically, positive social development, Bailey was clear that the research evidence is 'equivocal'. A positive association between participation and pro-social behaviour is by no means assured and furthermore, 'there is evidence that in some circumstances behaviour actually worsens'. Bailey also reported, however, that 'numerous studies have demonstrated that appropriately structured and presented activities can make a contribution to the development of prosocial behaviour, and can even combat antisocial and criminal behaviours in youth', adding that 'the most encouraging findings come from school based studies, especially those focusing on PES curriculum programmes'.

Once again, targeted intervention studies directed towards the achievement of specific social behaviour outcomes, have proved successful: Intervention studies have produced generally positive results, including improvements in moral reasoning, fair play and sports person ship, and personal responsibility.

It also seems that the most promising contexts for developing social skills and values are those mediated by suitably trained teachers and coaches who focus on situations that arise naturally through activities, by asking questions of students and by modeling appropriate responses through their own behaviour. Bailey similarly identified mixed research evidence in relation to the extent to which Physical Education and sport can be regarded as aiding social inclusion. He reported that some writers contend that Physical Education and sport 'not only reflects but can also contribute to some groups' social exclusion', but also acknowledged that '...positive experiences do seem to have the potential to, at least, contribute to the process of inclusion by bringing individuals from a variety of social and economic background together in a shared interest, offering a sense of belonging to a team or a club, providing opportunities for the development of valued capabilities and competencies, and developing social networks, community cohesion, and civic pride.

Undoubtedly, some of the most significant research and curriculum development work to be undertaken in relation to these issues is that associated with Sport Education and derivatives of it.

Since Siedentop's original work in 1994, a comprehensive international body of research, with many contributions from Australia, has demonstrated that Sport Education can provide a curriculum and pedagogical model via which self-management and inter-personal skills, personal and social responsibility can be very effectively addressed—while at the same time, also linkages are made to learning in other areas of the curriculum.

At the heart of Sport Education is a focus on positive learning and participation experiences and inclusivity. With this emphasis, it has proved a means via which to effectively enhance students' sense of belonging, personal and social responsibility, and perceived competency. Notably, these positive outcomes are reported in relation to students who would otherwise be disengaged and/or excluded from physical education, sport or schooling.

The relationship between Physical Education and Sport and students' attitudes towards schooling, academic development and/or academic achievements are all matters of growing interest.

### **PHYSICAL EDUCATION, SPORT AND ATTITUDES TOWARDS SCHOOLING**

In relation to attitudes towards schooling, Bailey identified that evidence of Physical Education and sport having any positive influence is limited and has arisen from small-scale studies and/or is based on anecdotal evidence. Bailey also reported, however, that in some studies improvements in attendance have been shown to follow the introduction of Physical Education and sport initiatives, and 'there is evidence from studies of pupils at risk of exclusion from school that an increase in the availability of PES programmes would make the school experience more attractive'. The Physical Education and School Sport project in England, developed by the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority in partnership with primary, secondary, special schools and community sport providers has pursued affective outcomes of PESS. The QCA report that case studies of schools and partnerships have shown that as a result of investing in PESS, 'schools are happier, healthier and more successful: pupils have greater confidence and self-esteem'.

The QCA identified that the greatest strengths identified in students experiencing quality physical education and school sport were: 'commitment, skillfulness, willingness to get involved and enjoyment'. The QCA also reported that development of PESS has been successfully linked to efforts to specifically increase attendance at school and to targeting behavioural issues. Further, all of the schools involved in the PESS investigation are reported to have seen improvements in pupils' confidence, self-esteem, desire to learn, concentration and time on task as a result of investing in PESS.

Afternoon lessons are identified as more productive after an active lunchtime, with less disruption and students ready to learn. The significance of the PESS findings is their relevance to whole schools and all teachers—not only those in Physical Education! There remains, however, a need for caution in relation to

claims about psycho-social and attitudinal outcomes arising from Physical Education and sport experiences. It is essential to acknowledge the individuality of experiences and thus, their effect. As Bailey has highlighted, it would be misleading to suggest any assured impact of Physical Education in terms of attitudes towards school and/or learning on the part of all children, simply because provision, and particularly inappropriate provision, can have precisely the opposite outcomes to those intended, including disengagement and/or disillusionment.

## **THE CHALLENGE OF LEADERSHIP**

Physical education desperately needs qualified leadership. This is the key to the realization of many of the potentialities of physical education. Students going into this work as a career should realize that, in order to be an asset to the profession, they should be enthusiastic and interested in their work; possess the competencies, knowledges, and attitudes necessary to do a good job; and accept the challenges and responsibilities that go with their positions. This type of leadership does not exist in sufficient amount at the present time. Standards must be established which allow only qualified individuals to become members of the profession. This challenge must be met if physical education is to be a respected profession and one in which the public has faith and can place its trust.

## **THE CHALLENGE OF RE-EVALUATING THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM**

The educational system, to a great degree, has failed to accomplish many of the objectives which it has established, namely, health, ethical character, worthy use of leisure, worthy home membership, and citizenship. The increased number of cases of mental illness in this country, the evidence supplied on the extent of crime and immorality in the United States, the quest for material rather than spiritual values, public indifference to public administration, increased divorce rates, and juvenile delinquency are problems which show that the whole educational structure of this country needs reevaluating.

The belief that a knowledge of facts will result in successful living seems to have been the premise upon which the present educational structure rests, and this has proved to be a fallacy. Education should result in changed behaviour and in social, physical, mental, and emotional betterment. The re-evidence, however, does not point to such an accomplishment. Therefore, the re-evaluation of the whole educational structure should be made to determine what is the best type of education for successful living.

In such a re-evaluation it seems that consideration should be given to determining what the physical, mental, emotional, and social needs of individuals are and then to including experiences in the curriculum which will meet these needs. Through such a study it might be discovered that many of the present offerings do not contribute to meeting such needs. Perhaps some of those that are being slighted in many of our schools at the present time would be found to

be of much more value than previously determined. Under existing conditions, although health is listed as the first objective, how many schools adequately provide the proper health service, healthful school living, and health instruction for their students? How many schools provide planned instruction in physical activities suited to the sex, grade, ability, and special needs of pupils? How many schools place the same high priority on the physical mental, emotional, and social health of the individual as they do on his ability to acquire facts in mathematics, English, Latin, history, *etc.*?

A thorough re-evaluation should bring to light the important role that physical education can play in the educational process. Students should recognize this challenge and aggressively agitate for re-evaluation of the educational system. In this way they will be helping physical education to realize its potentialities.

