Chapter 2

Review of Literature

In this chapter, the research scholar summarizes the literature relevant to the research problem by providing an overview of studies, reports and so on concerning the research problem.

Internationally, the terms ‘Vocational Education’ and ‘Vocational Training’ are used interchangeably or the use of combined term – ‘Vocational Education and Training’ (VET). In the Indian context, education and training have been traditionally separated.

- ‘Vocational Education’ refers to vocational courses being offered in schools for Grades 11 and 12 students under a Centrally Sponsored Scheme ‘Vocationalization of Secondary Education’. The Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD) has overall responsibility.

- Vocational training is offered through separate training institutes set up for the purpose. The Ministry of Labour and Employment has overall responsibility.
State government departments deliver vocational training through:

- Industrial Training Institutes (ITIs) – under the administrative and financial control of the respective state government.
- Industrial Training Centres (ITCs) – privately funded and managed (some get support from state governments).

Routes to Skills Progression

- Vocational Education graduates may enter as ‘Technician Apprentices’ under Apprenticeship Training Scheme.
- Industrial workers upgrade their skills through short-term training programmes offered at DGET field Institutes and selected ITIs in specialized areas. These trained workers are perceived to be highly skilled.
- Various Ministries at Central and State level are also providing specialized training to workers as per the requirement (http://dget.gov.in).

According to Rao (1999), the Kothari Education Commission in 1966 was compelled to make unpleasant comments on the status and value of vocational education. The Commission observed that despite repeated exhortation it is unfortunately still felt that vocational education at the school
level is an inferior form of education, fit only for those who fail in general education – the last choice of parents and students. Rao asserts ‘this attitude must change’. At all levels of thinking – national, regional or state – the fact must be recognized that in an increasingly technological era, occupational education and skill development are the keys to a long-range solution, both for the individual and society. Helping young people become employable is an essential national objective. A concerted effort is therefore needed by government agencies, industrial and business organizations, social and political bodies and all groups and individuals deeply concerned with and interested in vocational education – through enlightened wage policies, improved means and methods of educational organization, organized vocational guidance and counselling services, the creation of public opinion – to promote the status and value of vocational education.

Unemployment is more often the result of a lack of proper education and skill acquisition rather than of a shortage of job opportunities. We must, in one way or another, see that our education system prepares boys and girls to use their minds as well as muscles for talks that today’s and – tomorrow’s – labour market requires. Vocational education provides the diversity and practicability that our education system lacks so much. An efficient work
force is the country’s best resource and vocational education is the best guarantee to workers that they will always be qualified for a job.

Singh (2005) in his article on ‘Slum students learn vocational skills’ has remarked that a government school in slum area of Chandigarh is, as an experiment, providing vocational education to its students as well as drop-outs under the Sarva Siksha Abhiyan. In addition to regular studies, skills like tailoring and stitching, hand embroidery, machine cutting, hair cutting, plumbing, book binding, flower making, paper bags, toy making and pottery are taught. The school has received orders for paper bags and office file folders. The Union Ministry of Human Resource Development invited the union territory officials to give a presentation in Delhi on the project at a meeting of education secretaries of different states. The states have been asked to follow the model.

The girl students earned money by applying ‘mehendi’ and the pottery students sold some items during Diwali. Earlier the parents of drop-outs had told education officials that despite facilities like free books, uniform and meals, they did not find education useful. They wanted their children to learn skills which could contribute to their family earnings. The training classes are held after the school hours to ensure that their studies do not suffer.
Bobby (2010) in his article on ‘Vocational training for the mentally challenged’ with one of the objective to find out the difficulties faced by the professionals in the special schools has revealed immense pressure from the parents to provide vocational training of a particular kind of their interest without considering the abilities of the individuals with poor intellectual capacity increase the difficulties to the working professionals.

Regarding occupation of professionals in the special schools, the study revealed a sizeable proportion 47 per cent employed were special educators; 30 per cent vocational educators; 7.5 per cent occupational therapist and 5 per cent Social Workers.

2.1 Shramik Vidyapeeth

Shramik Vidyapeeths – ‘Institutions devoted to workers’ education’ this is the literal meaning of ‘Shramik Vidyapeeths’. Under ‘Non-formal education for the 15+’ it is clearly given that Shramik Vidyapeeths (SVPs) which were earlier called Polyvalent Adult Education Centres also work for the working class in and around for their all-round development through non-formal approaches (Pillai, 1996).

The Scheme of Shramik Vidyapeeths started by the Ministry of Education and Culture symbolized the growing awareness of the need for educational, vocational and occupational growth of the workers, and where
possible his family, employed in various sectors: industries, business concerns, mines, plantations, manufacturing and servicing units and other organized and unorganized sectors in urban, semi-urban, plantation, mineral and industrial areas.

2.2 Non-formal Education

In the learning society of the future, non-formal education can provide a variety of educational opportunities to many more people and thereby reduce the mass–elite gap. Farmers, workers, small entrepreneurs and others who have never been to school – and perhaps never will – can get useful skills and knowledge through non-formal education, and thus contribute to their own and their nation’s development. Secondly, non-formal education can play its role as continuing education and act as a supplement to formal schooling for the large number of primary and secondary school leavers, drop-outs and push-outs with a view to train them for productive employment. Thirdly, non-formal education can help to upgrade the skills and competence of those who are already employed (Mohanty, 1989).

Any education offered to beneficiaries according to their needs and spare time at most convenient place and time, using appropriate content and method, where communication and dissemination of ideas and skills matter much, is called non-formal education.
Chapter 2: Review of Literature

Income generating programmes help to upgrade sectional skills and enable to conduct income generating activities. There is a large demand of knowledge, skills and values so that people are able to use these for improving their capacities to generate income. Income generation programmes may also take the form of supplementing the existing arrangements under training centres with part-time vocational courses or short duration training programmes (Agarwal & Rajesh, 1996).

2.3 Concept and Objectives

Rao (2007) states that the basic idea behind the multi-dimensional or the polyvalent approach to the education of the workers in Shramik Vidyapeeths was to meet the various inter-related needs of workers with specifically tailored programmes. More specifically, the objectives of the Shramik Vidyapeeth established in 1967 as identified from the guidelines by Aikara (1993) are as follows:

(a) to enrich the personal life of the worker(s) for providing opportunities of adult education, physical culture and recreation;

(b) to enable the worker(s) to play a more effective role as a member of the family and as a citizen;
(c) to improve the occupational skills and technical knowledge of worker(s) for raising his (their) efficiency and increasing productive ability;

(d) to organize programmes of vocational and technical training with a view to facilitating vertical mobility; and

(e) to widen the range of his knowledge and understanding of the social, economic and political systems in order to create in him a critical awareness about the environment and his own predicament.

The primary responsibility of the Shramik Vidyapeeths is to explore innovative and alternative methodologies in the field of non-formal education for urban and industrial workers so as to meet the needs of different groups of workers. The conversion of Shramik Vidyapeeths into Jan Shikshan Sansthas was not a change in mere nomenclature. It was a paradigm and strategy shift from an institution meant for vocational and life skills development of organized and unorganized labour in urban areas, to an ‘institute of people’s education’. This change laid special emphasis on the disadvantaged as a whole, both in urban as well as in rural areas of a district, including the youths and adults – illiterates, neo-literates and those with some education, and especially women.
Jan Shikshan Sansthan s turn out more than 4 lakh trained youths and adults, both men and women, every year. This is besides at least 4–5 times more number of people covered under their knowledge and awareness generation programmes.

The data in Table 2.1 shows the number of beneficiaries from the total number of programmes conducted by Jan Shikshan Sansthan in the year 2005 to 2006 at the national level. Out of the 13,171 programmes conducted 6,182 programmes are vocational courses with 4,37,938 beneficiaries.

### Table 2.1

Programmes Organized and Beneficiaries Covered in 2005–2006:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vocational Courses and Other Activities</th>
<th>Programmes</th>
<th>Beneficiaries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total number of programmes conducted</td>
<td>13,171</td>
<td>16,74,296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational courses</td>
<td>6,182</td>
<td>4,37,938</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness activities</td>
<td>3,830</td>
<td>4,38,318</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other activities</td>
<td>3,159</td>
<td>7,98,140</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Jena & Mathew, 2008*
Besides vocational courses, a wide range of awareness programmes are organized for Jan Shikshan Sansthan beneficiaries, including those undergoing vocational courses, as well as others. ‘Other activities’ include melas, exhibitions, film shows, environment building activities, participation in pulse polio and such other campaigns, celebration of International Literacy Day, International Women’s Day, Environment Day, Teachers’ Day, World Population Day, Gandhi Jayanti, and organization of competitions on poster making, essay writing, mehendi, rangoli, and so on (Jena & Mathew, 2008).

