UNIT - 1

UN declaration and its institutional contribution to women's education

- The Beijing Platform of Action of the UN Fourth World Conference on Women in 1995 recognized education as a basic human right and an essential tool for achieving more equal relations between women and men. States committed to ensuring a number of strategic objectives, including: equal access to education, the closing of the gender gap in primary and secondary education, and development of non-discriminatory education and training by developing and using curriculums, textbooks and teaching aids free of sex-stereotyping.

- Millennium Development Goal 2 calls for universal primary education. MDG 3 to “Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women”, has as one of its targets: “Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015”.

- Article 10 of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, details a number of measures which should be taken to eliminate discrimination against women in order to ensure to them equal rights with men in the field of education.

Institutional Mechanisms for the Advancement of Women

1. Global commitments- The strategic objectives in the Beijing Platform for Action identify three interrelated areas for attention with regard to institutional structures and strategies to promote action on all the priorities in the Platform for Action.

Create or strengthen national machineries and other governmental bodies.

Integrate gender perspectives in legislation, public policies, programmes and projects.

Generate and disseminate gender-disaggregated data and information for planning and evaluation.

The Platform for Action emphasizes that the national machinery for the advancement of women is the central policy-coordinating unit inside government. Its main task is to support government-wide mainstreaming of a gender equality perspective in all policy areas. All government ministries and agencies share responsibility for achieving progress toward equality between women and men.

A definition of gender mainstreaming was agreed by Member States through the United Nations Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) in 1997: Gender mainstreaming is “the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes,
in all areas and at all levels. It is a strategy for making women’s as well as men’s concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal is to achieve gender equality.” (ECOSOC conclusions 1997/2.)

Commitment to gender mainstreaming was reaffirmed at the 23rd special session of the General Assembly in 2000. The outcome document of that session calls upon governments to establish or reinforce existing institutional mechanisms at all levels to work with national machineries to strengthen societal support for gender equality, in cooperation with civil society, particularly women’s non-governmental organisations. It also emphasizes the need to strengthen national capacity to generate data for gender-based analysis and make this accessible to the public and policy makers.

World leaders meeting at the 2005 World Summit recognized the importance of gender mainstreaming as a tool for achieving gender equality. They undertook to actively promote the mainstreaming of a gender perspective in the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and progress in all political, economic and social spheres, and to strengthen the capabilities of the United Nations system in the area of gender equality.

The Commission on the Status of Women continues to pay attention to the issue and adopted agreed conclusions on institutional mechanisms in 2005 and 2006.

2. Progress at the national level - There has been some progress in relation to each of the three strategic objectives under this critical area of concern, as well as one particularly notable area of innovation – gender analysis of government budgets.

National machineries - By 2004, most countries had established some form of national machinery (some 165 countries reported having a national machinery, an increase from 127 in 1985). The type of agency varies greatly among countries, reflecting differences in government structures as well as political choices. Many governments took steps to strengthen the national machineries, including, for example, upgrading the machinery to a full ministry, increasing the status of the responsible minister, linking or locating the machinery with a more central or influential agency, and increasing the machinery’s human and/or financial resources. Many countries established focal points or offices in sectoral ministries at the national level, often coordinated by the national machinery, or established inter-ministerial committees. Special offices or focal points for women or gender equality were also established at municipal, district and provincial levels. A major development of the last decade was the creation of new mechanisms to complement the national machinery, such as a parliamentary committee on women’s rights, an advisory group to government, a commission that reports to parliament, an office of equal opportunities, an ombudsperson, or some combination of these structures. The increased number of mechanisms for promoting gender equality reflects better understanding of the responsibility at all levels of government for pursuing gender equality commitments. It has also increased the number and variety of actors promoting gender equality.