### **THE CHALLENGE OF A “SOFT” AMERICA**

Some experts say that America’s high standard of living is making her “soft”. Recent research has suggested that lack of activity is resulting in a weak and physically unfit population. This is a matter of concern to the President of the United States. The resources of physical education must be mobilized to meet the needs created by this “Soft” condition. This country is passing through troubled times when every profession, organization, and individual must contribute to the welfare and strength of the nation. Physical education, by its very nature, has much to contribute.

In order to contribute to the maximum degree of effectiveness, vigorous physical education programmes must be instituted which provide ample opportunities for successful experiences and fun, and which stimulate physical, mental, emotional, and social fitness.

If these goals are to be accomplished, elementary school physical education must be well organized in terms of children’s needs, interests, and abilities. Adequate time, facilities, and leadership must be provided to meet these essentials. On the high school level, all pupils should have a daily period of instruction which allows for a vigorous workout, adequate instruction, showers, and the realization of social, emotional, and mental objectives. In schools and agencies where limitations enter the picture, a continuous effort should be made to overcome these difficulties and accomplish the goals. On the college level activities should be offered which develop sufficient strength, endurance, stamina, and vitality together with mental and emotional fitness to withstand the increased stresses of military and civilian life. In the adult population every effort should be put forth to develop individuals who possess total fitness for their duties during the unstable times through which they are passing.

Participants in physical education programmes should be classified in such a manner that provision can be made for individual differences and capacities. A well-rounded programme should be engaged in by all. Aquatic skill should be emphasized. Athletics for all, through intramural and interscholastic sports, should be an important part of the programme. Provision for the handicapped



should be made. Boards of education should provide funds for the essentials with which to conduct such programmes, nonschool and school resources should be utilized, physical fitness achievement standards should be met, and everything else should be done that will help in establishing a healthier and a more totally fit population.

Physical education should accept this challenges with firm resolve and recognize that this is an opportunity where it can realize many of its potentialities and where it can render a great service to the nation and to the world.

### **THE CHALLENGE PRESENTED BY INTERSCHOOL ATHLETICS**

The interschool athletic programme in some schools, at the present time, is not aiding in the achievement of educational objectives. The stress on winning games at the expense of the welfare of the players, emphasis on gate receipts, antisocial traits displayed in hard-fought contests, transfer of the setting for athletic contests from the school environment to sports arenas, uncertain tenure of coaches, extended periods of training, pressures exerted by alumni, sports writers, and public-spirited citizens, desire to please the spectator, gambling on outcomes of contests, and players' accepting bribes are a few indications which point to the fact that the athletic programme in many ways is detrimental to the cause of physical education.

Athletics, with the appeal they have for youth, should be the heart of the physical education programme. They should be an integral part of the programme and aid in attaining goals which will help to enrich living for all who experience such programmes.

The challenge presented by interschool athletics is one which all physical education personnel should recognize. The challenge can be met and resolved if physical educators aggressively bring to the attention of administrators, school faculties, and the public the true purposes of athletics in a physical education programme.

Such points should be stressed as the need for having an interschool athletic programme which meets the needs of all, rather than one planned for a select few; which is organized and administered with the welfare of the individual in mind; which is conducted in light of educational objectives that are not compromised when exposed to pressures from sports writers, alumni, and townspeople; and which requires leadership trained in physical education work.

The interschool athletic programme can be a dynamic and worth-while experience for all youth if physical educators will accept the challenge and work diligently towards eliminating the evils that have infested many programmes. The professional student of physical education can help considerably in meeting this challenge.

## ON ANALYTICAL PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Before embarking on an account of the nature of physical education, and its knowledge and values claims, it is necessary to first take a short detour and second, offer an apology. First, it is necessary—if we are to have a reflective view of the philosophical terrain in which sense can be made of the concept of physical education—to understand a little of the nature of philosophical thinking. Second, the account here is itself situated within a particular tradition of thought. It is not speak of continental philosophy where there might be rich seams indeed for philosophers of physical education to plough. In particular, the works of phenomenologists and hermeneuticists have tremendous potential to offer understandings of our experiences in the activities that comprise physical education.

The manner in which this 'new' philosophy took a foothold in the UK and the USA—what came to be known as analytical philosophy of education—was nothing short of remarkable. The classic UK texts of the 1960s and 1970s bear testimony to it: Dearden's *Philosophy of Primary Education*, Hirst and Peters' *The Logic of Education* and Peters' *Ethics and Education* are paradigmatic. A cursory glance at their contents pages indicates their subject matter. Each philosopher bore down on their subject matter with microscopic linguistic scrutiny; precisely what was meant by concepts so central to education as 'authority', 'democracy', 'discipline', 'initiation', 'knowledge', 'learning', and so on. No educational concepts escaped their analytical scrutiny. A very similar movement was carrying the day in the USA where philosophers of education centrally saw themselves engaged in the same enterprise—and with surprisingly similar results given the cultural and geographical distance that set them apart.

Despite the time that has elapsed since this highly original work, it is genuinely worthwhile to revisit their positions in order to better understand how to think philosophically about physical education as an educational enterprise. In the UK, Richard Peters developed the most powerful statement about the nature of education. In his inaugural lecture in 1965, he put forward a thesis that was to reach literally across the world through the old British Empire—many of whose educational lecturers were still taught in British universities—that education must be viewed, by all those who seriously investigate its nature, to comprise a certain logical geography. Briefly, his thesis was that education, properly conceived, referred to the initiation of the unlearned into those intrinsically worthwhile forms of knowledge that were constitutive of rational mind. Its shorthand was that education referred essentially to the development of rationality.

Despite the hugely influential educational effects of muscular Christianity, physical education enjoyed little more than a Cinderella existence, even in British education, throughout the twentieth century. And now, it was surely not to be invited to the ball. The hegemony of that great thesis cast physical education well and truly into the educational hinterland. we shall now consider that thesis in a little detail.

The particular picture of education favoured by analytical philosophers of education, then, is that of the British philosopher of education Richard Peters and, to a lesser extent, his close colleague Paul Hirst. we shall refer to their theses collectively as the Petersian conception of education. It is familiar enough to anyone who read any English language philosophy of education from 1965 to 1985. For Peters, the many uses of the word 'education' might be reduced to the central case and the philosophical task was to tease out criteria implicit in that case.