From the data in Table 2.2, it is observed that the participation of women is more than men from the year 2004–2005. This may be because of the number of short-term vocational courses which benefits women in making an income in a short period of training whereas the institute reports have recorded the participation of men only in long-term technical courses.

From another perspective, it is noted that, the year 2004–2005 saw an overall increase of 18 per cent in the number of trainees recruited, compared to the previous year, but the volume of increase among female candidates was 98 per cent. Increase in overall strength and strength of female candidates was respectively 49 per cent and 63 per cent in the following years.
### Table 2.2

**Vocational Programmes Organized and Beneficiaries Covered by Jan Shikshan Sansthan Chennai from the Period 2003–2004 to 2007–2008**

(5 Years Period)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Programmes</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%*</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003–2004</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>1,746</td>
<td>63.7</td>
<td>996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004–2005</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>1,247</td>
<td>38.7</td>
<td>1,976</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005–2006</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>1,589</td>
<td>33.1</td>
<td>3,215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006–2007</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>1,233</td>
<td>34.1</td>
<td>2,382</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007–2008</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>1,083</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>2,562</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* rounded off to nearest decimal

**Source:** Compiled from Jan Shikshan Sansthan Chennai Annual Progress Reports from 2003–2004 to 2007–2008

The female candidates constituted just 36 per cent of trainees recruited in 2003–2004; it became 61 per cent in the next year, 67 per cent in the following year, 66 per cent in the ensuing year and went up to 70 per cent in the latest year for which data are available (2007–2008). In the year 2007–
2008, the increase has been respectively 0.8 per cent (overall) and 8 per cent (female candidates).

Jan Shikshan Sansthan Chennai had conducted short-term and long-term vocational programmes for the beneficiaries of CEC/NCEC, that is, the Continuing Education Centre and the Nodal Continuing Education Centres run by Chennai Corporation. As cited earlier, Jan Shikshan Sansthan Chennai has also obtained Tamil Nadu Open University’s recognition as a vocational programme centre for conducting Diplomas in (i) Desktop Publishing; (ii) Refrigeration and Air Conditioning Technician; (iii) House Electrician; and (iv) Fashion Designing. Jan Shikshan Sansthan enrols the students, organizes regular classes for them in its own premises and with collaborating agencies (Jena & Mathew, 2008).

The data in Table 2.3 shows the durations of training programmes conducted by Jan Shikshan Sansthan Chennai for a five year period (2003–2004 to 2007–2008). It is seen that training programmes of duration with 3 months and 6 months are conducted in more numbers. The programmes conducted for this period are Desktop Publishing, Computer Applications, Tailoring, Beautician and other technical courses like Radio and TV Mechanism and Food Preparation training. These programmes are much in
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demand where the certificate provided by the institute after completion of
the programme is being useful for job application.

Table 2.3
Duration-wise Programmes Conducted by Jan Shikshan Sansthan
Chennai from the Period 2003–2004 to 2007–2008 (5 Years Period)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>Courses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Above 6 months</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 months</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 months</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 months</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 months</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 months</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 month</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 5 days</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Up to 5 days</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Compiled from Jan Shikshan Sansthan Chennai Annual Progress
Chapter 2: Review of Literature

The data in Table 2.4 again shows a maximum number of beneficiaries who completed the courses from 3 months and 6 months duration. This is because the number of courses conducted for the given duration is more and also because of the applicants who showed interest in joining the mentioned courses under the previous table as they are said to be in demand. The reasons were that they were able to earn an income by self-employment than to wait for a job or employment.

The objective of Jan Shikshan Sansthans is educational, vocational and occupational development of the socio-economically backward and educationally disadvantaged groups of urban/rural population particularly neo-literates, semi-literates, Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, Women and girls, slum dwellers, migrant workers, and so on. Variety of courses and activities are offered by these institutions. About two lakh persons are given vocational training annually. Of these, over 75 per cent are women (Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, 2005).

All the JSSs are managed by non-government organisations (NGOs) under Boards of Management that include a GoI representative. They must be registered under the Societies Registration Act, 1860, incorporating a Memorandum of Association, Rules and Regulations. (A report by World Bank, 2006, pp. 46–47)
Table 2.4
Duration-wise Beneficiaries Covered by Jan Shikshan Sansthan Chennai from the Period 2003–2004 to 2007–2008 (5 Years Period)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Above 6 months</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>297</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>418</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 months</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>1,016</td>
<td>1,256</td>
<td>676</td>
<td>673</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 months</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 months</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>397</td>
<td>436</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 months</td>
<td>2,027</td>
<td>772</td>
<td>501</td>
<td>684</td>
<td>780</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 months</td>
<td>434</td>
<td>233</td>
<td>361</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 month</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>340</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>292</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 5 days</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>564</td>
<td>615</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>501</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Up to 5 days</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>1,212</td>
<td>897</td>
<td>320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2,742</td>
<td>3,223</td>
<td>4,804</td>
<td>3,615</td>
<td>3,645</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.4 Modular Employable Scheme

An innovative idea mooted by the management committee of the Industrial Training Institute (ITI), Tiruchi, has led to the creation of a skilled workforce of 30,000 through such institutions all over Tamil Nadu under the Modular Employable Scheme (MES). It has paved the way for equipping village youths and dropouts with skills required for the industry through intensive practical-oriented short-term training in need-based industrial trades. The idea suggested by the chairman of management committee, ITI, Tiruchi, B. Pattabhiraman, at a national confluence of chairpersons of ITIs in Bangalore pursued by the Confederation of Indian Industry. A representation to that effect was also made by the Indian Welding Society to the Ministry of Labour and Employment. These efforts resulted in the Prime Minister taking the initiative forward and earmarking Rs. 1,500 crore a year for upgrading skills of village youth and dropouts through short-term courses throughout the country, and converting them into skilled human resource suiting industrial needs. By virtue of on-the-job training made possible under MES, such trainees are now able to obtain NCVT (National Council of Vocational Training) certificates which is recognized internationally.

The beneficiaries also include a group of workers in industries with no formal ITI qualification. State governments also conduct their versions of
MES and provide certificates at the end of the Training. Citing the experience of the fabrication sector in Tiruchi, Pattabhiraman, who is also the national president of Indian Welding Society and Managing Director, GB Engineering Enterprises, said that industries are able to source only 20 per cent of their requirements from the ITIs.

Hence, an alternative measure to create a huge volume of workforce was inevitable. Industries are prepared to sponsor the cost of training of youths under MES in order to absorb them, he said. Students completing the conventional ITI programmes are required to spend a year in industries under the Apprenticeship Act in lieu of stipulated stipend before joining the regular work force. But their practical exposure to industrial requirements is far from sufficient. For instance, for an entire training period at ITI, a student burns only 10 electrodes. On the other hand, through the MES, youths could be trained in different segments of welding such as arc welding and TIC welding in industries itself. They are also paid much higher amounts during the training period. A typical welder in a fabrication industry burns 200 rods per day, R. Pattabhiraman explained. All the trained candidates – there is no maximum age limit – have already been absorbed by industries.
Further, adding that by March next year (2009), the target set by the State government for all the industrial training institutes to complete training for 50,000 candidates would be fulfilled (‘Turning dropouts into skilled workforce’, 2008).

2.5 Short-term Training to Develop Vocational Skills

The more successful companies in the manufacturing and service sectors are always future-oriented in their thinking and policy-making. They are anxious to hone the skills of their junior employees to meet the modern needs and challenges. ‘Training centres develop new training modules tailored to meet today’s needs. For example, there is a proposal to train 2000 metro-rail workers in construction safety and issue them certificates’. The programme ‘Budding Leaders’ is designed to groom high-potential new recruits into fast-growing and skilled employees. Also Chrysalis’ is one other programmes which focuses on the freshers to serve the unbanked and underbanked population where the local manpower is being trained to take their due places in the banking system. Further, having realized that communication, entrepreneurship and customer-handling being important as technical skills, training centres make use of every available means to achieve their objectives (‘Skills show in ascent’, 2011).
2.6 The TATA Initiative

TATA motors, through its NGO Samaj Kendra, joined hands with Jan Shikshan Sansthan Lucknow in promotion of literacy and vocational capabilities of the rural women in two development blocks in Lucknow. In these areas Jan Shikshan Sansthan conducts programmes of skill-building and upgradation for the illiterates and neo-literates (JSS Lucknow, 2005, p. 10).