Gender mainstreaming strategies - Many countries have made their gender equality goals more explicit through the formulation of national gender equality policies and action plans guided by the Beijing Platform for Action commitments. Tools such as guidelines, checklists, handbooks and manuals have
been developed to support implementation. A range of initiatives has been undertaken to strengthen awareness and capacity of senior decision-makers and staff in key agencies and sectors. Workshops, training programmes, round-table discussions and conferences have been convened to raise awareness of the importance of gender equality for the achievement of national objectives in all sectors and to promote the use of gender analysis in formulating policies and programmes.

Momentum has also been provided by processes established to monitor the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action and related national policies. A number of countries have also made strategic use of the CEDAW reporting process. In some countries, monitoring processes led by the national machinery have resulted in feedback to particular ministries. In other countries monitoring has taken more high-profile forms, such as periodic progress reports to parliament, or monitoring missions focusing on particular sectors or regions followed by the publication of a report. In some countries, citizens and civil society organizations have also participated in monitoring, either as members of a monitoring body or through independent activities focused on government accountability for follow-up on gender equality.

**Gender-sensitive budgets** An important innovation since the Beijing conference is “gender-sensitive budget initiatives”. Although this term covers a wide range of approaches and participants, it generally refers to efforts to link gender equality objectives with an analysis of government budget allocations and/or performance. The general aim of analysing budgets from a gender perspective is to ensure that the needs of both women and men (and both girls and boys) are reflected in policies, programmes and budget allocations. In some countries, gender-sensitive budget initiatives have been initiated by civil society organisations or academics, while in other countries legislators or parliamentary committees have taken the lead, and in yet others the process is pursued within the civil service. There is a growing body of literature documenting experiences and identifying lessons. Country case studies are a particularly important resource as they highlight the importance of developing appropriate strategies taking into account the specific country context, including political commitments of government, public service environment, government structures, and must be developed in light of the particular objectives and opportunities available.

Gender-sensitive budgeting has attracted widespread interest among gender equality advocates because of its potential as a tool for gender mainstreaming. To date, the main impact has been to increase awareness of gaps and inequalities, and to contribute to better understanding among civil servants and decision-makers about the relevance of gender equality to their policies and sectors. These can be significant contributions, even if limited impacts on budgets have yet to be achieved. The performance-based budgeting approaches being introduced in many countries have been identified as offering greater promise for actually integrating gender perspectives in decision-making. This is because performance-based budgeting focuses attention on the link between policy objectives and budget allocations, and thus provides a conducive environment for efforts to link gender equality objectives with budget allocations.

**UNIT – 2**

**NON FORMAL EDUCATION AND WOMEN**

Non-formal education became part of the international discourse on education policy in the late 1960s and early 1970s. It can be seen as related to the concepts of recurrent and lifelong learning. Tight (1996: 68) suggests that whereas the latter concepts have to do with the extension of education and learning
throughout life, non-formal education is about ‘acknowledging the importance of education, learning and training which takes place outside recognized educational institutions’. Fordham (1993) suggests that in the 1970s, four characteristics came be associated with non-formal education:

- Relevance to the needs of disadvantaged groups.
- Concern with specific categories of person.
- A focus on clearly defined purposes.
- Flexibility in organization and methods.

In many northern countries the notion of non-formal education is not common in internal policy debates – preferred alternatives being community education and community learning, informal education and social pedagogy.

The notion of non-formal education has been a significant feature of policy debates around education in southern countries for three decades. It has drawn attention to the importance and potential of education, learning and training that takes place outside recognized educational institutions. There are questions about usefulness of the notion when looking at the process of education. It has also gone in and out of fashion. Fordham (1993) comments that if we try to correlate the flourishing of non-formal education and political change then the 1970s can certainly be described as the decade of non-formal education (Rubenson 1982). Similarly the 1980s saw the neglect of non-formal education and Fordham suggests that this was in tune with the politics of the decade, accompanied by greater inequalities both within and between countries. Given the extent to which notions of lifelong learning and associated ideas have gained ground in recent years it will be interesting to see how the language of policy debates will change over the next few years.