This led Peters to develop his sophisticated account of education as the transmission of what was intrinsically worthwhile in order to open the eyes of initiates to a vaster and more variegated existence. That same worthwhile knowledge was continuous with the various forms of knowledge that Hirst had delineated by his own set of epistemological criteria. The Petersian thesis was summarised thus: \_ 'education' implies the transmission of what is worth-while to those who become committed to it; \_ 'education' must involve knowledge and understanding and some kind of cognitive perspective, which are not inert; and \_ 'education' at least rules out some procedures of transmission, on the grounds that they lack wittingness and voluntariness on the part of the learner.

The first two conditions have been referred to as the axiological and epistemological conditions by two other philosophers, Andrew Reid and David Carr, both of who have sought to conceptualise physical education in similar ways, but who have come to rather different conclusions about its educational potential. The third criterion refers to the processes by which such transmission was ethically acceptable. It will comment on the analytical and epistemological dimension of Carr's and Reid's articles and then examine the axiological dimension of Reid's work which is the bedrock of his justification for the educational status of physical education. What is of significance in Reid is the idea that education, as conceived in the Petersian mould, is narrow and restrictive.

Despite a lack of argumentation, he signifies a broader conception of education than is found in the accounts of philosophers such as Peters, Hirst, and Barrow or, for that matter, anyone housed within the liberal tradition. These philosophers of education conceive of education as the development of individual, rationally autonomous, learners. In their writings they sharply distinguish education from other learning-related concepts such as 'socialisation', 'training' and 'vocation' in terms of their content, scope, value and application.

Reid's conceptualisation of a broader account rests on the position of John White in his book *Education and the Good Life* where educators aim towards the development of personal well-being grounded in rationally informed desires of both a theoretical and practical kind. Education is thus subservient to, and continuous with, the kinds of development that enable an individual to choose activities, experiences and relationships that are affirmations of those informed choices. By contrast, Carr is more traditional in his account of education and therefore physical education. Like Barrow and Peters before him, he marks the education training distinction by a thesis about mind. For the earlier writers in

liberal philosophy of education, all educational activities were broader and richer in scope than mere training which was a form of instruction with limited, focused ends. Education properly conceived, they argued, aimed at something much richer and more variegated. The educated mind did not focus on things limited in scope, such as training for the world of work, but rather helped learners to better understand their world, and their place within it.

As it was often said, education had no specific destination or goal as such; it was rather to travel with a new, enlarged view. Necessarily, this educated view was informed by an initiation into the forms of knowledge or rationality; aesthetic, mathematical, philosophical, scientific, religious, and so on. These were simply what being educated consisted in. Despite the fact that Carr recognises the value of practical as well as theoretical rationality, he undermines Reid's thesis about the importance of physical education conceived of as practical knowledge, and is driven back to the old liberal ground: The key idea here is the traditionalist one that certain forms of knowledge and understanding enter into the ecology of human development and formation—not as theories of a scientist or the skills of a golfer, but as the horizon of significance against which we are able to form some coherent picture of how the world is, our place in it and how it is appropriate for us to relate to others.

Strictly speaking, it matters not a hoot on the traditionalist picture whether such received wisdom is theoretical or practical or located at some point in between; what matters is that there should be—in the name of education—some substantial initiation into this realm of human significance alongside any training in vocational or domestic or merely recreational skills. This is not to deny any proper normative conception of the latter, or that any pursuit of such skills may involve considerable rational judgement and discrimination; it is rather to insist that the sort of rationality they do exhibit may not and need not have anything much to do with education. Very roughly, one might put the point of the liberal-traditionalist distinction between educational and non-educational knowledge by observing that the former is knowledge which informs rather than merely uses the mind.

Thus, Carr's account is little more than a brave leap back to the Petersian position. Now, as with all philosophical argument, one can dispute a position on its own terms, one can deny the presuppositions of those terms or one can either assert or argue for a counter position. The middle option can be seen in any of a legion of writers who attacked the liberal position for its normative presuppositions. Under the banner of ideological neutrality, it seemed to smuggle in an awful lot of values. Moreover, nearly every self-respecting sociologist of education cried that it entailed little more than a crystallisation of the kind of curriculum favoured by British grammar and public schools in the UK over the last 100 years or so. There is a point of considerable agreement between Carr and Reid that is typical of the liberal theory of education, and it is one that is typically used against the educational advocates of physical education. Both writers are keen to hold on to the liberal ideal that education has its own ends.

This of course cuts across the grain of 'common sense' thinking that it is the job of education to effect socialisation, or produce a more efficient workforce, and so on. Reid says that a broader view of what education entails—the introduction to cultural resources—must not simply be thought of as the development of qualities of mind: The idea of introduction to cultural resources is to be taken here as an abbreviated way of referring to the complex and lengthy processes associated with the knowledge condition of education, with the teaching and learning which are required for effective appreciation and use of those resources.

The sports and games which figure in physical education, then, are to be distinguished from work, the arts, intellectual illumination and so on in terms of their fundamentally hedonic orientation, but not in terms of their role as major cultural institutions, and thus in terms of their educational importance.

It seems, therefore, that Reid is not unhappy with the general model of education as initiation into sports and games as major cultural institutions. As we have seen, Carr parts company with Reid on epistemological issues to do with the development of rational mind, though not only there. Despite recognising the value of such initiation, Carr pejoratively refers to sports and games as merely a valuable part of one's schooling—but, note, not education.

Carr's logical geography is restricted to the Petersian-liberal continent. Like many others before him, Reid wants to shift the ground of education away from the development of intellect as the sole basis and look also to a kind of 'pleasure principle'. Reid suggests that the nature and value of physical education is best characterised by a 'fundamentally hedonic orientation'. We shall consider these points in that order.

## **EPISTEMOLOGICAL ASPECTS**

One major strand in physical education teachers' collective insecurity complex is to be found in epistemological aspects of their subject which, in the UK at least, has undergone significant professional changes. Central among those changes is the emergence of a graduate profession armed with a greater breadth and depth of theoretical knowledge. There are three suspicions about such claims.

First, we are simply not sure if it is true that the development of an all-graduate profession has produced a teacher base that is characterised as having a broader and deeper knowledge base and we know of no empirical study to dis/prove the claim. Second, even if this were true, it does not follow necessarily that this would bring about better learning and teaching in physical education lessons. Third, over the last 20 years or so we have seen witnessed the introduction of significant elements of propositional knowledge into the school subject which has been incorporated systematically into syllabi, culminating in examinations. Yet, it is not the mere snobbery of the physics or maths teacher that is problematic here. Carr, gives it its most pithy statement: education comprises those forms of knowledge that do not merely use but, rather, inform rational mind.