2.7 Programmes Similar to Jan Shikshan Sansthan

Jan Shikshan Sansthan aims to train school drop-outs in vocationally useful skills. Community colleges also have a similar objective. Of late in addition, a programme called Pan IIT initiative has been introduced in the villages of Kancheepuram district also called the ‘Reach for India’ Scheme which is run by an elite group of engineers, IAS officers, businessmen and scientists. It trains school drop-outs in the 18–30 age group. A residential ‘Welding Gurukul’ has been set up in the village to train the youth in Welding Technology. The organizers hope to find placement for the candidates completing the training (Francis, 2008).
2.8 Some Popular Jan Shikshan Sansthans

2.8.1 Jan Shikshan Sansthan Vijayawada

The Vijayawada Jan Shikshan Sansthan works towards upliftment of the socio-economic conditions of the masses through need-based training, life-enrichment education programmes to its target groups like neo-literates, industrial workers, dependants of workers, school drop-outs, child labour, street children, prospective workers, women, and socially and economically deprived sections of the society. Every year the Jan Shikshan Sansthan has been organizing 400 to 500 skill-training programmes in more than 100 varieties for the benefit of neo-literates, women workers, unemployed youth and downtrodden sections of the society and conducts equivalency programmes and post-training assistance through production centres.

The Sansthan formed 55 committees with 200 women in each committee in the slums of Vijayawada. Income generation combined with literacy promotion has been organized on a great scale in these committees. An exhibition-cum-sale – Mahila Utsav is being conducted for more than 15 years which provides a platform to market the products made by the trainees. Sansthan has been organizing exhibition-cum-sale with a title of ‘Sunday Markets’ in the Block headquarters with the products of the ex-trainees of the Jan Shikshan Sansthan. In every village special guidance and counseling
activities are being undertaken with the help of the ‘Rytu Clubs’ and other organizations (JSS Vijayawada, 2005, p. 4).

2.8.2 Jan Shikshan Sansthan Prayas

Jan Shikshan Sansthan Prayas conducts vocational education programmes as per the needs of the local market and demands of the industry so as to ensure placement and thus increase the family income of the trainees, which is the real test of any skill training and skill upgradation programme. Jan Shikshan Sansthan Prayas has introduced training programme in ‘Retail’ with a view to create a resource centre for entry level jobs in retail sector.

From the reports and market research, it was gathered that a boom in the retail sector and the industry is likely to grow enormously with the entry of majors like Reliance Retail, Carrefour and Walmart, and so on, to the already existing impressive players in the field like Big Bazaar, Ebony, Food Bazaar, Pantaloon Retail India Ltd., Shoppers Stop, Subhiksha, West Side, Life Style and many more. The information sourced from books, newspapers, and market research done in the sector established beyond doubt that Indian retail market is one of the fastest growing industries in India as on date.
A training programme has been designed for the 17+ age group belonging to socially weaker sections of the society, focusing on the requirements of retail sector of 3 months duration with 200 hours of training in the classroom as well as in the field. The methodology being participative, activity and project that includes simulation, role-plays, case studies, audio-visual aids, group discussions as well as field visit and on-the-job-training with weightage for theory and practical sessions with course contents.

The main objectives of the training programme are as follows:

1. To train the youth and women for entry level jobs in the retail sectors.

2. To develop values and attitudes required for working in the organized sector such as punctuality, dependability, integrity, dignity of labour and willingness to learn.

3. To develop skills in areas such as interpersonal and intrapersonal sensitivity, team working, time management, anger management, and so on.

4. To improve communication skills.

5. To build confidence – inputs in areas such as etiquette, hygiene and covers also basic telephone etiquette.
6. To enhance awareness through classroom inputs and visits to shopping malls.

7. To gain basic computer skills – familiarize with applications like Word, Excel and E-mail.

8. To impart customer service orientation and selling skills covering the basics of selling and development of selling skills.

It was a small attempt to train the students from the marginalized classes to man the entry-level jobs in the New Economy Trades. In fact many of the retail chains provide on-the-job training to the candidates joining their workforce. The training at Jan Shikshan Sansthan Prayas helps the students from the lower end of economy to get accustomed to the culture of the corporate world in a smooth manner and work there with confidence and dignity. The training, focused on retail sector, is replicable and scalable to other sectors of the new economy as well like Hospitality including restaurants, fast food outlets and Domestic call centre (Jena & Mathew, 2008)

2.8.3 Jan Shikshan Sansthan Gaya

An article by the Chairman, Jan Shikshan Sansthan Gaya confers it to be one of the first Jan Shikshan Sansthas in the country which has launched
several innovative programmes for the trainees and other beneficiaries of its programmes for their self-employment through income generating programmes.

To link its beneficiaries with production activities and gain experience in income generation, it has launched the scheme of ‘Self-help Production Centre’. This scheme is mainly designed to produce potential entrepreneurs. Under this scheme the beneficiaries are invited to make ‘Self-help Production Groups’ at the training centres and start income generating activity of their choice under the umbrella of Jan Shikshan Sansthan Gaya provided with different types of assistance to the beneficiaries by way of:

- free opportunity for income generation individually or in groups under the guidance of experts;
- free use of equipments and infrastructure available at training centres;
- assistance in procurement of orders;
- financial assistance as per need;
- assistance in marketing of produce;
- sharing of profits.
The scheme has helped in motivating the beneficiaries to use their acquired vocational skills for income generation and get first-hand business experience without any kind of risk to them. Once they acquire confidence and business skills they are encouraged to start income generating activity of their own independently. In this way, Jan Shikshan Sansthan Gaya provides a business platform to their beneficiaries which helps them to become real entrepreneurs. The ‘Self-help Production Groups’ functioning at three centres at Gaya produces the following:

- handicraft items like jute bags, folders, toys, rakhi;
- readymade garments like frock, nighties, salwar suit, apron, children garments, petticoat, blouse;
- items like bedsheet, pillow cover, cushion cover, sofa cover, napkins, dining table mats;
- decorative items like decorative candles, bandanwar, wall hanging;
- processed food products like jam, jelly, pickles, and so on.
- artificial jewellery;
- items with zari/embroidery work;
- other items as per order and demand.
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The setting up of a production centre helps in translating skill development into income generating activities.

To assist the Groups in marketing of their products, Jan Shikshan Sansthan Gaya contacts the potential buyers like schools, educational institutions, army training centre and traders. In addition to this, it organizes melas/exhibitions from time to time and participates in ‘exhibition-cum-sale mela’ organized by other organizations in and outside Gaya. The beneficiaries are reported to have produced and marketed about 32 types of items valued at about Rs. 21 lakhs and 60 women beneficiaries sharing the profits under the scheme (Jena & Mathew, 2008).

2.8.4 Jan Shikshan Sansthan Haldia

The Director, Jan Shikshan Sansthan Haldia in his article ‘Vocation-linked Literacy: An innovative activity to alleviate poverty’ states that Jan Shikshan Sansthan Haldia working in Purba-Medinipur district in West Bengal has taken specific components to train its beneficiaries according to their real-life livelihood. With literacy-linked skill learning in progress in 21 blocks of

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1 Various programmes conducted by other Jan Shikshan Sansthans across India in providing employment opportunities to the groups in focus has been extensively reported by Jena and Mathew (2008).
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the districts, the following programmes are offered to the poor and illiterate people in the region:

Agriculture

- Vermicomposting: Pre-testing of soil, organic-carbon testing of soil, vermicompost making and vermicomposting application.
- Seed farming: Existing seed preservation methods, seed-making technology, seed-preservation technology and use.
- Mushroom farming: Cultivation, consumption and marketing.

Fishery

- Pond fishery: Pre-testing and pre-maintenance of water, natural food in ponds, fish growth, consumption and marketing.
- Ornamental fishery.
- Dry fishery: Skill-updating for dry-fishery.

Animal Rearing

- Vaccination and deworming as the new work.
- Local food availability and fortification techniques.
- Consumption of meat, egg and marketing.

Jan Shikshan Sansthan Haldia, since its inception in 2000, has initiated mushroom-production courses for illiterate and neo-literate women in
many villages and trained about 450 women during the period 2001 to 2005.

A study-material has been developed for ‘Vocation-Linked Literacy Education in Mushroom’ which can strengthen underprivileged persons enormously within a very short period of time, both from the angle of learning and earning. Directorate of Adult Education has made a curriculum titled ‘Mushroom Cultivation and Marketing’ which may very well appear as the fulcrum for all the Jan Shikshan Sansthans of the country in respect of one of the far-reaching literacy and skill empowerment programmes of the National Literacy Mission (Mukhopadhayay, 2006, p. 15).

