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President's Messege

I am glad to inform you that the newly set up International Institute of Adult and Lifelong Education has launched an *International Journal of Adult and Lifelong Education.* I am sure that this Journal will be a landmark in the history of Indian Adult Education Association which has been playing a leading role in the field of adult education at national and international levels. I hope that the Journal will soon carve a niche for itself among the prominent journals of adult education in the world and cater to the needs of policy makers, programme administrators, academicians and activists.

K.C. Choudhary
President
Indian Adult Education Association

Dear Reader,

I deem it a privilege to present to you a new *International Journal of Ad* *and Lifelong Education* published on behalf of the International Institute of Ad and Lifelong Education set up by the Indian Adult Education Association (IAEA) New Delhi in December 2002. As some of you may be aware, the IAEA since i inception in 1939, has been actively engaged in the professionalisation of ad education by promoting researches, evaluation studies, documentation, publicatio and organizing training programmes, conferences and workshops. The IAEA h the distinction of publishing the *Journal of Indian Adult Education* uninterrupted for more than six decades. The copies of the journal are currently mailed to fo two countries.

The establishment of the International Institute has not only broadened scope of the activities of IAEA, but also opened up the possibilities of publishin new journal to provide a platform for discussion on issues of international significar in the field of adult education.

This first issue of the *International Journal of Adult and Lifelong Educati* addresses some of the current concerns in the field of adult education in differe countries, viz; Nigeria, Canada, America, South-East Asia and India. While so of the articles are based on researches, others are drawn from field experien and philosophical reflections. Apart from these articles, this issue also includes abstracts of doctoral dissertations, book reviews and a recent document international significance -- the *Pietermaritzberg Declaration*. In future issu we propose to publish the profiles of prominent adult educators from differ countries who may have functioned at the international level and made significa contributions to the field of adult education. We also welcome scholarly report international events, specially seminars and conferences.

Your valuable suggestions on improving the quality of this journal will appreciated. We hope that academicians, administrators, activists will find the jou useful. Your sincere support in terms of subscriptions and contribution of arti will not only encourage us but also ensure the continuity of the journal.

Thank you

S.Y. Shah

LITERACY THEORY, POLICY AND PRACTICE: INHERITANCE FROM A HALF CENTURY

H.S.Bhola

The last half century of literacy discussion and literacy practice have generated important understandings, among them: (a) the centrality of adult literacy in programmes of adult education particularly in the developing areas of the world, and the role of both as vehicles of development oriented knowledge; (b) the vulnerabilities of adult education and adult literacy programmes because of their relatively low levels of institutionalisation; (c) the deep significance of literacy as a factor in the evolution of individual identities and human cultures; (d) multi-dimensionality of literacy impact that encompasses impact by design, interaction and emergence; and (e) the conception of an "evaluation account" of a literacy policy or program as distinct from a series of standalone evaluation studies – an idea that can be used to capture and cumulate the impact of Indias' National Literacy Mission for effective use in policy-making and practice without necessarily disassociating various evaluation studies from their initial contests of time and place.

Adult Education, Adult Literacy and Development : Interactions And Connections

Even at the beginning of the twenty-first century (and the dawn of the new millennium), policy makers and adult education professionals are not always self-consciously aware of the centrality of adult literacy in programmes and projects of adult education (Bhola 1994, 1998). Too often adult education and adult literacy programme are seen as separate policies, distinct professional specialization and unrelated programmes running in parallel.

Adult education, viewed as a process of informal education and specialization, by one generation of adults of the next generation of youth and young adults, has always been a part of human communities. In oral cultures, print was obviously impractical, if not impossible, and adult education was carried out in face-to-face settings using folk media of various kinds. In cultures in transition wherein literacy was slowly but surely spreading, adult education workers began to use both print and non-print media to teach adult learners new knowledge, attitudes and skills.

Choosing between print and non-print media is not a matter of personal preference. One cannot simply be substituted by the other. Modern knowledge has often to be brought in from the outside and is not always amenable to folk media. Our excitement with electronic media has worn out as we have realized that mass media of radio and television do indeed use the "grammar of print" and do less for

the illiterate and semi-literate than for the literate. Thus, there is a dialectic at wo
between the message and the medium used to communicate it.(Bhola 1990b).
today's world of globalization, the knowledge needs of individuals and societi
have increased dramatically, and all that needs to be transferred to other groups
generations of learners – whether children or adults – does not "transport" wo
without the help of print. For that reason, literacy has become an absolute essenti
for communication in modern times (UNDP 1999).

Seen from the other end, adult literacy is indeed adult education. One does n
just read, one reads "something". That something is "knowledge" – which is t
stuff of "education". The knowledge that adult literacy workers discuss with
groups of adult learners, and weave into their literacy primers and follow-up book
is meant to educate adults. Thus, adult literacy becomes adult education which,
turn, becomes individual growth and community development. Finally, today
societies are knowledge–societies. Socio-economic development is knowledge-drive
For those bypassed by the school or ill-served by it, "adult education with literacy
has become a   second chance for education, and the only instrument that is bo
available and accessible for the transmission of knowledge, attitudes and skills
the socially disadvantaged.