Objectives of Non Formal Education

- To enable maximum out of school children from 9 to 14 years and attend the non-formal stream.
- Learning of basic skill i.e. reading, writing and general mathematic
- To enable them about the handle different tools and techniques
- To make them socially and morally active towards and national values and ideas

Characteristics of Non Formal Education

- It is well planned and no need of any school system.
- A participatory learning system
- It is open ended educational system
- No need for structured course and curriculum
- Age, Time and curriculum flexibility
- Involvement of both public and private sector in the process
- It is not necessary to conduct exam on regular basis
- Credentials like certificate and awards are not necessary to be awarded
- Self-learning is appreciated

Types
- Para formal education
- Popular education
- Personal development
- Professional and vocational training
- Literacy with skill development
- Supplementary NFE Pogroms

Examples

- Sports programs organized of community organization
- Non-credit adult education programs
- Computer and Language Classes in a Community
- Online free courses

NON-FORMAL EDUCATION AS a WAY FOR WOMEN'S EMPOWERMENT

Women’s empowerment is “a ‘bottom up’ process for transforming gender power relations, through individuals or groups developing awareness of women’s subordination and building their capacity to challenge it. The empowerment process as a bottom-up process is also emphasized by using the term ‘grassroots’. Within a grassroots process, the feature of empowerment starts from the bottom and becomes an essential characteristic for empowerment.

Methods of Non-Formal Education for the Empowerment of Women

Methods used in non-formal education sessions for women’s empowerment arise as 22 crucial for the actualization of women’s empowerment. It’s the methods that can trigger women’s empowerment in various areas through making women question their own situation, give them the relevant knowledge on gender and making them participate. Women should participate and tell their experiences in order to reach empowerment.

Participation and Women’s Experiences - Women’s sharing of experiences and stories are introduced as some of the ways to initiate a collective exercise in non-formal education for women. The sharing of personal stories creates a participatory environment. Heng explains that storytelling was used in the program to create an environment for women's voices. As she explains, this serves the purpose of uncovering emotions and experiences that are difficult to talk about, and self-confidence is built through giving voice to one’s own opinions. Storytelling is also helpful in the eradication of rivalries between women, which leads to solidarity. Storytelling is offered as a collective exercise where one's story can provoke thoughts in another woman's mind. Women’s experiences and needs can be heard through their participation.

Interactive and Dialogic Learning - Women’s participation is crucial for understanding their own situation through consciousness-raising. For this participation to happen, hierarchy should be nonexistent between the facilitator and the participants. Only in this way will women will be able to
speak up easily and reflect upon their own position and situation in the society. A dialogic environment becomes crucial for creating a critical thinking on social relations and for challenging gender relations.

Learning in a Safe Environment - Non-formal empowering education settings create a safe space for women where they can share their experiences and create solidarity away from male dominance. In order to understand how solidarity and sharing among women is triggered by a safe environment, one needs to explain the features of space and the convenient conditions that are necessary for women’s solidarity and sharing. Explaining the significance of a safe space and its characteristics sheds light on the solidarity between women. It also reveals the relationship between non-formal education and solidarity created among women in the course of the empowering education.

UNIT – 3

ADULT LITERACY AND WOMEN

**Adult Literacy in India and it’s Implications**

Adult Literacy is the ability of Adults to use a language i.e. to read, write, listen and speak. Adult Literacy includes basic literacy, desirable knowledge pertaining to civic needs, personal hygiene, and adopting political and occupational skills. According to the United Nations, Basic Literacy is the ability to read 40 words per minute, write 20 words per minute, and do 2-digit arithmetic.

India has over 35% of the world’s total illiterate population. India also has the largest number of illiterate people in the world. India faces major challenges, in terms of both the high number of illiterates and widespread disabilities that exist between urban and rural areas. These pose as hindrances to national efforts to achieve Education for all and eradicate poverty. About 30% of the population lives in villages that have the largest concentration of illiterate people. These areas also have maximum gender differentials. Some areas have specific differentials in attaining literacy rates, girls by and large suffered in their educational pursuits mainly due to ignorance on the part of parents, poverty, geographical hazardous like North Eastern States of India and other hilly areas. Special efforts need to be provided for adults who have been deprived of early education facilities. Provision of funds will have to be made differentially as contrasted from other areas.