The distinction is both clear and elegantly put. But what follows from it? The answer is 'nothing necessarily'. Further exploration is required. Reid claims

that the family of activities of physical education are best conceived of as expressions of 'knowing how', to use Gilbert Ryle's famous phrase. That is to say, the activities and their knowledge contents are not merely the handmaiden of theoretical knowledge, but a species of knowledge in their own right.

They are better captured under the title 'practical knowledge'. Similarly, Parry claims that it is the practical knowledge required for successful participation in physical education activities that satisfies the epistemological criterion of education. On a technical point, it could be argued that the phrase 'epistemological criterion' requires correction. Peters' remarks on the epistemological criteria of education are better subdivided thus:

- The development of knowledge and understanding which are not inert; and that
- Such knowledge and understanding must be framed in some 'cognitive perspective'.

This distinction is important since, among other objections, one could argue that the knowledge and understanding of the activities of physical education may well come to characterise part of one's way of viewing the world. The phrase 'having a healthy and active lifestyle' might well capture the idea of a person considered physically educated; one whose knowledge was tied to action in important respects.

It could be said that most adults 'know' what a healthier and more active lifestyle looks like but they are unable to incorporate it into their lives. On the stronger epistemological account, one could not be said properly to know this whilst acting in a contrary way. But it is really the second epistemological aspect—the cognitive perspective—that offends both Peters' and Carr's rationalism. Lest it be said that it is erecting a straw man, consider Peters' construction of the value of theoretical knowledge.

Note that it is in contrast to theoretical knowledge that he dismisses, among other things, sports and games: To get attached to pets, people or possessions is a bad bet *sub specie aeternitatis*; for there is one thing we know about them—they will die or become worn out with use or age. No such fate awaits the objects of theoretical activities; for as long as there is an order of the world there will always be further things to find out about it.

In so far as knowledge is involved in games and pastimes, this is limited to the hived off end of the activity which may be morally indifferent. A man may know a great deal about cricket if he is a devotee of the game; but it would be fanciful to pretend that his concern to find out things is linked with any serious purpose, unless the game is viewed under an aesthetic or moral purpose. Cricket is classed as a game because its end is morally unimportant. Indeed an end has almost to be invented to make possible the various manifestations of skill.) In a passage that should be etched on the hearts and minds of all physical education student teachers, he continues: Curriculum activities, on the other hand, such as science or history, literary appreciation, and poetry are 'serious' in that they illuminate other areas of life and contribute much to the quality of living.



They have, secondly, a wide ranging cognitive content which distinguishes them from games. Skills, for instance, do not have a wide ranging cognitive content. There is very little to know about riding bicycles, swimming, or golf. It is largely a matter of knowing how rather than of 'knowing that', of knack rather than of understanding. Furthermore, what there is to know throws little light on much else? While Reid, therefore, presents a sophisticated account of practical knowledge and reasoning, he fails to attack the proper target and to give an account for the specific epistemological aspects of the activities of physical education. It would seem to me that a more fruitful place to start would be to interrogate Peters' account of 'seriousness' which is used to demarcate knowledge considered educational from that which is not. Two brief sets of points can be made here.

In what sense is the illumination of things other than themselves a necessary condition for what is said to be 'serious'? Why, furthermore, should wide-ranging cognitive content similarly be viewed as a logically necessary condition of educational activities? The criterion does indeed distinguish practices such as science from sport but, again, what follows from this? Second, note how the notion that certain ranges of knowledge contribute to the quality of living, gets sidelined thereafter. Surely this is one of the palpable claims that all physical educators would make as a hypothetical justification of the subject? As a matter of fact, one could survey the millions of people for whom sports and related practices are central to their quality of living. As a justification, of course, this form of argument is hypothetical since its success is contingent upon the satisfactions enjoyed by those persons. We should not need reminding that many children simply detest sports and games just as others come to love and care for them.

If we agree the philosophical point that to be physically educated, what one knows must characterise the way one acts in the world, then as physical educators, it is our duty to both habituate children into patterns of activity and engagement with social practices such as hockey and basketball, and to open up to our students the significant sporting inheritance of our cultures so that they too may come to savour its joys and frustrations and to know a little about that aspect of the cultures which sporting practices instantiate. Thus Reid's exploration of the underlying logic of practical knowledge is, despite Parry's assertion, a worthwhile task. But Reid fails significantly to take that analysis further.

This omission is manifest in his observation that there are profoundly complex kinds of practical knowledge required, for example, in playing Tchaikovsky or flying a plane. Howsoever these examples are used to illustrate the potential complexity of forms of practical knowledge; they are not representative of the kinds of knowledge definitive of physical education. Nor can they be used helpfully as analogues in such an argument. There is a further complication, moreover, in the contrast between the serious forms of knowledge and sports and games which relates to the ease with which children are initiated into cultural

practices. Like physical education, the 'serious' educational subjects too have easy skills and techniques at their onset, yet these are the first steps in practices of immense rational sophistication in range and depth. Sports do not possess this range of cognitive complexity and it would be folly to argue that they do. Yet there is more to them than mere knack: a forward roll is a skill and so is a double twisting back somersault but compare the range of complexity.

The capacity to generate immensely technical skills aligned to perceptive judgement and anticipation in a time-compressed manner is typical of any invasion game. Sports skills are not comparable in density or range to classical music or philosophy. This is why Tchaikovsky's concertos or landing aeroplanes are inappropriate analogues. It might, however, be profitable to explore other areas of the curriculum that embody overt per formative knowledge as opposed to intellectual ones with respect to the embodiment of that knowledge. What has to be acknowledged in this debate is the exceptional difficulty in talking about sporting experiences especially where they refer significantly to the emotional dimension that accompanies success and failure.

It is not so much that one can give a full account of action if only sports people were linguistically sophisticated; the point is that these descriptions occupy different worlds. A phenomenological account simply does not try to do the same thing as, say, a physiological or biomechanical one. But that is a discussion for another day. This entire area has been largely neglected in the philosophy of physical education since David Best's and David Carr's work in the 1970s. Reid has done the profession a service by reminding us of their importance.

Characteristic of early analytical philosophers of education, however, Reid proceeds as if the logic of his philosophical analysis carries itself forward to a conclusion in the minds of any reasonable person. Like so much earlier work in analytical philosophy of education Reid fails to accord sufficient weight to contextual particulars and specifically the power-related discourses of the school-as-institution and the dominance of the academic therein.