Institutional Vulnerabilities of Adult Literacy and Adult Education

Policy processes everywhere in the world seem to favour special interest grou
and those with power and money to carry out lobbying efforts. Also, in the politic
world of policy making, it helps if funding and support is being sought for a poli
that is already somewhat institutionalized. Adult education and adult literacy
part of the non-formal education sector are much less effectively institutionalized
compared with the formal education systems of primary, secondary and high
education; and are, therefore, almost always vulnerable of politics and money
developing nations. Under institutionalization of adult education, adult literacy
not too hurtful at the uppermost levels, but hurts where it counts at the field lev
Institutionalization is weak at the level of individual roles and community facilitie
Those making policies at the center can easily sacrifice adult education and adu
literacy to direct resources to other plans and projects without expecting protest
resistance (Bhola 1997a, UNESCO 1997).

An Evolutionary Definition of Literacy

Adult literacy workers themselves are not always aware of the true nature
literacy in the deeply significant processes of formation of individual identities a
transformations of cultures, thereby creating and recreating great civilizatio
Definitions of literacy have emphasized skills of reading, writing and numeracy a
more recently individual empowerment. We need to go farther and deeper
understand the role of literacy in the human evolution and human civilizations.

A New Definition of Literacy

An evolutionary definition of literacy is needed for true understanding of the role of literacy in identity, culture and civilization. Undoubtedly, we human beings are the only creatures who have full-fledged language systems. While insects, fish, and some primates are known to communicate, they do not have a language in the sense we understand it.

It is hypothesized that more than one million years ago, the ratio between the body weight of the *Homo Sapiens* changed in favour of the brain, leading to an emergence among them of the ability to "make symbolic transformation of reality". By assigning sound-symbols to entities and processes as experienced, and thereby sharing experiences with the immediate others through shared symbols, it was possible over the millennia to organize those symbolic products into a spoken language system. It became possible for human beings to communicate with each other, thereby creating communities and collective knowledge, history and past, present and future. Spoken language based in the ability to make symbolic transformations of reality was indeed the first culmination of our humanity.

The human urge to make symbolic transformations of reality continued its slow evolution as the cave man (and woman) "wrote" their drawings on rocks. Then, some five thousand years ago, came the second culmination of our humanity; our capacity to put spoken language into written language. In other words, human beings took the grand step of making the second symbolic transformation (in writing) of reality already symbolically transformed as spoken language – bringing to human beings a new way of communicating and more importantly, of reasoning, storing knowledge, and indeed of viewing the world itself (Bhola 1997b). Thus seen, literacy is its own justification, and has the natural right to be considered as Human Rights. If we take the time to teach our newborns the use of spoken language why should we not teach literacy to our children, youth and adults to help them fulfil their dreams or objectives.

A Model of Impact Evaluation

The above definition of literacy should enable us to see why we should expect results of literacy to go farther than merely learning of numerical skills and practical skills for use on the farm or in the field. Three types of impact should be expected from literacy learning (Bhola 1990a, 2000):

I.   Impact by design is that which is expected to occur because of the intervention made as part of the programme design itself. This is a condition of relative control wherein intervention is assured, linear and simple causality is assumed, and confounding variables are considered too weak or easily accounted for. In the literacy sector, examples of impact by design would relate to learning of reading, writing, counting, work skills, even values and

attitude. Its theoretical home is measurement theory. Tests are its most important tools. Questionnaires and survey instruments can also be used. Both quantitative and qualitative approaches are applicable though there is often preference for quantitative approaches.

II. Impact by interaction is that which will result from literacy work interacting with other processes of education and extension. Strict causality is not necessarily assumed, but relationships of strong correlation permit attribution to literacy as a source of impact. Changes, positive or negative, can be determined through before and after data comparison and trend analysis, and assertions regarding attributability can be tested by assertions regarding attributability can be tested by qualitative methods of individual and focus group interviews. Examples of such impact would be improvement of school attendance of children of new literates; improved production on the farm or in the factory; improvement in family and public health; etc.

III. Impact by emergence is that which results from a total contexture and complex convergence of various factors over a long period of time including cultural and historical processes, and social and economic processes, both planned and unplanned. Impact by emergence is not easy to anticipate at the front-end but seems most plausible once captured. It is a type of change that has first to be imaginatively captured and then methodically registered through a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods. Examples can be the effect of literacy in lowering fertility, literacy of the mother and teacher-parent associations, literacy and reduction in ethnic and inter-faith conflict, etc

For too long, good research has been equated with the experimental method, measurement and statistical analysis. Thorndike (1918) had said, "whatever exists at all, exists in some amount. To know it thoroughly involves knowing its quantity and quality" Unfortunately, researchers have missed this the point about qualitative knowing and took the way out; they studied only those questions that were amenable to measurement of quantities. Psychological, educational, political, social, and cultural processes were not always easy to fit into the experimental mode or amenable to quantification for statistical analyses. These were left alone. As a result, a lot of years have been wasted in researching the trivial and important questions that needed answers through qualitative methods were neglected. It is time to take up the methodological challenge and pay due attention to the study of impact by interaction and impact by emergence. In this regard, the best advice comes from John Dewey who asked that researchers look their work as the challenge to make "warranted assertions" and then go look for and find the best evidence that would warrant those assertions. These warrants could be numbers or narrations, arguments of interpretations.