**The Significance of Adult Literacy**

- It offers adults a second chance, in case they missed the opportunity or were denied access to mainstream formal education.
- Literacy is the key to the development of a country’s economy.
- It increases the awareness of healthcare with which child mortality rate can be decreased in India.
- Literacy is the road to employment and self-sufficiency.
- It is also a key to population control.
- Awareness of Fundamental Rights and Duties makes one a responsible citizen.
- Literacy brings progress in the mindsets of those who have a strong belief in superstition.
- It paves way for a effective communication.

**Steps to Increase Adult Literacy**

- Learning needs of all adults need to be met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life skills programmes.
- Eliminating gender disparities will be of default result in increase literacy.
- Improving all aspects of quality of education.
- The government needs to take remedial steps to prevent illiteracy.
- The bulk of financial commitment should be provided by the Central government.
- Easy accessibility to schools especially to schools in rural areas.
- Better remuneration for literacy workers will help the literacy movement to be a sustainable system of income generation as well as a system of literacy generation.
- Implementation needs to be more effective through campaigns-based approach.
- Stress on proper environment building and active participation of the people.
- Encouragement of joint efforts by Governmental and Non-Governmental organizations.
- The instructor needs to play even a major role in the teaching and learning of adults.
- Media always plays an important role in motivating people and in turning ideas into
Women continue to present two-thirds of the world’s illiterate—i.e., those unable to deal with the basic demands of reading and writing in the contemporary world. Adult illiterates comprise a group whose previous social marginalization prevented them from having access to the regular educational system. Most illiterate persons are poor, often live in rural or deprived urban areas, and earn low salaries, usually characterized by long hours of harsh manual work. Illiterate women, in particular, are not only poor but generally find themselves in demanding situations of caregiving and housekeeping for spouses and children. With limited time and opportunity to benefit from literacy classes, they remain illiterate, a condition that accounts significantly for the inter-generational reproduction of illiteracy.

Substantial research has documented the positive outcomes associated with women’s literacy (meaning specifically the ability to read and write as opposed to years of education in general). These benefits include greater self-esteem and self-confidence, improved roles in decision-making at home and community, enlarged social networks, deeper awareness of their social environment, and enhanced understanding of the importance of education for their children (Stromquist, 2009). In terms of social and personal benefits, these are solid reasons to support women’s literacy.

Today the pervasive internal conflict in Middle East countries and the remnants of conflict in several African countries are generating large number of refugees, many of them women and children, thus creating displacement and unsafe environments with very limited access to print. Refugee children often face interruptions for several years in their education, which further adds to the stubborn proportion of illiterates. Substantial research has documented the positive outcomes associated with women’s literacy.

The intergenerational reproduction of illiteracy is a persistent phenomenon that strikes many developing countries, particularly those in sub-Saharan Africa and South/West Asia, where a combination of limited infrastructure and restrictive norms regarding public space pose particular challenges for women. Against these stark realities, many nations and development agencies continue to exhibit the narrow belief that simply providing formal education to the young will somehow diminish adult illiteracy. This view ignores empirical evidence about the significant failure rates to complete primary education in several regions of the world, which means that the formal system is still generating illiterates, whose education will have to be provided later through reading and writing programs for them.
Literacy is especially important for women because it can be a major tool for their emancipation, and it should not be forgotten that many do not have a voice of their own. Literacy programs in the hands of women-led NGOs with knowledge of non-formal education methodologies and a transformative vision can—and have been—major institutions for successful literacy initiatives. The Action Agenda for Financing for Development, a crucial document which sets the norms for the allocation of development funds for the next decades (UN, 2015), mentions the need for women’s empowerment seven times, yet it does not link women’s empowerment to literacy. Moreover, it makes the reference only in association with formal education.