The ‘Events and News’ in the National Literacy Mission on ‘A Better World for Women’ has highlighted a master book binding unit at Peringottukara by the Jan Shikshan Sansthan Thrissur. Ms. Fareeda who studied only up to Standard X, was one of the trainees in the 15 days Book Binding Course conducted by Jan Shikshan Sansthan Thrissur at Peringottukara in March 2001. After completing the training Fareeda set up her masters book binding unit in her own house, for which she availed a loan of Rs. 50,000 from the local co-operative bank. She prepares note books for school and college going students, makes
different kinds of registers for use in offices and other establishments, make file covers and variety of similar items suitable for her clients. In the process she is providing employment to 7 women who also had got trained by Sansthan later. Ms. Fareeda has been able to repay the whole amount of loan taken from the bank by 2004 and earning on an average Rs. 5,000 per month. Fareeda also works as a resource person for Sansthan in conducting Book Binding training course in the nearby areas and when required (JSS Thrissur, 2005, p. 8).

2.9 Technology and Women Entrepreneurs

Women have not made obvious improvement through innovation and application in the productive aspect in the ‘private sphere’ traditionally assigned to them. The socio-economic status of women started changing after industrialization so as to draw women out of their household and involve them in outdoor occupations. Technology has been different and has touched the interests of women only to exploit them as consumers. It is essential for any entrepreneur, male or female who does not have technical background, to learn the technical aspects before taking it to entrepreneurs; they need technical orientation in monitoring and controlling production. Hence with experience in training women entrepreneurs, Hina Shah (quoted
in Janaki, 2008) suggests the following inputs to get rid of the fear of technology and to orient women technically:

- Factory visit to industrial area
- Discussions with successful men and women entrepreneurs
- In-plant assignment in small enterprises unit
- Familiarity with production process and quality control.

The Entrepreneurship Development Programme organized for women, besides the essential awareness component of gender bias, should include the outlined programmes to make women technical entrepreneurs who cannot only develop technology and commercialize it but who are motivated to do so for their own personal gains. It demands a lot of work from committed experts and trainers with knowledge of structural and constructive problems. Reasons for poor involvement of women in technological advancement are:

- lack of educational and training facilities available to women to study science and technology
- lack of technical education and training
- lack of women-specific occupations and employment
- social and cultural barriers.
Some of the recommendations were to mainstream women of all strata of society through the educational system, vocationalization, training and skill formation for generation of employment and higher levels of productivity and to restructure school education in terms of multi-skill formation to cater to the demands of industries in the region and nation (Janaki, 2008).

2.10 Evaluative Studies

2.10.1 Evaluatory Study by the TATA Institute of Social Sciences

Jacob Aikara of the Tata Institute of Social Science has carried out an evaluatory study of the Shramik Vidyapeeths and published a report (1993). Among other things the researcher says that the Director and Chairman should be endowed with adequate powers. Seminars and conferences should be conducted by the Directorate of Adult Education (DAE) more effectively. The Quarterly Progress Report needs to be simplified. The role of the Programme Advisory Committee should be strengthened. The SVP should serve the relatively deprived among industrial workers also. Fees collected from the trainees should be reduced. Innovative courses may be thought of. Exclusively literacy programmes should be made polyvalent. Long-duration courses should be shortened. Course evaluation is a must. Shramik Vidyapeeth should remain a non-formal programme and not offer
Diplomas. The trainees may be assisted to secure loans for self-employment. The government should continue to finance Shramik Vidyapeeths (Aikara, 1993).

2.10.2 Evaluatory Study by the Indian Institute of Management, Bengaluru

The Indian Institute of Management Bengaluru also carried out an evaluatory study of Jan Shikshan Sansthan Chennai and published a report (2004). The period of evaluation was of 5 years from 1999–2000 to 2003–2004. A total of 107 beneficiaries undergoing various courses, both at Jan Shikshan Sansthan campus and at collaborating training centres were personally interviewed. Personal interviews and focus group discussion were held with all the programme functionaries including chairman of BOM, director, programme functionaries, administrative staff members, resource persons at Jan Shikshan Sansthan and instructors at collaborating training centres outside Jan Shikshan Sansthan campus. Detailed discussions were also held with a former director of Jan Shikshan Sansthan Chennai. Jan Shikshan Sansthan Chennai was rated according to selected parameters and the overall performance of Jan Shikshan Sansthan Chennai was below average as per the grading scheme provided by DAE.
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The salient findings included the predominance of male beneficiaries and those with formal education of Standard VIII and above, indicating that the objective of concentrating on the female beneficiaries and the neo-literate was not achieved to the full extent. Further, beneficiaries belonging to the high-income group outnumbered the low-income group.

Some of the recommendations were (i) to appoint a full-time director to resolve the organizational uncertainties being experienced, (ii) initiate a vibrant linkage with ZSS in order to identify appropriate beneficiaries, (iii) improve infrastructure facilities at Jan Shikshan Sansthan Chennai, and (iv) offer local-specific trades such as seafood processing, prawn and shrimp culture and canning which would provide better employment avenues for beneficiaries. (Tara & Nagadevara, 2004).

2.11 Research Studies

2.11.1 A Research Study by Jan Shikshan Sansthan Coimbatore

A research study on the employability of the Jan Shikshan Sansthan candidates done in 2007 by Mohan and Stephen has covered 354 respondents or 15 per cent of all those who underwent 75 different Jan Shikshan Sansthan courses between 2002 and 2006 in the city of Coimbatore.
Today more than half of them have a monthly income below Rs. 2,000 and who may be deemed BPL. Forty three more have an income of Rs. 2,001 to Rs. 5,000. The courses of study popular with low-income groups are as follows:

1. Turning
2. Refrigeration and Air Conditioning Technician
3. Two-wheeler Mechanism
4. Four-wheeler Mechanism
5. CNC Lathe Operation
6. Lab Technician Nursing Assistant
7. Operation Theatre Nursing Assistant
8. Maternity and Child Health Nursing Assistant
9. Beauty Culture and
10. Fashion Designing.

The better-off sections seem to prefer 4, 5, 9 and 10. Most of them have acquired mobile phones and two-wheelers. A few among them have become members of voluntary bodies, some even office-bearers.

The authors contend that their socio-economic status has looked up. If successful industries could offer mentorship to half the respondents who are self-employed, their enterprises will prosper. They also recommend financial
assistance and professional guidance from Multi National Companies (Mohan & Stephen, 2007).

2.11.2 A Research Study at West Africa

Hinzen (1991) in his research study on the ‘Training Opportunities in the Informal Sector of Freetown in Sierra Leone’ has defined informal sector as one that is characterized by

1. ease of entry
2. reliance of indigenous resources
3. family ownership of enterprise
4. small-scale of operation
5. labour intensive and adaptive technology
6. skills acquired outside the formal school system and
7. unregulated and competitive markets.

This research study throws light on training opportunities available in that country in the fields of tailoring, metal works, cookery, carpentry, shoe repair, construction work, hair dressing, laundry work and pressing, photography, watch repairing, repair of electrical and electronic devices. It is interesting that in this West African culture hair dressing and laundry work are deemed social services!


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2.12 Other Institutions

2.12.1 Bharatiya Yuva Shakti Trust

Bharatiya Yuva Shakti Trust (Trust helps disadvantaged youth turn Entrepreneurs), an India Inc initiative, plans to build an army of 30,000 mentors to train aspiring businessmen with target of 90,000 entrepreneurs by 2012. This is what the Bharatiya Yuva Shakti Trust (BYST), an entrepreneur development outfit of India Inc, plans for the economically disadvantaged youth. The objective is to be achieved through a massive mentorship programme for which the trust builds an army of 30,000 mentors — the guides who would help the aspiring entrepreneurs build their business.

Lakshmi V. Venkatesan, founding trustee and executive vice-president said that BYST would build a nationwide pool of 30,000 trained and accredited mentors in the next five years keeping in view the demand from various organizations, vocational institutions and banks. Further she said ‘The BYST, supported by the Confederation of Indian Industry, hopes that these mentors will train around 100,000 entrepreneurs, who in turn would create jobs for about 450,000 people. The process can also lead to a generation of wealth of over Rs. 3,000 crore at the grassroots’.

‘The course acquaints the learner to identify a business opportunity, communicate effectively with peers, lead by example, take risks, manage
multiple tasks, and compete and win. The course content also sensitizes the learner with issues related to gender, religion, social status and enables them to factor these in their daily interactions’, she explained.