Conceptualizing "Evaluation Account"

Finally, we offer a conceptualization of what we call an *evaluative* account that we distinguish from a stand-alone formal evaluation study. An evaluative account is indeed an evaluative essay on a policy, or a programme, or project, based on all relevant "formal evaluation studies" and "informal reports with an evaluative stance", which constructs an overall narrative that is richly informative and judiciously evaluative. It thereby comes close to being a constructivist analysis of all of the evaluative work that may have been done on the programme under review. Being a constructivist meta analysis, it must ensure that the initial contexts of time and location at which the various evaluation studies were undertaken are not allowed to collapse.

An Evaluation Account of the National Literacy Mission

Materials for developing an evaluative account of the National Literacy Mission (NLM) of India do exist though these are widely scattered. There are three general types of materials; census data, national, state, and district level statistics on literacy coverage and enrolment, as well as annual and other periodical reports on literacy issued by the central and state governments. Reports of formal stand-alone evaluation studies also exist. These have often been conducted by universities and specialized institutions with financial support from the Government. A third source is institutions of the civil society (called non-governmental institutions) funded by governments or sometimes directly by international donor institutions and national governments abroad.

Literacy – Facts at a glance (GOI n.d.), a 26-page slim document gives us the following facts. According to the 1991 census, literacy rates in India had reached 52.21 % (64.13 Males, and 39.29 % Females). Dissatisfaction with results of literacy programme led to the mass approach, a hybrid approach, that was a programme at the center-based adult education and literacy programme led to the mass level and at the level of states, but became a medley of campaigns at the level of districts.

The new programme was called the National Literacy Mission (NLM) and was launched during May 1988, to impart functional literacy to 80 million adults by 1995; and to 100 million by 1997. The objectives of functional literacy according to the NLM were self-reliance in 3-R's; awareness of the causes of the deprivation and commitment to work for its amelioration through organization and participation in development processes; skills improvement; and imbibing values of national integration, conservation of environment, women's equality, and small family norms.

By 1997, literacy rates were claimed to have reached 62.00 % (73 % Males, and 50% Females). The "fact book" had already claimed that there had been overwhelming impact of literacy on women; positive impact on caste and communal relations was noted; demand was generated in communities for primary education;

there was activation of concern for developing a just and humane society; there was sensitization of bureaucracy; and literacy was placed emphatically on the national agenda, and came to be situated at the societal cultural level in the communities as well.

The professional community of adult educators and adult literacy workers in India must face the task of not only conducting evaluation studies but more importantly, evaluative accounts of the NLM across its life span of more than ten years and construct meta level narratives based on the consistent and cumulative results of the NLM on the lives of people. The National Literacy Mission that has attracted worldwide attention for "campaigns for literacy" deserves this attention from India's researchers and evaluators.

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ORDER OUT OF CHAOS:REPOSITIONING AFRICA FOR GLOBALIZATION THROUGH LIFELONG LEARNING

Akpovire Oduaran

Introduction

At the turn of the new millennium, Africa continues to be saddled with conflictual situations that are incisively chaotic. In times like this, lifelong learning schools in Africa cannot afford even to claim foundational innocence with regard to the chaos that continue to trail and weaken different efforts aimed at improving the lot of Africans and securing their future in the context of globalization and its numerous impacts on the people. What we seek to do in this brief discussion, is to critically examine some of these often underestimated conflictual situations with regard to their possible effects on obliterating the people's awareness of the need to comprehend and compete in globalization on the one hand and reducing their interest in embracing lifelong learning projects on the other. Thereafter, we would attempt to propose some strategies for lifelong learning protagonists to consider in accelerating the rate at which Africa should and could reposition itself for effective competition in globalization.

Gap in Knowledge

A survey of the literature on analysis of conflictual situations in relation to globalization and lifelong learning in Africa has not yielded enviable results. The most relevant and insightful discussion revealed in the literature has centred largely on "pure" globalization issues or globalization in relation to the information age. For example, while Walters (1997) has assembled a whole amalgam of thoughts on globalization in relation to diverse issues on the continent, Nassimbeni and de Jagar (2000) and Cogburn (2000) have addressed the subject in relation to the information age.