On a related issue, it must be noted that the Gender Inequality Index (GII), introduced by UNDP in 2010, considers three indicators: reproductive health, labor market participation, and empowerment. Two indicators have been selected to measure women’s empowerment: share of parliamentary seats and higher education attainment, the latter defined as education attainment of secondary level and above. While it makes sense to measure higher levels of education, the disregard for the presence of illiteracy makes this crucial gender problem invisible. So we now have a compound problem with the absence of literacy as an indicator in two measures with extremely crucial global consequences: the HDI and the GII.

**UNIT 4**

**CURRICULUM CONTENT**

Curriculum content simply means the totality of what is to be taught in a school system. The content component of teaching learning situation refers to the important facts, principles and concepts to be taught. These contents must be in line with the learning experiences and there must be clear cut objective to be achieved by the end of each respective lesson. It can be in form of knowledge, skills, attitude and values that learners are exposed to. Content involves subject matter drawn on the basis of problems, themes or topics cutting across traditional subjects.

**CRITERIA FOR SELECTING CURRICULUM CONTENT**

- **Validity:** The content of the curriculum is valid if it promotes the outcome that it is intended to promote. It is also the authenticity of the subject matter or content selected, to make sure the topics are not obsolete, for this to be achieve, there should be a regular check on the curriculum content and replace it if necessary.
- **Self sufficiency:** This criterion helps learners attain maximum self sufficiency at the most economical manner or content selection. This is done when the students or learners are given the chance to experiment, observe and carryout field study.
- **Significance:** The content is significant if it is selected and organized for the developed of learning activities, skills, processes and attitude that will help in solving the problem of the country. It also develops the three domain of learning namely cognitive, affective and psychomotor skills and considers the cultural aspect of the learners particularly, if your learners come from different cultural background and races then the content must be cultural sensitive.
- **Interest:** This criterion is true to be learned centred curriculum. The interest of the students should be considered in selecting content because students learn best if the subject matter is meaningful to them. It becomes meaningful if they are interested in it. But if the curriculum is
subject centred, teachers have no choice but to finish the facing schedule religiously and teach only what is in the book, this may explain why many fail in subject sometimes.

- **Learnability**: The content should be what the students can learn and should be within their experience. Teachers should apply theories on psychology of learning in order to know their subject are presented, sequenced an organized to maximize the learning capacity of the students

- **Utility**: This is the usefulness of the content in solving problems now and in future. It is more important in skill or procedural. Knowledge, whereby learners can put what they have learnt into practice life activities

- **Consistency with Social Realities**: This means that content should be chosen based on the fact that they relates to our present social needs economic and political situation. Content must be acceptable to the culture and belief system of the people

**PEDAGOGY**

Pedagogy, most commonly understood as the approach to teaching, refers to the theory and practice of learning, and how this process influences, and is influenced by, the social, political and psychological development of learners. Pedagogy, taken as an academic discipline, is the study of how knowledge and skills are imparted in an educational context, and it considers the interactions that take place during learning. Both the theory and practice of pedagogy vary greatly, as they reflect different social, political, and cultural contexts.

Pedagogy is often described as the act of teaching. The pedagogy adopted by teachers shapes their actions, judgments, and other teaching strategies by taking into consideration theories of learning, understandings of students and their needs, and the backgrounds and interests of individual students. Its aims may range from furthering liberal education (the general development of human potential) to the narrower specifics of vocational education (the imparting and acquisition of specific skills). Conventional western pedagogies view the teacher as knowledge holder and student as the recipient of knowledge (described by Paulo Freire as "banking methods"), but theories of pedagogy increasingly identify the student as an agent, and the teacher as a facilitator.

**Pedagogical approaches**- The different pedagogical approaches could be broken down into four categories: behaviourism, constructivism, social constructivism, and liberationist.