It was pointed out that the BYST developed the concept of business mentoring in India in 1992. Their surveys indicate that mentoring benefits the entrepreneurs as well as the mentors. It provides an opportunity for mentors and entrepreneurs to build a network, both nationally and globally. The trust has also launched the BYST Growth Fund, under which it plans to provide further assistance to about 5–10 per cent of the 1,320 entrepreneurs it has already trained (Nichenametla, 2007).

2.12.2 Corporates in Setting Up Technical Institutions

All India Council for Technical Education (AICTE) nod for increase in seats: The Union Human Resource Development Minister Kapil Sibal said that AICTE will permit companies registered as non-profit entities to establish technical institutions with a reduction in the land requirement for non-rural areas to 2.5 acres from 3.5 acres. In a move to enhance the intake of stakeholders in technical colleges including engineering, the AICTE has allowed an increase in the number of seats from 40–60 to provide for larger number of seats and optimization of resources without having to set up new institutions in the area.
All companies or corporate houses registered as non-profit entities under section 25 of the Company’s Act, 1956 can set up technical institutions with no joint ventures. Public-private partnership will be permitted for setting up technical institutions or can be established under the build-operate-transfer (BOT) system. These schemes will be allowed in 241 districts where no AICTE approved institution exists. The Minister further added ‘The AICTE has been making a conscious effort to facilitate the stakeholders on establishing good technical institutions. In order that a planned and coordinated development is ensured in technical education, the AICTE will implement these relaxed norms from the coming academic year.’ As part of social responsibility, the AICTE-approved institutions will also be permitted to conduct evening courses for skill development based on expertise area possessed by the respective institutions. These institutions are expected to form clusters with other institutions in the neighbourhood and collaborate with the industries in the areas in running these skill-based programmes (Dhar, 2010).

Thus the emphasis on skill training programmes has proved the importance and necessity for skill training towards improving and standardizing the standard of life of the stakeholders.
2.13 Comment on the Realization of the Schemes

The unorganized sector which constitutes about 93 per cent of the workforce is not supported by any structural system of acquiring or upgrading skills. By and large, skill formation takes place through informal channels like family occupations, on-the-job training under master craftsmen with no linkages to the formal education training and certification. Training needs in this sector are highly diverse and multi-skill oriented. Many efforts for imparting training through Swarnajayanti Gram Swarojgar Yojana (SGSY), PMRY, KVIC, Krishi Vigyan Kendra (KVK) and Jan Shikshan Sansthan (JSS) are in place but the outcome is not encouraging (Eleventh Five Year Plan (2007–2012), 2008a, pp. 88–89).

2.14 The Skill Development Challenge

2.14.1 The Quantitative Dimension of the Skill Development Challenge

- 80 per cent of the new entrants to workforce have no opportunity for skill training. Against 12.8 million per annum new entrants to the workforce the existing training capacity is 3.1 million per annum.
• About 2 per cent of existing workforce has skill training against 96 per cent in Korea, 75 per cent in Germany, 80 per cent in Japan and 68 per cent in the United Kingdom.

2.14.2 The Quantitative Aspect of the Skill Shortage
‘The NSS 61st Round Survey on Employment and Unemployment indicates that educational institutions attendance rate (5–14 years) drop by nearly half in the age group 15–19 years and by 86 per cent after the age 15 years. Labour force participation rates rise sharply after the age of 14 years and reach close to 100 per cent at the age of 25–29 years. The said results also reflect that 38.8 per cent of the Indian labour force is illiterate, 24.9 per cent of the labour force has had schooling up to the primary level and the balance 36.3 per cent has had schooling up to the middle and higher level. They also reveal that about 80 per cent of the workforce in rural and urban areas do not possess any identifiable marketable skills’ (Eleventh Five Year Plan (2007–2012), 2008a, p. 89).

2.14.3 The Qualitative Aspect of the Skill Shortage
The Eleventh Five Year Plan (2007–2012) reports that ‘A basic problem with the skill development system is that the system is non-responsive to labour market, due to a demand–supply mismatch on several counts:
numbers, quality and skill types. It is also seen that the inflexibilities in the course/curriculum set-up, lead to over supply in some trades and shortages in others. Of the trained candidates, the labour market outcomes as seen from placement/absorption rates are reportedly very low.’

The report states that the institutional spread in the Vocational Educational Training system shows acute regional disparity with over half of the training institutes located in the southern States, both in terms of number of institutions as well as the number of seats. ‘The quality of the training system is also a matter of concern, as the infrastructural facilities, tool/kits, faculty, curriculum are reportedly substandard. The existing institutions also lack financial and administrative autonomy. The testing, certification and accreditation system is reportedly weak, and since the deliverables are not precisely defined, there is no effort at evaluating outcomes and tracking placements. The problem is further complicated with lack of industry–faculty interaction on course curricula and other factors’ (Eleventh Five Year Plan (2007–2012), 2008a, p. 89).

2.15 Poverty

Poverty is pronounced deprivation in well-being, and comprises many dimensions. It includes low incomes and the inability to acquire the basic goods and services necessary for survival with dignity. Poverty also
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encompasses low levels of health and education, poor access to clean water and sanitation, inadequate physical security, lack of voice, and insufficient capacity and opportunity to better one’s life (World Bank, 2006).

According to Sen (1999), poverty in its most general sense is the lack of necessities. Examples of necessities are, basic food, shelter, health, and safety based on shared values of human dignity. Needs may be relative to what is possible and are based on social definition and past experience.

The Encyclopaedia Britannica (2013) describes poverty and its types as follows:

Poverty: ‘the state of one who lacks a usual or socially acceptable amount of money or material possessions. Poverty is said to exist when people lack the means to satisfy their basic needs. In this context, the identification of poor people first requires a determination of what constitutes basic needs. These may be defined as narrowly as “those necessary for survival” or as broadly as “those reflecting the prevailing standard of living in the community.” The first criterion would cover only those people near the borderline of starvation or death from exposure; the second would extend to people whose nutrition, housing, and clothing, though adequate to preserve life, do not measure up to those of the population as a whole. The
problem of definition is further compounded by the noneconomic connotations that the word poverty has acquired. Poverty has been associated, for example, with poor health, low levels of education or skills, an inability or an unwillingness to work, high rates of disruptive or disorderly behaviour, and improvidence. While these attributes have often been found to exist with poverty, their inclusion in a definition of poverty would tend to obscure the relation between them and the inability to provide for one’s basic needs. Whatever definition one uses, authorities and laypersons alike commonly assume that the effects of poverty are harmful to both individuals and society’.

The types of poverty (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2013) depending on factors as time or duration follows:

(i) Cyclical poverty which refers to poverty that may be widespread throughout a population, but the occurrence itself is of limited duration,

(ii) Collective poverty which involves a relatively permanent insufficiency of means to secure basic needs—a condition that may be so general as to describe the average level of life in a society or that may be concentrated in relatively large groups in an otherwise
prosperous society. Both generalized and concentrated collective poverty may be transmitted from generation to generation, parents passing their poverty on to their children. It is usually related to economic underdevelopment,

(iii) Concentrated collective poverty wherein many industrialized, relatively affluent countries, particular demographic groups are vulnerable to long-term poverty. The victims found in regions bypassed or abandoned by industry, and in areas where agriculture or industry is inefficient and cannot compete profitably with higher mortality rates, poor health, low educational levels. Their chief economic traits are unemployment and underemployment, unskilled occupations, and job instability, and

(iv) Case poverty which refers to the inability of an individual or family to secure basic needs even in social surroundings of general prosperity. This inability is generally related to the lack of some basic attribute that would permit the individual to maintain himself or herself.

2.15.1 Poverty Line

Bhattacharya (1989, p. 2) stated that the concept of poverty line was first mooted in India by the Indian Labour Conference in 1957. The Government
of India had set up a distinguished group in 1962 which had taken into account the recommendation of the Nutrition Advisory Committee of the Indian Council of Medical Research in 1958 and came to the view that in order to provide the minimum nutritional diet in terms of calorie intake and to allow for a modest degree of items other than food, the national minimum per capita consumption expenditure should not be less than Rs.20/- per month at 1960–1961 prices. Further the group suggested that for urban areas, the minimum should be raised to Rs.20/- per capita and the corresponding figure for rural areas would be Rs.18.90/-.

Planning Commission (1993) states that defining a poverty line is the first step in estimating poverty. A poverty line dividing the poor from the non-poor is used by putting a price on the minimum required consumption levels of food, clothing, shelter, fuel and health care, etc. The definition of poverty line in the Indian context was attempted for the first time in 1962 by a Working Group of eminent Economists and social thinkers after taking into account the recommendations of the Nutrition Advisory Committee of the Indian Council of Medical Research in 1958 regarding balanced diet. The report holds the seminal work of Dandekar and Rath on their use of an average calorie norm of 2,250 calories per capita per day for both rural and urban areas, as a
criterion to define the poverty line. It further states that poverty estimates will vary according to the base year chosen for defining the poverty line. The all-India rural poverty line of Rs.49 at 1973–1974 prices was taken as the base according to the rural cost of living across States and for urban areas, the all India poverty line of Rs.56.6 for 1973–1974 was adopted as the base.