Whatever gaps in knowledge that exist in discussions examining globalization and lifelong learning in Africa have been nearly filled by Bhola (1999), who focused mainly on the context of Namibia and Oduaran (2000) who discussed this issue in a global sense. Even though these different and relevant efforts have discussed globalization and lifelong learning as issues which impact one another, there has been relatively less profound and deliberate attempt to draw attention to the conflictual situations that are seemingly weighing down Africa's ability to enter into globalization beyond the mundane level of thought and policy. This discussion seeks to fill with the additional expectation that it might make some propositions that are worthy of consideration and actions. This can only be premised on our understanding of the context of the conflictual situations.

The Conflictual Situations

Ordinarily, it would seem that the conflictual situations being experienced in Africa should be left for governments, politicians and relevant specialists in different disciplines to handle. It is clear , however, that situations are permeating different boundaries of specialization in terms of their impact, and scholars cannot claim foundational innocence. Africa has witnessed immense and devastating conflicts, and the impact varies in degrees from one country to another. It may not be possible to examine all of these conflicts in this paper. It will be sufficient, however, to highlight just a few of them only to the level of raising our awareness and to the extent of conjecturing how lifelong learning might help in developing relevant projects aimed at partly remedying the situation. This is done in the hope that it is only when we have created order out of the chaos Africa is experiencing that the continent might be better repositioned for globalization.

The Theatre of Conflicts

Although largely ignored by the powerful Western media, Africa is notably a continent hunted down by conflicts resulting in numerous deaths and an alarming increase in refugee figures. On the last count, Shah (2000) noted that Africa harbours over 7.3 million refugees and that hundreds and thousands of people have been mowed down from a number of conflicts and civil wars. The scale of destruction and fighting in Africa has been enormous. Indeed, the realities of the conflicts in Africa may be no less than the one in Kosovo but not much attention has been paid to the calamity. For example, since 1989, an estimated 500,000 people have been killed in Angola alone and this is not inclusive of the estimated 3 million people who have become refugees there (Shah, 2000). Besides thousands of Africans have been slaughtered in senseless conflicts in Algeria, Nigeria, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Sierra Leone (where over 50,000 have been killed), Rwanda, Burundi, Sudan and in the conflict between Ethiopia and Eritrea. These trouble spots in Africa have traumatized several interest groups that have been searching for ways of easing poverty in the continent.

Poverty

The UNDP *Human Development Report* (1997) opined that an estimated two hundred and twenty (220) million people in Africa are living well below the official poverty line, and this figure is projected to increase to three thousand (3000) million by the year 2000. And 9 out of the 78 least developed countries included in the 1997 *Human Development Report* are in the Southern African Sub-region alone. To illustrate this prevalence of poverty , Kazeze (1997, p.3) had observed that the incidence ranges from 12.5 per cent in Mauritius to a high of over 50 per cent in Mozambique. By the year 2000, the frequently publicized poverty eradication programmes have not made much impact and the pool of the poorest of the poor

has been expanding. This expansion applies to the entire world as it does in a profound manner to Africa.

The three billion, half of the estimated six billion people inhabiting the earth today, are living on less than half US $ a day (Shah, 2000). The reality of poverty is rather scathing in Africa. Illuminating light on poverty in Africa has been shed in the *Human Development Report* (1999) which revealed that although human poverty ranges from a low 2.6 percent in Barbadoes to a high 65.5 of percent in Niger, Africa is one of the worst continents wherein human poverty affected more than a third of the population. Indeed, the Report has revealed that the human poverty index has continued to exceed 50 percent in Benin, Burkina Faso, the Central African Republic, Chad, Ethiopia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Mali, Nepa, Niger and Sierra Leone. This implies that for all the listed countries and for some others in Africa that have not made returns on the basis of which the computation was done, poverty actually affects at least half of the population if we are to put it mildly. Furthermore, we are aware that there could be disparities within countries, between regions or districts, and between rural and urban areas, and between men and women in Africa. Even so, the fact remains that fewer and fewer people in Africa are becoming "successful" or "wealthy" as a result of the several poverty alleviation or reduction programmes being implemented in Africa. Yet, poverty has a way of negatively impacting on people's ability to liberate themselves from grievous and excruciating circumstances in everyday living.

Although there are several manifestations of poverty on the continent that do not need much equivocation, the 1999 UNDP Report has more than confirmed the seriousness of the situation. For example, of the 45 countries that contributed a total trade flow of US$ 4, 993, 093 and comprising the high human development index in 1997 no one African country was cited in the Report of 1999. Under the same measure, only Libya, South Africa, Tunisia, Algeria, Swaziland, Namibia, Egypt, Botswana, Sao Tome and Principe, Gabon, Morocco, Lesotho, Zimbabwe, Equatorial Guinea, Ghana, Cameroon, Congo and Kenya managed to make it to the medium human development rank in 1997. Very painfully, the majority of African countries constituted the low human development rank in 1997 with Sierra Leone taking the rear in the 174th position and Nigeria with all its revenues from oil positioning itself in the 146th rank. This implies that majority of Africans are still living below the poverty line and they will be the participants in democratic practices and processes and in lifelong learning projects.