Reid merely gestures towards this problematic. Despite the clarity of his arguments regarding physical education, it is the widespread experiences of physical education teachers who have been demeaned by the hierarchical dominance, or positioning, of propositional over performative knowledge. The core root of the professional insecurity that has always characterised the physical education profession, and which has culminated in the apparent is academicisation of our profession. Finally, the greatest weakness in the epistemological aspect of Reid's account of physical education as education is his failure to offer a value argument for the kinds of knowledge representative of physical education.

It is a point that Peters flagged up 30 years ago: 'It is one thing to point to characteristics of activities that are usually thought to be worthwhile; it is quite another to show why these sorts of characteristics make them worthwhile'. Like any philosophical thesis, one may challenge the Petersian position by rejecting the manner in which it is presented rather than looking for inconsistencies or

incoherence within it. One could, so to speak, reject the paradigm completely; that is to say, reject the very terms in which it is presented and the bases it presupposes. In doing so we could reconceptualise some or all of the notions of 'rationality', 'knowledge' or 'education' to find an account more conducive to physical education and its claims to proper educational status.

Despite making a case for the necessary existence of practical rationality in educational matters, on Reid's case, physical educationists would still be left to argue whether the activities of physical education were productive of practical rationality and why the particular practical rationality employed or exemplified in the activities were of particular value. Equally unfortunate, we have seen how Carr's position appears little more than a retrenchment into a broadly Petersian education. Reid's best hopes appear to be based on the pluralism of value conferred by the range of activities, but particularly in reference to their essentially hedonic character. While we think that it is clear that the range of activities represent a family we think the policies of both Carr and Reid are misguided. It is, therefore, to issues of axiology and physical education.

## **CORRECTION THROUGH PUBLIC HEALTH AGENCIES**

This method, either free or at nominal cost, is an approved health service procedure. Through the school nurse these services are brought to the attention of families unable to pay for the attention of a private physician. The principle of ability to pay is exceedingly difficult to administer and requires the full cooperation of school, health and welfare authorities. In many instances the nurse aids in taking the child to the hospital or clinic, often makes the appointment, and is always ready to bring confidence to the unformed parent in matters of this kind. The hospital with a clinic service or a special clinic or health center comprises the usual type that furnishes free medical care. These may be endowed institutions operating on a budget supplied by private funds or public or semipublic institutions supported in whole or in part by public funds.

This is an admirable form of correction especially for certain types of defects. Its great advantage is the unity possible in the organization. Detection and correction go together. Examples of this type of correction are dental clinics, nutrition classes, special openair classes, and postural classes. The Cleveland Public Schools conduct an excellent Division of Mouth Hygiene in the Department of Physical Welfare. Dental clinics in many cities are conducted by the schools out of funds received from the city. In St. Augustine, Florida, a dental clinic for all children is an endowed institution with some support from the city through the funds of the board of education.

Special classes for malnourished, and pretuber-cular children and special instruction for postural cases are common practices in many public school systems. In the former food is given the children as an aid in correction of the defects present. The practice of providing an organization within the school that will meet the needs of children is well established.

## **SUPERVISION OF THE HEALTH OF TEACHERS AND SCHOOL OFFICIALS**

The fourth function of the school physician in the health service is the supervision of the health of teachers and school officials. This function should operate mainly, though not exclusively, in the selection and certification of teachers so that persons of good health will be admitted into the profession. The examination of all school officials should exclude cases of tuberculosis. To this end, the x-ray is increasingly used. In addition to examining teachers for positions in the schools, the physicians should be available for periodic health examinations of teachers in service. Industry and business organizations find it profitable to conduct such examinations for employees and the time will soon come when such examinations for teachers will be a well-established practice. It is now required in some communities of all persons handling food in the school cafeteria. Teachers and school officials returning to school after illness should be examined and this is particularly important in communities where the board does not permit sick leave on full or partial salary.

In a summary of the studies made on the health of the teacher, the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company reports as follows: Men are absent less frequently and for shorter periods than women. This disparity is greater in the teaching profession than among other groups of employed men and women.

Great inconsistency is shown in the relation of sickness rate of age. In one city the rate increased steadily with age; in another there seemed to be no correlation between age and illness; and in another the rate declined with increase in age. The proportion of teachers absent on account of sickness in a year varies widely. No generalization can be made, except that this proportion compares favourably with absences among industrial and mercantile workers.

Long, expensive illnesses are relatively rare among teachers. A succession of minor ailments in a life comparatively free from serious risks is the way in which one report sums up the teachers' health situation. Colds and influenza are the chief causes of absences in all investigations. Yet, teachers have a lower rate in respiratory disturbances than have other indoor workers. The opportunity for contagion in the classroom makes the incidence of colds more serious among teachers than among workers in shops and offices.

Tonsillitis is a common cause of absence among teachers. Contrary to previous opinion, the rate for tuberculosis among teachers is comparatively low. Nervous disorders are a chief cause of long and expensive cases of absence. These are conspicuously more common among women than among men and absences due to nervous disorder increase with advancing years. Although we do not know the definite effect of the teachers' nervousness upon the health of children, it may be assumed that the effect of some types is serious. If the teacher is to contribute effectively to the mental health of children she must have mental and emotional control and balance.

Relatively good chances for a long life and comparatively low sickness rates are revealed in comparison with workers in other fields. This is offset by the

fact that the effects upon pupils of even slight illnesses on the part of teachers is the most serious side of the teachers' health situation. The active causes of health disturbance among teachers that are related to the vocation are many. Teachers as a group reflect the hazards of a sedentary group and, although well educated, exhibit generally habitual violation of many health laws. A relation may exist between the teacher's health and the temperature of the classroom, and fatigue may be a factor in some nervous disorders. Large classes and the strain of such situations doubtless impair the health of many teachers.

Boards of education in some cities offer assistance to teachers in the correction of physical defects. Usually this takes the form of examinations and advice. While assistance of this kind is important, much more could be done by: (1) thorough and more rigid examinations for appointment; (2) improving the living conditions through adequate salaries; (3) establishing rest homes with provision for some remuneration during periods of recuperation and convalescence; (4) offering sickness insurance on a group basis; (5) providing adequate retirement allowances; and (6) furnishing some recreational facilities and encouraging outdoor recreational activities among teachers.