The poverty line is based on the expenditure necessary to buy a minimum standard of nutrition and other necessities (World Bank, 1990).

As regards the estimates of the poor in India as early as in 1960–1961 roughly 40% of the rural population and 50% of the urban population were living below poverty line (Rao, 2011).

Shivakumar (2013) in his article ‘Poverty levels down by 15% in eight years’ in the Hindu has stated that poverty levels across India decreased by 15 per cent – approximately 2 per cent year over year – between 2004–2005 and 2011–2012, as per the latest National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO). According to NSSO, the percentage of the country’s population living below the poverty line declined from 37 per cent in 2004–2005 to 22 per cent in 2011–2012. He said in view of many economists and government officials the significant reductions in
poverty levels can be correlated to high economic growth rates. He mentioned, the 11th Plan (2007–2008 to 2011–2012) had targeted reducing poverty by two percentage points by 2009–2010, compared to 2004–2005. And that rural poverty has declined faster than urban poverty during the said period with where the data indicated the steepest decline in poverty was in India’s poorer states like Bihar with the percentage of the population living below poverty line coming down from 55 per cent in 2004–2005 to some 35 per cent in 2011–2012 and Gujarat from 31 per cent in 2004–2005 to 16 per cent in 2011–2012, whereas in Rajasthan, 0.6 crore were lifted out of poverty in the same period and in Andhra Pradesh a noteworthy decline in urban poverty from 23 per cent in 2005 to 6 per cent in 2011–2012.

2.16 Theories on Poverty and Approaches to Determination of Poverty

Rowntree (1901) used the Absolute Poverty theory for his determination of poverty where he only focused on the individualistic pattern of estimation. Absolute poverty, which is also known as subsistence poverty since it is based on assessments of minimum subsistence requirements, is usually measured by pricing the basic necessities of life, drawing a poverty line in
terms of this price, and defining as poor those whose income falls below that level. Rowntree did not involve any public participation where poverty would just be the be all and end all of a person’s individual income. His poverty would not be determined in relation to the other aspects of his livelihood, i.e. his age, the type of society where he resides, his physical and mental conditions.

Townsend (1974) used the relative poverty concept for his determination of poverty. The concept of relative poverty comprised of measurement of minimum requirements taking into consideration reasonable and acceptable standard of living according to the conventions of that society. Thus a person is considered to be relatively poor if his resources are seriously below the average individual or family of that society where he belongs and is thus excluded from ordinary living patterns, customs and activities of that society. Townsend focused on only the resource based approach where the person’s resources were compared to the general average resources of the society where he would reside and if his resources fell from that level he would be considered to be suffering from poverty.

Hence it is seen that the basic approach for both Rowntree and Townsend were almost similar that is, resources being the only
consideration for determining whether a person was poor or not. The only difference which was prevalent in Townsend’s approach was that he involved public participation of the society where the person resided while he determined the average resource level for the society.

Sen (1999) considered that a person’s resources cannot be considered to be the determining factor for him to be poor. He focused on the capabilities of the person rather than the income because the income of a person was only a means to his ends and that very end was capability itself. Thus he shed the resource based approach of his predecessors and came up with the capabilities deprivation approach which he also termed as substantive freedom. The approach Sen involved factors which had never been considered before for the estimation of poverty like the age of a person, the various infirmities a person was suffering from, and the society where a person resided to be some of the few essential determinants of a person’s poverty.

Marx (1848) based his conflict theory on the idea that modern society has only two classes of people: the bourgeoisie and the proletariat. The bourgeoisie are the owners of the means of production: the factories, business, and equipment needed to produce wealth. The proletariat are the workers. According to Marx, the bourgeoisie in
capitalist societies exploit workers. The owners pay them enough to afford food and a place to live, and the workers, who do not realize they are being exploited, have a false consciousness, or a mistaken sense, that they are well off. Poverty of the proletariat grows with increasing exploitation of labour. ‘In every mode of production there is exploitation of man by man, the social product is so distributed that the majority of people, the people who labour, are condemned to toil for no more than the barest necessities of life. On the other hand, a minority, the owners of means of production, the property owners, enjoy leisure and luxury. Society is divided into rich and poor’. Thus according to Marxian viewpoint, poverty is the result of exploitation and not of scarcity.

Structural functionalism, or simply functionalism, is a framework for building theory that sees society as a complex system whose parts work together to promote solidarity and stability. The structural functionalism approach is a macrosociological analysis, with a broad focus on social structures that shape society as a whole (Gerber, 2010, p. 19). This theory believes that society is an organized harmonious institutions. For example, education, religion, and economics all function together. Every Institution serves a function. The theory
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focuses on the structure of things and can be used to analyze the effects that structure has on poverty. The structure of a family directly impacts their likelihood of living in poverty. Structural Functionalism holds the beliefs that poverty would not exist if it don’t serve a function. Functionalist say that poverty contributes social order, as the poor are forced to work together for a common gain.

The cumulative and cyclical interdependencies theory originated from the works of Myrdal (1957) looks at the individuals and their community as in a spiral of opportunities and problems. Hence, the individual and community resources are mutually dependent. He argued that personal and community well-being are closely linked in a cascade of negative consequences. Thus the interdependence of factors creating poverty actually accelerates once a cycle of decline starts. For example, at the community level, a lack of employment opportunities leads to migration, closing retail stores and declining local tax revenue leads to deterioration of schools and to poorly trained workers, resulting in firms not being able to utilize technology fully, which in turn leads back to lack of employment. This cycle also repeats itself at the individual level. The lack of employment leads to lack of consumption and spending due to inadequate incomes, and to inadequate savings, where the individuals
cannot invest in training, and also lacks the ability to invest in businesses or to start their own businesses, which leads to lack of expansion, erosion of market and disinvestment, all of which leads back to inadequate opportunities.

Since poverty is not just from one cause but many, the measures of anti-poverty programmes needs to be equally complex.

2.17 Anti-poverty Programmes for Community Development based on Theories

Bradshaw (2006) has explored five competing theories of poverty that shaped anti-poverty strategies. The approach was to review strategically selected programmes and approaches used by communities to address poverty in the United States. The task was to look in the literature for theoretical explanations of poverty that link up with the practices that were at the core of community development. He identified set of variables that were most significantly associated with causing poverty, the mechanisms by these variables causing poverty, the potential strategies that can be addressed in response to poverty, and finally community based examples of how anti-poverty programmes based on that particular theory were implemented. The five theories of poverty and the programmes are as follows:
1. Poverty caused by Individual Deficiencies: This first theory of poverty focused on the individual as responsible for their poverty situation. The causes regarded were individual laziness, bad choice, incompetence, inherent disabilities. This theory rewards those who work hard and punishes those who do not work hard or makes bad choices. The potential community development responses were to counter efforts to individualize poverty, provide assistance and safety net in areas like drug rehabilitation, second chance programmes, making safety net easier to access, use training and counseling to help poor individuals overcome problems.

2. Poverty caused by Cultural Belief Systems that Support Sub-Cultures of Poverty: The second theory of poverty roots its cause in the culture of poverty. The causes were adoption of values that were non-productive and contrary to norms of success. The peer groups set wrong values and reinforce wrong behaviours. The potential community development responses were to use community to the advantage of the poor; value diverse cultures, acculturation, and community building; alternative socialization through forming new peer groups and the measures included
leadership development within sub-cultures and asset based community development.

3. Poverty caused by Economic, Political, and Social Distortions or Discrimination: The third theory focused on the economic, political, and social system which causes people to have limited opportunities and resources with which to achieve income and well being. The causes were the systematic barriers which prevented the poor from access and accomplishment in key social institutions including jobs, education housing, health care, safety and political representation. This theory excludes some groups of persons based on inappropriate criteria. The potential community development responses were Community organizing and advocacy to gain political and economic power to achieve change; create alternative organizations and the measures to reduce poverty were to frame policies to force inclusion and enforcement.

4. Poverty caused by Geographical Disparities: The fourth theory calls attention to the fact that people, institutions, and cultures in certain areas lack the objective resources needed to generate well being and income, and that they lack the power to claim redistribution. The causes of Social advantages and disadvantages concentrate in
separate areas. He states that agglomeration, distance, economies of scale, and resource distributions reinforce differences and the potential community development responses includes national redistributions, concentration of development on local assets like redevelopment areas, downtowns, rural networking, urban revitalization.