The bulk of Africans are struggling very hard to survive and may not really be feeling the impact of development which, as Shah (2000) hinted, normally implies an improvement in living standards such that a person has enough food, water, clothing, stable social environment, freedom, basic rights etc., to have a fair chance for a decent life. The politicians and their political agenda in different African

countries may not have sufficiently provided the people with possibilities for real development. Yet, many Africans are struggling to overcome pandemic diseases.

Pandemic Diseases

It is no novelty for anyone to say now that infant mortality is high in Africa. But even more disturbing at this time is the prevalence of HIV/AIDS on the continent. HIV/AIDS is spreading at a geometric rate in Africa. The 1999 UNDP *Human Development Report* points to the fact that at the end of 1998, the UNAIDS and the World Health Organisation (WHO) estimated that there were 33 million people living with HIV/AIDS. The Report noted that AIDS is responsible for 2.5 million deaths a year, more than twice as many as the 1 million deaths resulting from Malaria (UNDP, 1999). The Report further revealed that 95 percent of HIV – infected people are in the developing countries. On the African continent, HIV/AIDS is known to be seriously eroding life expectancy. Indeed, a loss of 17 years in life expectancy has been projected for the nine African countries with an HIV prevalence of 10 percent or more (UNDP, 1999). Among the nine countries are Botswana, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Rwanda, South Africa, Zambia and Zimbabwe. In those countries, it is projected that life expectancy will decrease to 47 years by the year 2010. And that was the life expectancy of these same countries in the 1960s. What this means is that all the huge investment in health services and gains made in improved health and life expectancy over the years will be eroded. To say the least, the future is very bleak for many African nations. The gravity of this problem may not be obvious to many of us now but when you consider the fact that the HIV/AIDS pandemic is afflicting more youth than adult Africans then the picture must be clearer to us.

Environment Degradation

Although a global problem, environmental degradation is becoming intractable in the operations of many national governments in Africa. The 1999 UNDP Report describes environmental degradation as a chronic and "silent emergency" that is threatening the livelihoods of some of the poorest people of the world (UNDP, 1999). As already noted, many African nations constitute the poorest of the poor. In an era of environmental degradation, bio-diversity is equally important. Yet, we know that it is bio-diversity that usually cultivates or enhances the ecosystem productivity. In ecosystem productivity, every species, no matter the size, ought to have an important role to play in unity. For it is the unification of the activities of the species that help the ecosystem to have the ability to replenish itself and redeem from disasters. By so doing, the ecosystem is said to be naturally sustained.

Apart from the threat to its natural resources caused by reckless abuses, Africa remains susceptible to the global warming transcending the world and the loss of diversity and extinction. Both the impacts of the Biosafety Protocols of 1999 and

2000 are yet to be felt in Africa. For example, oil-prospecting companies in Nigeria continue to operate below safety standards. The civil protests of the Niger Delta populations in Nigeria have only attracted more repressions from the government and even the unsung deaths of the people. And in all this scenario, the multinational oil corporations are paying absolute lip service to the development of oil producing communities while helping the Government to retrain its police to be able to deal more ruthlessly with the so-called recalcitrant Niger Delta youths who have been driven to the unavoidable choice of taking up arms in defence of their ruined environments. The misery that oil producing communities have to show for the several years of the abuse of their environment is a quick reminder that the people have more disorderliness to cope with than they could ever imagine. And all of this is taking place in the situation of massive illiteracy of the adult population.

Adult Literacy

In spite of the different efforts Governments in African nations have made to provide schemes of universal education, the progress so far made in reducing adult illiteracy is not cheering enough. For example, the 1997 adult literacy rate for all Sub-Saharan Africa was at 58.5 as against the 58.6 for Arab States, 83.4 for East Asia, 96.1 for East Asia (excluding China), 87.9 for South-East Asia and the Pacific, 87.2 for Latin America and the Caribbean and 98.7 for Eastern Europe and the CIS (UNDP, 1999). The 1997 adult literacy rates point to the fact that Sub-Saharan Africa is very much on the threshold of illiteracy. However, by 1998, adult literacy rates for Sub-Saharan Africa had recorded only a slight improvement. The UNICEF 1999 *Report on the State of the World's Children* revealed that in 1998 Sub-Saharan Africa male adult literacy rates stood at about 60 per cent as against the little over 40 per cent female adult literacy rates (UNICEF, 1999). Without overlooking this issue of the awkward position of adult illiteracy in the continent, it must be noted that in 1997, the UNDP Report (1999) recorded an adult literacy rate of as low as 14.3 per cent for Niger, 20.7 per cent for Burkina Faso, 25.0 per cent for Eritrea, 33 per cent for Gambia, 33.3 per cent for Sierra Leone, 33.6 per cent for Guinea-Bissau, 33.9 per cent for Benin, 34.6 per cent for Senegal and 37.9 per cent for Guinea. Although the rates are an expression of the overall adult population, it is disturbing to note that Nigeria with all its oil wealth recorded 59.5 per cent adult literacy rate in 1997 (UNDP, 1999, p136). Yet, literacy and economics experts observe it be known that a minimum literacy threshold of 40 per cent is needed for development to take place.