*Salary of the School Physician:* There are no standards at present. Different communities use various bases in arriving at compensation. Payment by the hour, the visit, or number of pupils is quite unsatisfactory. From the school standpoint an annual salary is the best arrangement. Efforts to secure the fulltime services of a physician and to permit no private practice are highly commendable. Rogers reports an increase in the salaries of full-time physicians in the decade 1930-40. In 1940, 32 cities of 100,000 or more population paid \$4000 a year; in 1930 only 6 of this group paid as much.

*The School Nurse:* The school nurse is such a valuable member of the school staff that even before the health education movement spread widely through the schools, the nurse in many communities had established herself as an indispensable educational worker. The 1945 census of Public Health Nurses reports 4,321 nurses employed by local boards of education; approximately the same number give part-time to school nursing as employees of local boards of health, local voluntary health agencies, and commercial groups.

While boards of education have employed more nurses in recent years, both the general education and the public health preparation have fallen below the percentage of 1941. This is probably a temporary wartime situation, and it is hoped that standards will be raised to a level even higher than the pre-war standard.

To perform satisfactorily her duties, the school nurse needs more than the nursing training given in a hospital. The latter is indispensable of course, but not adequate for school work. In addition the school nurse should be graduated from a public health nursing course that is approved by the National Organization of Public Health Nursing. The nurse should receive instruction in the teaching of health.

*Duties of the School Nurse:* The duties of the school nurse vary in different communities, and depend upon the organization of the work, the service of

outside agencies, and the coordinated relationship of the departments of health and boards of education. The duties and functions of the school nurse have been clearly described in *The Nurse in the School*, a report of the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education with the cooperation of the Education Committee of the School nursing section of the National Organization for Public Health Nursing.

*Administrative Considerations in School Nursing:* The administrator should select a staff whose qualifications are adequate for the functions to be performed. Some means of certification should be required. At present all states do offer certification for school nurses. There is great variability in this matter; the only uniform requirement in the states is registration. After selection of the nurse personnel, the position of the nurse in the school organization should be made clear. This is particularly important if the nurse is employed by the board of health and gives parttime service in the schools. Regardless of the nurse's affiliations outside the school, nursing service in the schools should be under the direction of board of education officials. This is particularly important with Red Cross nurses, tuberculosis nurses, and nurses from commercial or industrial groups.

The administrator should select a competent supervisor and arrange for all nurses to have staff instruction and professional stimulation and growth through attendance at professional meetings. The National Organization of Public Health Nursing recommends that nurses who are not making definite plans to extend their education through continuous preparation should not be selected for school positions. At five-year intervals this organization publishes "Minimum Qualifications for Those Appointed to Positions in Public Health Nursing." An organization that seeks high competence in its members should have the full cooperation of administrators.

The administrator should develop a policy regarding the nurse as a teacher. In the elementary school the problem rarely arises because of the general agreement that the teaching of health is the duty of the classroom teacher. In the high school the nurse is often called upon to teach units in home nursing, child care, growth and development of infants, care of injuries, prevention and control of communicable diseases, causes of illness, and accident prevention in home, school, and community. At times responsibilities in teaching are placed upon the nurse for which she is not prepared. It is the function of the administrator to determine whether or not the nurse is prepared for teaching, has time to do so, and has the necessary equipment.

In preparation the nurse should possess qualifications that are comparable to those held by other teachers in the school. She should be judged as are teachers by the standards of good teaching. The time factor is difficult. When she is teaching she cannot carry on the individual conferences with pupils that are such a substantial part of her contribution. Often she is not trained for teaching and hence her efforts in this direction may be much less productive than her services in the work for which she is prepared.



Equipment is essential or much of the technical instruction that the nurse might give. In most of the units listed above which the nurse may be prepared to teach, technical equipment is necessary. Home nursing and child care are really laboratory courses. The nurse in the high school has a range of duties somewhat more extensive than a staff nurse assigned to an examination and follow-up schedule. Generally, they fall into six fields of service.

*She will:*

1. Be in charge of the dispensary or infirmary, and hence will be responsible for the management of emergencies. This may involve only first-aid care or reference to home or hospital.
2. Aid in the examinations, arrange schedules, notify parents, and generally organize these services. She will actually conduct some part of the examination herself, under the direction of the physician.
3. Advise the principal regarding school hygiene, the hygiene, of instruction; advise the teachers with reference to health problems of certain students. In some schools she is selected as the health counselor, a position involving the centering of the supervision of all health activities in one person.
4. Advise the principal, when the facts warrant her comment, regarding the effect upon pupil health of school dances, examinations, pupil load, the school lunch, and other general matters.
5. Establish effective measures for the control of communicable diseases.
6. Help according to her ability in providing instruction in health but will be responsible for instruction in infant care, first aid, and care of the sick.

*Salaries of School Nurses:* The salary of school nurses varies according to geographical location, duties, training and experience. The usual salary ranges from \$900 per year to \$3500, with perhaps a fair average approximating \$1800 to \$2000. Supervising nurses should receive a salary comparable to other supervisors in the school system, based upon equivalent training and experience. The school nurse may be employed for the school term or calendar year, preferably the latter. The number of pupils to each school nurse varies greatly. Rogers in the 1940 survey reports means of 2,600 for cities of 100,000 or more population and means of 2,800 for cities from 30,000 to 99,999 population. This is a reduction of from three to seven hundred pupils per nurse from the means of 1930.

*Transportation of the School Nurse:* There is no standard procedure with respect to transportation in urban centers. In rural areas, the automobile is used nearly everywhere. Most cities do not furnish automobiles although it is common practice to allow a monthly sum for maintenance.

The nurse should plan her schedule carefully by informing herself about the area to be covered in her district and the best route to follow to expedite her work.

*The Uniform and Bag of the School Nurse:* Obviously the nurse should wear a distinctive uniform while in school service. The traditional white uniform and

hospital cap are not to be used; they suggest illness and a hospital. A white smock or a gray uniform is to be preferred. Whatever the decision may be regarding form or colour, the nurse should be consistent in the use of the type chosen. For home visiting, a smock, which can be carried in the nurse's bag, is practicable.

### **THE PSYCHOLOGIST AND PSYCHIATRIC SERVICE**

The school psychologist is ordinarily not considered a member of the staff of the health service and yet his duties and services are often of great import to those responsible for protecting and promoting the health of children. Psychologic records should be available for this purpose. Psychiatric service in the schools is a recent development in school administration. Its purpose is often restricted to the problems of the special case in which maladjustment has occurred. The mental hygiene programme should be regarded as more comprehensive than mere control of problem children. The school psychiatrist requires special training. The medical degree alone is not a sufficient indication of ability to diagnose disturbance and to guide youth in the perplexing problems of adjustment. This service will doubtless increase markedly in the future because of growing recognition of its usefulness in harmonizing individual adjustment problems, and because the number of children requiring psychiatric guidance will increase. The growth in mental and nervous disturbances in the adult population reflects a social condition that will eventually involve more children.