- **Behaviourism** - A behaviourist pedagogy uses the theory of behaviourism to inform its approach. A behaviourist pedagogical approach would say learning is teacher centred. It would advocate the use of direct instruction, and lecture based lessons.
➢ **Constructivism** - Constructivism is a theory that people learn through experiences and reflection. A Constructivist pedagogy puts the child at the centre of the learning, and is sometimes called ‘invisible pedagogy’. A constructivist approach would incorporate project work, inquiry-based learning, and might adopt a Montessori or Steiner method.

➢ **Social constructivism** - A Social constructivism pedagogy could be considered to be a blend of two priorities: teacher guided, and student centred. Cognitive psychologist, Lev Vygotsky developed social constructivism, building on the work of Piaget, but argued against the ideas of Piaget that learning could only happen in its social context, and believed that learning was a collaborative process between student and teacher.

➢ **Liberationism** - Liberationism is a critical pedagogy developed by the Brazilian educator, Paulo Freire. Freire was the Director of the Department of Education, and developed an approach of teaching where he was able to teach illiterate adults to read in just 45 days. Freire focussed on removing the two barriers to learning: poverty and hunger. Freire was then imprisoned following a military coup. Once he was released, he wrote a book called 'Pedagogy of the Oppressed' where Freire wrote about the dehumanisation of students in schools, and argued for cooperation and unity. A liberationist approach is one where the student voice is placed at the centre, and a democracy is put into the classroom. Value is placed on having the teacher as a learner, and the class discovering subjects together.

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**BUILDING WOMEN’S SELF ESTEEM**

Self-esteem is an individual's subjective evaluation of their own worth. Self-esteem encompasses beliefs about oneself as well as emotional states, such as triumph, despair, pride, and shame. Smith and Mackie (2007) defined it by saying "The self-concept is what we think about the self; self-esteem, is the positive or negative evaluations of the self, as in how we feel about it.”

Self-esteem is an attractive psychological construct because it predicts certain outcomes, such as academic achievement, happiness, satisfaction in marriage and relationships, and criminal behavior. Self-esteem can apply to a specific attribute (for example, "I believe I am a good writer and I feel happy about that") or globally (for example, "I believe I am a bad person, and I feel bad about myself in general"). Psychologists usually regard self-esteem as an enduring personality characteristic (trait self-esteem), though normal, short-term variations (state self-esteem) also exist. Synonyms or near-synonyms of self-esteem include many things: self-worth, self-regard, self-respect, and self-integrity.

**Steps building women’s self esteem :-**

1. **Know Yourself** - Building self-esteem first involves knowing who you are: identifying what you like, knowing what you want out of life, and developing an awareness of how your past experiences have
shaped the person you are today. It requires paying attention to how you treat yourself and developing an awareness of the internal messages you grapple with.

2. Care for Yourself - Developing healthy self-esteem also encompasses recognizing how powerful your internal voice is and learning to rewire your brain by developing more effective thinking patterns. It involves acting as your own cheerleader and being mindful that things such as diet, exercise, sleep, and setting realistic expectations all play a role in how you feel about yourself. Beyond the basics, caring for yourself means ensuring you take time out to nurture your spirit by doing things you enjoy.

3. Respect Yourself - Respecting yourself is vital to maintaining healthy self-esteem. It involves assessing and upholding your values without sacrificing your well-being to please others. It’s about developing trust in yourself and learning skills to become more assertive.

4. Accept Yourself - Fostering healthy self-esteem involves acknowledging your limits and imperfections, accepting mistakes, and learning to more effectively deal with criticisms. It necessitates knowing your threshold for stress, developing self-compassion, and forgiving yourself for faults or missteps.

5. Love Yourself - To truly demonstrate self-esteem, you must believe in your worth and care about your future. Loving yourself means treating yourself as well as you treat friends and loved ones. Doing this involves creating better boundaries in relationships. It also entails celebrating your strengths and learning to accept compliments.