Conflictual Situations And Africa's Participation

The concert of forces ravaging the African continent has been selectively highlighted to include conflicts, poverty, pandemic diseases, environmental degradation and adult illiteracy. These are by no means the only forces weighing

down the ability of the nations to rise up to the challenges arising from globalization. Before examining their possible impacts on Africa's participation, it might be in order for us to summarise some of the meanings ascribed to globalization.

Globalization

In a continent with four out of the five countries in the world with the biggest debt-repayment burden expressed as percentage of Gross National Product (GNP) in 1994, all the attributes ascribed to globalisation can hardly cut any ice. Most African countries are now cast under the shadow of a heavy debt burden. Indeed, Brazier (2000) in the *State of the World Report* listed the five countries as including Nicaragua with 8000.6 per cent debt-repayment burden, Congo 454.4 per cent, Guinea Bissau 340.7 per cent and Cote d' Ivoire 338.9 per cent. Yet, all these and other comparatively less indebted countries in Africa are being expected to cope with globalization.

Globalization has remained one phenomenon that keeps attracting, confused, conflicting and bewildering definitions. Even though its manifestations are observable in many spheres of life, most of the definitions seemed to have confined themselves to its economic aspects. Consequently, Nassimbeni and de Jagar (2000) have quoted the National Commission for Higher Education Working Group on Libraries and Information Technology in South Africa as describing globalization as a term "that captures multiple changes taking place in the world economy triggered by the dramatic impact of computer-generated information technology in automated production methods and instantaneous communication networks." And Cogburn (2000) confirms the view of emphasizing the economic import of globalization when he hinted that "at its most organic and fundamental level, globalization is about the monumental structural changes occurring in the processes of production and distribution in the global economy". But the truth is that globalization is not really new as we had argued elsewhere (Oduaran, 2000). It takes its roots in the early 16th Century and late 19th Century. But the market, tools, actors and rules are new. For example, it is now facilitated by Internet links, cellular phones and media networks.

Globalization had always been there for ages. What is really new about its present era is its distinctive features. The UNDP *Human Development Report, 1999* (p.1) has described its current distinctive features to include:

- shrinking space.
- shrinking time, and
- disappearing borders.

These features are known to be linking people's lives more profoundly, more intensely and more immediately than was hitherto the case. Irrespective of the meanings ascribed to globalization, the phenomenon is much more than the flow of capital and commodities. It is the growing interdependence of the people of the

world just as it is a process integrating not just the economy but culture, technology and governance (UNDP, 1999). Furthermore, globalization is supposed to open new and diverse opportunities for millions of people in the world, including Africa. But it also poses profound challenges to Africa in terms of the nations' government capability to comprehend and compete effectively in globalization.

Possible Impact of the Conflictual Situation on Africa's Participation

Considering the chaotic existence inundating the continent, it is reasonable to suggest that not many African nations are effectively competing in globalization. Although we cannot analyse the situation simplistically, it is almost correct to argue that under situation of conflicts, poverty, pandemic diseases, environmental degradation and adult illiteracy, very few African nations can ever comprehend and compete in globalization.

The emergence of the Internet has facilitated the extension of globalization. The Internet is mediating a global enclave. If globalization is relying on Internet connectivity, then Sub-Saharan Africa is far away from reaching the starting point in the race for globalization. The UNDP Report 1999 has estimated Internet users in Africa as a percentage of the regional population at 0.1. Indeed, the costs of Internet connectivity are enormous and African countries struggling to shed the heavy weight of their debt burdens can hardly afford it.

Participation in globalization is premised partly on political stability, effective and prudent management of scarce resources. As already hinted above, Africa has remained for too long a theatre of conflicts. Somalia, Sudan, Ethiopia, Eritrea, Burundi, Rwanda, Angola, Democratic Republic of Congo and Sierra-Leone, for example, can hardly be expected to undertake any serious steps towards effective participation in globalization. Even in the several countries presently experiencing relative political stability, the imprudent utilization of scarce national resources could still pose a serious threat to participation.

Poverty is perhaps the biggest threat to Africa's effective participation in globalization. Globalization requires massive on-shore and off-shore capital movements and investment. It also requires deep understanding of the performance of stocks. But in the situation of massive individuals and national poverty, very little can be expected in terms of capital movements and transfers. It might, of course, be argued that all that poor African nations need to do is to provide the enabling environment for globalization to take place on their shores. That is correct, but, very soon the gap between the rich and poor can become so apparent and overbearing that those who are opposed to globalization in Africa would rationalize and point accusing fingers at the proponents. May be, UNDP's proposition of the Agenda for Poverty Eradication, enunciated in 1997, and based on people's empowerment as key to poverty elimination should have been one way out of Africa's

predicament. Unfortunately, like the 1996 pro-poor growth strategy which preceded the Agenda for Poverty Eradication, job creation can only be enhanced by the availability of huge capital investments which is yet lacking in many African nations.