### **RELATIONSHIP OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS TO THE HEALTH SERVICE**

It is well established in practice that superintendents, supervising principals, and principals are the chief administrative officers of the schools. They correspond to the line officers of an army and have similar executive functions. Staff officers comprise those who are in charge of special services—in the army, officers of the medical corps, nurses, engineers, supply and transport officials. In the schools, the staff officers are the physicians, nurses, supervisors, janitors, and others. The work of the staff is expert in the several fields, but the specialized character of expert service demands integration and coordination. This is one vital function of the school administrator. It is not his responsibility to determine the value of technical matters, but as an executive of the line to secure integration of the various lines of effort to the end that the various units of school activity shall contribute to a common educational purpose.

Those principle is well established in the school with respect to various divisions. It should be thoroughly applied in the conduct of health services. Staff officers, such as school physicians, aim therefore to give expert medical and educational aid to the solution of health problems; line officers, such as superintendents or principals, aim to coordinate the efforts of various staffs, to utilize the findings of the experts, so that the basic purposes for which schools are conducted shall be realized. To perform his functions a superintendent or principal requires competent staff officers. And likewise, the progress of the

health work, for example, depends upon the executive activity of the officers of the line. The Health room in Schools—It is desirable to place the health suite of officers, examining room, and rest rooms in proximity to the physical education unit. It is not absolutely essential but the rapid growth of the coordinated programme does bring these departments into closer relationship. If the health unit is close to the gymnasium, it will be easier to take pupils in gymnasium costume directly from physical education classes for their examinations.

In the modern school building, a room for the nurse where the health services can be cared for adequately is considered as essential as classrooms, laboratories, or gymnasiums. It should be large enough to accommodate the physician in making his examinations and at least 22 feet in length or width to provide space for tests of visual acuity. For the latter function, good lighting, preferably on the north side, is required and unless natural lighting is adequate, it should be artificially illuminated. A telephone connection is indispensable. Standard equipment of desk, filing cabinet, and chairs will be provided. In addition to these general items certain special equipment is needed.

*These are:*

- Snellen eye charts for testing vision or materials for the Massachusetts Vision Test. For children who do not know their letters, the Snellen E chart is desirable.
- Yarns of different colours for testing colour perception and Ishihara type colour charts.
- An audiometer for testing hearing is preferable to the use of a watch on the whispered voice. The latter two vary with the make and volume respectively.
- Scales of approved design and equipped with stadiometer for measuring the height are indispensable. The scales should be placed so that it is unnecessary to move them after they are adjusted properly. In this way the chances of faulty action are minimized.
- A full length mirror for postural corrections should be attached to the wall, although movable mirrors may be used.
- At least one cot is needed. This should be of rattan construction to serve the purposes of an examination table. If the latter is available, the cot may be of the canvas type.
- A gas or electric heater for sterilizing.
- Running hot and cold water.
- A supply cabinet of sanitary type should contain the following: scissors, forceps and tweezers; sterile gauze and sterile absorbent cotton; adhesive plaster in several sizes; gauze roller bandages of one and two inch widths; triangular bandages and splints; wooden tongue blades, wooden applicators and toothpicks; three glasscovered jars (one for tongue depressor, one for sterile gauze, and one for sterile cotton); two clinical thermometers; several glass medicine droppers; tincture of green soap, and a saturated solution of boric acid; tincture of iodine or

mercuro-chrome in glassstoppered bottles; unguentine, or vaseline for burns; culture tubes and sterile swabs; lysol and 60 per cent alcohol solutions; and white enamel basins.

**The Rest Room**—The rest room is to be regarded as a part of the health service equipment and placed in the same suite of rooms assigned to this function in the school. Surroundings should be quiet. A north room with little light but with good ventilation is desirable. Cots equipped with blankets and mattresses, several chairs, and a table with mirror constitute the movable equipment. Figure 20 shows a record card used in administration of the quiet room.

## KNOWLEDGE OF HEALTH AND DISEASE

The educated person has an understanding of the facts that are pertinent to health and disease. To a great degree, a person's success is dependent upon his health. His state of health and physical fitness will determine to a great extent whether or not he succeeds in realizing his potentialities. An individual cannot expect to be a top executive in the business world if he is sick and stays away from work two or three days a week.

One cannot expect to achieve stardom in professional athletics without a physically strong and healthy body. One cannot aspire to a high-salaried position in radio, engineering, the ministry, education, advertising, law, medicine, or dentistry unless his body can stand the rigours of long hours of study and work. One cannot expect to achieve happiness in living unless he is in good health. A knowledge of health and disease, therefore, is a contributing factor to self-realization so that health obstacles, handicaps and strains may be guarded against. Physical education contributes to this knowledge by instructing the individual as to the importance of nutrition, exercise, rest and sleep; by informing him of the preventive and control measures that exist to guard against disease; by providing opportunities for vigorous out-of-doors activity; by motivating the formation of wholesome health attitudes and habits; by following up the correction of defects; by stressing safety factors for the prevention of accidents; and by establishing various health services. Through the experiences and knowledge provided by a physical education programme, the objectives of self-realization are brought much closer to attainment.

**Family and Community Health:** The educated person protects his own health, his dependent's health, and the health of the individuals within the community where he resides. The educated person has a knowledge of health and disease and applies these facts to himself, to his family, and to his community. He sees that his body is cared for in the manner prescribed by the authorities on health and disease and has periodic health examinations. He obtains adequate amounts of exercise, rest and sleep; eats the right kind of food; engages in activity conducive to mental as well as physical health; and sees that others also have the same opportunities to maintain and improve their health in accordance with his standards. He realizes that health is a product that increases in proportion as it is shared with other individuals and knows that health is everybody's business.

Physical education provides a programme of activity to improve the physical and mental health of the individual, his family, and the entire community. In the schools a planned programme of physical activity is offered as an essential to the optimum body functioning of youth during this developmental period of their lives. It enables them to experience many pleasurable emotions and to develop organic power, which is essential to a healthy, happy and interesting existence. The groundwork for adult years is laid during this formative period. Recreational programmes provide facilities and opportunities for the adult to continue, after leaving school, adapted physical activity so essential to health maintenance. They offer adults the opportunity to lose themselves in wholesome activity and thus be relieved of some of the tension experienced in modern-day living. Such a programme is essential to the health of all.