5. Poverty caused by Cumulative and Cyclical Interdependencies: Fifth theory looks at the individual and their community as caught in a spiral of opportunity and problems. The spirals of poverty, problems for individuals like earnings, housing, health, education, self confidence are interdependent and strongly linked to community deficiencies as loss of business and jobs, inadequate schools and inability to provide social services. The community level crises lead to individual crises and vice versa, and each cumulate to cause spirals of poverty. The potential community development response were breaking the spiral of poverty with a spiral of success through a comprehensive programme that addresses both individual and community issues like comprehensive programmes to build self-sufficiency in a community reinforced environment, programmes that link
individuals and community organizations, and asset based approaches.

Muktar (2011) opined stated that most studies of poverty alleviation that adopted different theoretical underpinnings in order to find a workable solution to their subject matter were more concerned with alleviating poverty without giving due attention to its root cause. Muktar further prescribed the following three focal points that should structure poverty alleviation programmes:

1. Comprehensiveness: Develop comprehensive programmes that include a variety of services and that try to bridge the individual and community needs.

2. Collaboration: Collaboration among different organizations to provide complementary services so that by their combination of efforts, the output is greater than could be done by each one alone. Collaboration involves networks among participants, though the coordination can vary from formal to informal.

3. Community Organizing: Finally, community organizing as a tool the local people participate to understand how their personal lives and the community well being are intertwined. Breaking the cycle of poverty must include individuals to participate as a community
in the process, just like individuals create the spiral downward when they and their community interact in a cycle of failure. For the poor, empowerment is central to this issue.

He further noted that it is interesting that this is the approach to poverty alleviation that is the least commonly described in the poverty literature, but community based examples are what are brought out whenever successes are discussed. A key piece of this comprehensive approach to helping individuals from poverty is that the government in no way can do all of this for every person but help groups of poor people build supportive communities with shared trust and mutuality.

2.18 Relevance to Social Work Profession

Earlier poverty was known as distress and the material help was given to the people who did not have food or money or sufficient clothing and shelter. But in the early twentieth century, the distress was redefined and was known as intrapersonal and interpersonal discomfort, with this shift from poverty to psychiatric discomfort (problem of living), the will to help was assessed inefficient and the helpers needed training to provide the proper help. This make the profession of Social Work more essential.
2.18.1 Social Work as a Profession

Historically, Social Work has been very largely carried on by persons who volunteered their services for philanthropic activities. Social Work differs from the various sciences in that it is a profession.

Joshi (2004) asserts, “The word “profession” connotes skill or artisary. Social Work has a definite ameliorative and creative function in society. It uses knowledge to meet human needs; in this sense it is an applied science as well. The augmenting of skill by knowledge is important for Social Work, but it is not the complete story of the development of professional competence. Knowledge, understanding, and skill – all are parts of the Social Worker’s background”.

2.18.2 Social Work Practices

Social Work is often divided into three broad practice categories as follows (Bchilds, 2012):

1. Macro level: Macro level Social Work is the interventions provided on a large scale that affect entire communities and systems of care. The practice of macro Social Work is the effort to help clients by intervening in large systems. It includes lobbying to change a law, organizing a activist group or
advocating for large-scale social policy change. Macro practice is one of the key distinctions between Social Work and other helping professions, such as psychiatric therapy. Macro Social Work generally addresses issues experienced in mezzo or micro Social Work practice, as well as Social Work Research. Macro practice empowers clients by involving them in systemic change.

2. Mezzo level: Mezzo level Social Work happens on an intermediate scale, involving neighbourhoods, institutions or other smaller groups. Mezzo Social Work practice deals with small-to-medium-sized groups, such as neighbourhoods, schools or other local organizations.

3. Micro level: Micro level Social Work is the most common practice, and happens directly with an individual client or family. In Micro Social Work, the Social Worker engages with individuals or families to solve problems which includes helping individuals to find appropriate housing, health care and social services.

These three levels of Social Work practice at times overlap and always influence each other.
Goyal (1980) asserted that poverty implies deprivation, inequality, social injustice and riches of some at the cost of many others. He further stated that (i) the goal of Social Work, will be the creation of a social order based on principles of equality, justice and fraternity, and as a sub-system Social Work will promote the goals of the system of which it is a part, (ii) the individual and society are seen as inseparable beings and, Social Work is not content with enabling the individuals or groups only, but is concerned deeply with the total milieu.

2.18.3 Professional Role of a Social Worker

Joshi (2004) has described the various Roles of a Professional Social Worker in serving his clients as follows:

- As a care giver he counsels and supports people with problems in a therapeutic way to promote change.
- As a consultant he works with individuals and groups to assist in their problems and programmes.
- As a broker he helps people to reach the services they need and makes the system more useful.
- As a mobiliser he tries to bring new resources to the individual and groups. He gathers and analyses information for programme planning and evaluation working as data manager.
• As an evaluator he evaluates the weaknesses and strengths of individuals and groups, their needs and problems.
• As an advocate he works for the improvement of policies and laws in order to make system more effective.
• As referral agent he refers the individuals and groups to use the services available in other agencies.

2.18.4 Poverty and Social Work Profession
Singh (1980) stated that the profession of Social Work began with the organization of charity and relief and remedy have dominated its focus. With the early influence of psychiatry and status concerns of the professionals, medical model was uncritically adopted which led to the discovery of poverty in the character defects of individuals. He asserted that the profession since its very beginning has been striving to strike a balance between two conflicting orientations characterized by cause and function, relief and reform, welfare and development where the first set of foci has remained more in favour than the second.

The Social Work education and practice in India started in the thirties with the establishment of Sir Dorabji Tata Graduate School of Social Work in 1936, which was renamed later as Tata Institute of Social Sciences which gradually became the pace-setter for other Schools of Social Work in India.
And the education for Social Work started at the post-graduate level with specializations by fields as distinguished from methods.

The National Association of Social Workers (2012) on poverty mentioned that poverty continues to plague a country rich in material, cultural and educational resources. It states the importance of Social Work in addressing poverty at the individual, community and national levels. As poverty results from a number of factors that include political, social, and economic dynamics. Social Workers’ training in systems theory gives them a firm grounding in understanding the nature of poverty and its roots.

People living in poverty often need increased access to affordable childcare, low-income housing options, mental health treatment, and educational and employment opportunities. Professional Social Workers tackle the complex issue of poverty through community organizing in poor neighbourhoods. Community organizing utilizes the community’s assets and combines them with additional resources to build up the local systems that support health, education and financial viability. It emphasizes a poor community’s strengths as opposed to its weaknesses. Social Workers empower community residents to be active in leading these efforts by lending their professional skills to facilitate and support local initiatives. Besides addressing poverty on the individual and community levels, Social
Workers strive to fight poverty on a national scale. In all of these efforts, Social Workers use their training to look beyond the symptoms and get to the root causes of poverty.

2.18.5 The Role of Professional Social Worker in Poverty Alleviation

The role of Professional Social Worker in Poverty Alleviation through Vocational Training as identified by the Rehabilitation Council of India (2013) are as follows:

- Development of pre-vocational & vocational Skills
- Vocational Rehabilitation Counselling
- Livelihood programmes
- Disability rights and status in India - policy and programmes
- Community based Rehabilitation and Advocacy
- Access for (any) disability groups
- Basic research & documentation
- Vocational assessment, job analysis, job identification and job selection
- Basic counseling skills
- Gender Dimensions of Disability in the Indian Context
• Building anti-oppressive strength perspectives based partnership for Social Work practice
• Management of Rehab Programmes for the Disabled
• Family-centred Interventions with Families of Children and Adults with Disabilities.

2.18.6 The Role of Social Workers

The role of social workers as noted by Nairobi (2010) are as follows:

1. increased attention is community development in community analysis, social planning, community organizing and social action with an ability to foster economic opportunities for area residents through work on industrial retention, local business development, job training, and placement.

2. to help people to discover their own resources and their own ability to create influence and positive change.

3. making tough judgements about risk to individuals and at times to use their ability and influence to protect the victims of poverty from themselves or from others in situations of domestic violence, child abuse or mental health.

4. combining individuals and families with community work, focusing on enhancing resources and opportunities along with
personal capacities and as individuals develop out of their poverty situations, so do communities.

Thus creating a comprehensive and integrated model that addresses social and economic exclusion and social disintegration which is necessary for effective poverty eradication.