African nations that are heavily indebted either to the World Bank or the International Monetary Fund must meet the conditions under which they accepted the loans. Many of such countries, structural adjustment programmes (SAP) have been foisted on them and this is said to have contributed to the contraction of the job market and subsequent loss of jobs by nationals.

As part of the consequences of globalization, privatization of public enterprises is being vigorously pursued under the silent pressure of the globalizing agencies and nationals with little or no skills are being thrown into joblessness. These situations have made even more complex the ability of many African nations to see their way through the maze of techno-scientific economic manipulation on a global scale. But the problems transcend purely economic boundaries.

The geometric rate at which HIV/AIDS is spreading on the continent poses another major threat to Africa's participation in globalization. Let us take a few illustrative cases. The UNDP 1999 Report indicates the cases of HIV/AIDS per 100,000 people in Africa in 1997 as follows:-

Libya	(0.3)	Zambia	(530.1)
South Africa	(29.6)*	Senegal	(22.6)*
Tunisia	(3.6)	Cote d'Iroire	265.5)*
Algeria	(1.1)	Benin	(39.8)
Swaziland	(270.3)	Tanzania	281.4)*
Namibia	(420.6)	Djibouti	(263.7)
Egypt	(0.2)	Uganda	(249.0)
Botswana	(351.6)	Malawi	(505.4)
Gabon	(120.9)*	Angola	(11.2)*
Morocco	(1.4)	Guinea	(44.0)
Lesotho	(114.3)	Chad	(109.7)
Zimbabwe	(564.4)	Gambia	(43.1)
Equatorial Guinea	(5.0)	Rwanda	(204.9)
Ghana	(01.1)*	Central African Rep.	(205.4)*
Cameroon	(69.1)	Mali	(35.1)
Congo	(372.4)*	Eritrea	(101.6)
Kenya	(263.1)	Guinea-Bissau	(74.0)*
Democratic Rep of Congo	(80.0)	Mozambique	(33.5)
Sudan	(5.9)	Burundi	(142.5)
Togo	(185.2)	Burkina Faso	(92.2)*
Nigeria	(14.4)	Ethiopia	(35.9)
Madagascar	(0.2)	Niger	(30.7)*
Mauritania	(6.7)*	Sierra Leone	(4.6)*

*= Data refer to year prior to 1997.

The data on AIDS cases per 100,000 people in 1997 in Africa may look innocuous on the surface. But if one takes a close look the rates are frightening for the following nations:

Zimbabwe	(564.4)
Zambia	(530.1)
Malawi	(505.4)
Namibia	(420.6)
Congo	(372.4)
Botswana	(351.6)
Tanzania	(282.4)
Swaziland	(270.3)
Cote d' Ivoire	(265.5)
Djibouti	(263.7)
Uganda	(249.0)
Rwanda	(204.9)

Many of these countries which occupy the upper threshold of 200 and above have comparatively less populations. The data on HIV/AIDS cases in Africa reveals that if nothing else, HIV/AIDS bears profound economic costs in terms of lost labour and sick-off days and the eventual death of human labour in which the nations have made huge investments in education and training. As the HIV/AIDS pandemic afflicts the labour force in Africa, there is no doubt that many governments run the risk of not having sufficient team of highly educated personnel who can adequately comprehend and participate in globalization. Given this background lifelong learning in Africa needs to assist in repositioning the continent for competent and effective participation in globalization. The question then is how would lifelong learning accomplish this intricate mission?

Improving Lifelong Learning in Africa: Some Propositions

Lifelong learning is not a new concept as such. Elsewhere, I have pointed out that the concept is very old and almost ageless as part of its early expositions could be credited to the philosophical views of Socrates, Plato and Aristotle (Oduaran, 2000). However, it is pertinent to note that the General Council of UNESCO adopted in 1976 a definition as follows:

> The term 'lifelong education and learning denotes an overall scheme aimed both at restructuring the existing education system and at developing the entire educational potential outside the education system; in such a scheme men and women are the agents of their own education (UNESCO, 1976).

In the definition adopted by UNESCO, one observes that there is copious emphasis on the learner in the evolving learning societies that are emerging globally. It is in this vein that we might want to accept the suggestion made by Longworth and Keith Davies (1996; 21-37) to the effect that we agree with Elli who had proposed that:

> Lifelong learning is the development of human potential through a continuously supportive process which stimulates and empowers individuals to acquire all the knowledge, values skills and understanding they will require throughout their lifetimes, and to apply them with confidence, creativity and enjoyment in all roles, circumstances, and environment.

In adapting that conceptualization as our guide in this present discussion, we are placing emphasis on human potential, the improvement of which Africa needs very urgently. This is so because at the centre of globalization processes and globalization is that human element.