### **SKILL AS A PARTICIPANT AND SPECTATOR IN SPORTS**

The educated person participates and observes sports and other pastimes. The stress of modern-day living with its quest for material possessions, its machine-type labour, its sedentary pursuits, and its competitive nature has implications for all who would enjoy some of the simple, natural, and wholesome forms of activity. Modern-day man has been bitten by a bug, which has destroyed to some extent his sense of values in regard to entertainment. Many no longer wish to find entertainment through their own resources but, instead, desire to have professionals satisfy these needs. Too frequently they turn to the nightclub, to the horse races, or to some games of chance for amusement.

The educated person selects the manner in which he will spend his leisure time, with discretion and with regard for enriched living. Participating in a game of softball, tennis, or badminton or going for a swim not only provides an interesting and happy experience during leisure hours but at the same time contributes to mental and physical health. The development of physical skills in all persons rather than in just a few select individuals is an objective which is educationally sound and should be encouraged more and more by educators. The so-called recreational sports should receive greater emphasis so that activities may be better adapted to the older segment of the population. Swimming, golf, tennis, camping and similar activities should occupy a prominent place in all physical education programmes. Physical education not only develops skill in the participant but at the same time develops an interest and knowledge of other activities which at times may be engaged in by individuals from the standpoint of a spectator. Although it seems the benefits from participation would outweigh the benefits of being a spectator in regard to physical activity, nevertheless, many leisure hours may be spent in a wholesome manner observing a ball game or some other sports activity. The wise person, however, discovers the proper balance between the amounts of time he will utilize as a participant and as a spectator. The balance is destroyed if one fails to realize that being a spectator cannot result in the same values for an individual as being a participant. Physical education can help by supplying a knowledge of various sports so that the role of the spectator may be more meaningful and interesting.

## **RESOURCES FOR UTILIZING LEISURE HOURS IN MENTAL PURSUITS**

The educated person has mental resources for the utilization of leisure hours. Recreation is not confined to sports and exercise. Instead, there is a whole gamut of activities, which are more inactive in their nature but which offer entertainment and relaxation after working hours for a great many people. Such activities as reading, photography, music and painting may be included in this group. Physical education contributes here in providing the material for interesting stories of great athletes, such as Bob Feller, Jackie Robinson, Glenn Cunningham and Ben Hogan.

These individuals, through the stories that have been written about them, allow others to live vicariously their struggles in attaining fame and fortune amidst obstacles that seemed almost insurmountable. Physical education offers photography and painting enthusiasts subjects for their pictures. All have seen works of art that were inspired through some sports event. Physical education also offers many hobbies. A sport such as fishing motivates a hobby such as teeing flies. Many other examples could be listed. Physical education acts as a stimulating influence in playing upon one's mental resources for the utilization of leisure hours. Furthermore, it provides trained personnel who supervise and direct many of these recreational activities.

The educated person has developed an appreciation of the beautiful. From the time of early childhood the foundation of an appreciation of beautiful things can be developed. Architecture, landscapes, paintings, music, furnishings, trees, rivers and animals should ring a note of beauty in the mind of the growing child and in the adult. Physical education has much to offer in the way of beauty. The human body is a thing of beauty if it has been properly developed. The Greeks stressed the "body beautiful" and performed their exercises and athletic events in the nude so as to display the fine contours of their bodies. Nothing is more beautiful than a human body that is perfectly proportioned and developed. Physical activity is one of the keys to a beautiful body. Also, there is a beauty of movement, which is developed through physical activity.

When one picks up an object from the floor, it can be done with a great deal of skill and grace, or it can be done crudely and awkwardly. When a football pass is caught, a basketball goal made, a high jump executed, a two and one-half somersault dive performed, or a difficult dance displayed, there can be included in the performance of these acts rhythm, grace, poise and ease of movement which is beauty in action. Anyone who has seen Wes Santee run, Ben Hogan drive a golf ball, Mickey Mantel field a fly in deep centre, Sammy Lee dive, Tony Trabert hit a tennis ball, Tom Gola hook a shot through the net, or Ted Williams hit a home run knows what beauty of performance means. Such beauty comes only with practice and perfection.

The educated person conscientiously attempts to guide his life in the proper direction. Upon the shoulders of each individual rests the responsibility of



determining how he will live, what religion he will choose, the moral code he will accept, the standard of values he will follow, and the code of ethics he will believe in. This is characteristic of the democratic way of life. In a democracy man can in reality “half control his doom”. Man must develop his own philosophy of life. The way he treats his fellow men, the manner in which he assumes responsibility, the objectives he sets to attain on earth, and the type of government he believes in will all be affected by this philosophy. Through the philosophy that he has established man forms his own destiny.

Physical education can help in the formulation of an individual’s philosophy of life. Through the medium of physical education activities, guidance can be given as to what is right and proper, goals that are worth competing for, intrinsic and extrinsic values, autocratic and democratic procedures, and standards of conduct. The child is a great imitator, and the beliefs, actions, and conduct of the coach and the teacher are many times reflected in the beliefs, actions, and conduct of the student. In education, leadership is the key that unlocks the door to self-realization for many of our youth.

# ADOLESCENCE AND FAMILY LIFE EDUCATION

Adolescence and Family Life Education encompass a critical stage in human development, marked by significant physical, cognitive, emotional, and social changes. This period, typically spanning from early adolescence to late teenage years, represents a time of exploration, identity formation, and transition from childhood to adulthood. Family life education during adolescence plays a crucial role in supporting young individuals as they navigate these developmental challenges and transitions. It aims to equip adolescents with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed to establish healthy relationships, make responsible decisions, and cope with the various challenges they may encounter. Topics covered in family life education programs for adolescents often include communication skills, conflict resolution, sexuality and reproductive health, substance abuse prevention, and financial literacy. By providing accurate and age-appropriate information, fostering open dialogue, and promoting critical thinking and decision-making skills, family life education empowers adolescents to navigate the complexities of family life, relationships, and sexuality confidently. Moreover, family life education emphasizes the importance of family relationships and support systems, encouraging adolescents to seek guidance and support from trusted adults and family members as they navigate the challenges of adolescence. The book on Adolescence and Family Life Education offers comprehensive insights and practical strategies for educators and parents to support adolescents in navigating the complexities of relationships, sexuality, and family dynamics during this critical stage of development.



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