2.18.7 Methods of Social Work Intervention on Eradication of Poverty

Some of the methods of Social Work intervention on eradication of poverty and implication of Social Work practice pertaining to the basic concepts and the steps in the Social Work process given by Goyal (1980) are as follows:

1. The basic concepts in Social Work Intervention includes (i) belief in human worth and dignity, (ii) recognition of ability of people for self-determination, (iii) undesirability of social suffering and obligations of social alleviation of sufferings, (iv) acceptance of multiple causation of human problems, (v) need for objective understanding of individual and collective behaviour as fundamental to solution of the problems, (vi) reliance on individual initiative, (vii) place of social system in the causation of human suffering, and (viii) the need and desirability of change in the system.
2. Steps in the process of social intervention include (i) study (fact finding), (ii) diagnosis (determination of causal relationships), (iii) prognosis (planning for treatment, help, remedy or reform), (iv) action (treatment or undertaking of measures to alleviate suffering) and, (v) evaluation.

2.19 Social Work Intervention in UNESCO (2006) Supported Programme


2.19.1 The Programme

In order to empower vulnerable and marginalised youth, UYDEL provides them with vocational and livelihood training in different skills or trades including hairdressing, tailoring, motor mechanics, carpentry, electronics, welding, and cookery. In addition, UYDEL also provides programme participants with life skills training with particular focus on health issues
including HIV/AIDS, reproductive health, nutrition, child-rearing, peer-counselling, drug and alcohol (substance) abuse. The skills training programme primarily endeavours to empower socioeconomically marginalised and vulnerable youth and, by extension, their equally disadvantaged families and communities.

2.19.2 Aims and Objectives of the Programme

- To equip vulnerable youth from marginalised communities with entrepreneurial and related functional literacy skills
- To create sustainable learning opportunities that nurture youth empowerment and socioeconomic inclusion
- To provide out-of-school youth from marginalised communities with marketable livelihood/vocational skills in order to enhance their employment (formal and/or informal) opportunities
- To empower youth to establish viable income generating projects (poverty alleviation)
- To break the cycle of youth marginalisation and vulnerability that undermines individual, community and national development prospects
- To raise awareness of and combat the spread of HIV/AIDS
2.19.3 Programme Implementation: Approaches and Methods

- Institutional cooperation: Professionals, including academics and development specialists, played a critical role in the development and implementation of UYDEL’s programmes. The Government, Non-government and the Community Based Organizations were involved in strengthening the capacity of UYDEL in the implementation of programmes.

- Recruitment of facilitators and local artisans: Two professional Social Workers were recruited to act as the key programme facilitators. The facilitators were responsible for community mobilisation, coordinating and monitoring programme activities, implementing public awareness campaigns and identifying and placing learners with local artisans who are skilled practitioners in selected vocational trades. Artisans identified were visited by the Social Workers to assess their willingness and capacity to train the youth. Based on the Social Workers’ assessments and recommendations, UYDEL then signed a memorandum of understanding with the artisans, specifying issues such as training, fees, period, and each party’s expectations. Recruited artisans were
provided with basic programme orientation training to train the learners.

- Recruitment of learners: The identification, assessment and recruitment of vulnerable youth into the programme was done in different ways and by various stakeholders, including the youth themselves referring their peers to the programme, and community-based parents’ support groups, community leaders, artisans and activists identifying affected and vulnerable youth. The programme facilitators (Social Workers) also undertake regular visits and hold discussions with youth on non-formal education programmes. During such visits, the Social Workers also ascertain the identified youth’s levels of socio-economic vulnerability, education and interest in order to screen them for appropriate vocational skills training placement. The pre-enrolment assessment, counselling and mentoring of potential learners was intended to ensure that only the most disadvantaged and deserving youth were enrolled into the programme as well as helping the youth to make an informed choice with regards to their potential vocational training.
Chapter 2: Review of Literature

- Teaching-learning approaches and methods: The training of learners was primarily through the use of participatory methods (i.e. action-based). To this end, all learners were placed under the mentorship of master artisans and as such, training is characterised by three major approaches: ‘learning by doing, learning by producing and learning by earning’. Learning by producing and earning was central to the training of the youth. Additionally, participatory teaching-learning methods were also essential because most artisans and learners do not have formal education beyond primary level.

Apart from informal training, UYDEL often provided formal instruction which included seminars, group discussions/debates, story-telling and lectures to facilitate the integration of health education into the programme. A number of easy-to-read learning materials such as booklets, pamphlets and posters were used to enable facilitators to effectively conduct health education classes. Some of the reading materials included (i) manuals with information on HIV/AIDS related issues, (ii) adolescent sexual reproductive health training curriculum for young people (produced by the Ministry of Health, UNFPA and WHO), (iii) peer educators training curriculum to
promote adolescent reproductive health, and (iv) Peer-to-Peer Drug Abuse Prevention Handbook.

2.19.4 Assessment of Learners

The assessment of learners and evaluation of learning/training outcome was conducted on an ongoing basis by programme facilitators or Social Workers, UYDEL field supervisors and master artisans. The Social Worker and UYDEL field supervisors conduct regular visits to the master artisans’ work places in order to assess the training progress and any challenges being encountered as well as to ascertain the artisan’s capacity to train the youth. The Social Worker and UYDEL field supervisors also use the field visits to identify behavioural changes in the youths and to provide them with ongoing psychosocial counselling, support and guidance.

2.19.5 Impact of the Programme

The evaluation report by UNESCO identified the following key contributions of the programme on youth and societal development and well-being:

- Employment generation, poverty alleviation and behavioural change: a majority of the youth who completed training in various vocational trades were gainfully employed. This not only enabled
them to be self-reliant but also improved their quality (standard) of life.

The youths’ ability to support themselves as well as to contribute to their families’ subsistence has inevitably raised their living standards, imbued them with a sense of self-worth, positive attitudes and future perspectives and improved their social standing.

- Youth and community empowerment: the programme equipped the youth with practical life and vocational (marketable) skills as they were less vulnerable to manipulation and exploitation by employers as they were better able to negotiate their employment conditions including levels of remuneration. Furthermore, it also enabled youth to establish their own income generating enterprises, thereby generating more employment opportunities for other youth in their communities. In addition, public awareness about HIV/AIDS led to discernible changes in the youths’ sexual behaviour.

- Social transformation and cohesion: the use of local artisans as youth trainers and social mentors has helped to foster social cohesion. In addition, the programme has also inculcated the youth
with a sense of social or civic responsibility which has, potentially, fostered family and cohesion as well as prevented some youth from engaging in anti-social behaviour including violent crime.

- The programme has also boasted the business activities of master artisans who can now employ more youth and provide better services to their communities.

2.19.6 The Challenges

The key challenges cited in the UNESCO evaluation report are as follows:

- Lack of resources: programme funding from UNESCO has been limited. For example, the grant from UNESCO did not cover the costs for the purchase of training tools, clothing and protective gear and transport to training centres.

- Some local artisans who were engaged by the programme had limited equipment/tools which resulted in a negative impact on their ability to effectively train the youth.

- Time limitations: the trainees were supposed to complete the skills training programme in three months which was felt too short to enable trainees to effectively acquire practical skills.
• Some of the trades such as carpentry and motor vehicle mechanics have seasonal customers. This affected the learning process since the trainees learn as they earn.

• Some trainees were demotivated by the fact that some artisans do not pay them despite the contributions they make to the growth of their businesses.

• Artisans have also raised concerns that some youth who dropped out of school or never attended school tend to have difficulties in grasping the basic practical concepts necessary for skills acquisition.

2.19.7 The Lessons Learnt

The lessons learnt during the course of the project implementation include:

• Community mobilisation and involvement of key community leaders, parents and the youth themselves is central to the success and sustainability of non-formal educational programmes. Community participation was essential in identifying the most vulnerable and deserving youth from the communities.

• Professional networking and collaboration: the involvement of professionals from diverse fields was critical for the success of integrated youth-centric educational programmes.
• Integrated programming: because marginalised youth have multiple socioeconomic problems, it is imperative to institute holistic and integrated learning which addresses the problem. For example, literacy and business skills are central to enabling trainees to establish their own enterprises.

• Cost effectiveness: the use of local master artisans instead of formal vocational institutions is a more cost effective. Such initiatives proved to be cheaper in implementing non-formal youth educational programmes. It also served to expose trainees to specific realistic work conditions and the challenges as the local artisans understand the situations these youth are in and are better able to provide appropriate mentorship.

• Regular monitoring: a Social Worker needs to make regular visits and hold meetings with local artisans to monitor the progress of training. that helps to monitor problems during the training and to find solutions.


Having reviewed select literature on the topic, the next chapter gives an overview of the research methodology adopted for carrying the study.