It is being argued here that one of the best ways of helping Africa to reposition itself for globalization is the pursuit of a human development model that recognizes the equality of all Africans in exploring their inert abilities to the extent of understanding the root cause or causes of their problems as a people. Thereafter, their creative efforts can be challenged or stimulated enough to develop tested abilities to mobilize resources for investing in and managing globalization. This we shall illustrate shortly when we move from theory to praxis.

Partnership Between Formal and Non-Formal Education

Lifelong learning apparently embraces educational practices and outcomes in both formal and non-formal settings. Consequently, modern definitions of lifelong processes have begun to include the provision of credit for experiential learning (Kintzer, 1997). What this means is that for Africa to reposition itself it needs to give equal attention to both the formal and non-formal sectors of the education system. The latter segment had endured substantial neglect and under-funding for too long. All learning activities outside the formal school system need to be articulated and systematically assisted to improve on their operations in order to help our people to discover and develop their potentialities through the acquisition of globalization-related knowledge, understanding, values and skills cumulatively and throughout life.

Vibrant Quadruple Partnership

There is no lifelong learning system that is an end in itself. Rather, it is always a means to achieve an end. And in our own case, we are conceptualizing it as a means to achieving the goal of repositioning Africa for active and effective participation in globalization. In this context, we are suggesting that lifelong learning practitioners and theorists must evolve a system of unifying all the partners involved

in business and training in a vigorous partnership.

The partnership being suggested ought to compulsorily bring together the government, corporations, employers, labour unions, institutions of learning, non-governmental organizations and civil society for the purpose of agreeing on a collective strategy for getting Africa out of the woods. In this case, joint training programmes are to be worked out. But then, the governments should take responsibility for co-ordinating the supply of lifelong learning activities. The one safeguard we need to build in here is that if the government itself becomes the stumbling block to partnering, the civil society must take the initiative for co-ordination. And this is why the different civil societies in Africa may long be over-due for some form of systematic re-organisation in order to give room for valuable and quality leadership.

The partnership being suggested needs not only to be well-focused and organized but also to evolve a system of what Seng and Hwee (1977) term as regular appraisal and evaluation which is compulsory for relevance and effectiveness. The appraisal and evaluation must go beyond the limit of being ends in themselves or being mere checks on current progress to the level of challenging the development of new areas and drive all partners towards new levels of achievement (Seng and Hwee, 1997, p.117). The partnership being suggested will further benefit from our re-examination of other in-puts like curriculum reforms.

Curriculum Reforms

It is true that all learning begins from the basic level of learning to read, write and compute comprehensively. But actions being suggested in this discussion require that the curriculum reforms needed in lifelong learning in Africa should embrace the elements and principles of globalization itself as well as the understanding of the contradictions that have been hindering our participation.

Other than the reforms that are required to bring about more profound understanding of the processes of globalization and forces and events slowing down the growth process in Africa, there is a need to involve techno-scientific and technical schemes addressing problems of under-productivity. The laboratories and workshops at all levels and facts of the education system need to be well equipped and funded. Moreover, the industries need to be systematically brought in to strengthen the programmes of education and training. For example, learners could be attached to these industries for hands-on experiences that are carefully monitored and evaluated. Nigeria has a very rich experience with its Industrial Training Fund scheme under which vocational and technical trainees are posted to and sponsored in designated industries for a reasonable length of time for the purpose of their being enabled to acquire practical skills during that attachment. This strategy has been further extended through inauguration of a nation-wide scheme known as the 'School-on-Wheel' programme.

The School-on-Wheel Programme in Nigeria features the mounting of multi-purpose technical workshop on a truck, which tours rural areas with the intention of providing technical skills to unemployed school leavers, who abound in their localities. Although we do not have a publicized evaluation of that scheme, it may have potentials for quickening the rate of, and expanding the scope for, acquiring technical skills that are lacking so rampantly on the account.

Scholarship Networks

One reality that slows down development in Africa is the apparent weak co-operation among different schools. Sometimes, there is a huge gap in knowledge of what different lifelong learning scholars are doing in different African nations. Sometimes, this gap in communication, collaboration and co-operation is attributed to the differing language blocks into which Africa is divided because of the scramble for and partnership of Africa culminating in the 1884-85 Berlin Conference. That might well be the case, but it is equally true that within the same language group the much-needed co-operation and collaboration is seriously lacking. Consequently, scholars of lifelong learning in Africa are subjecting themselves to the adage which says "what the right hand does, let not the left hand know." For a simple illustration, what lifelong learning scholars in West Africa are doing to promote programmes and scholarship is not profoundly known and valued in Southern Africa and vice-versa. Yet, all sub-regions need to unite their efforts in order to make progress.

If we must make realistic progress in strengthening lifelong learning in Africa, then the building of scholarship networks should be encouraged. That is why it is cheering to know that there is already in existence an International Institute for Capacity Building in Africa (IICBA). We can propose something of this nature for lifelong learning in the hope that it will expedite the coming together of scholars everywhere in Africa to examine and design strategies for assisting the entry of the continent into globalization as a principal not an 'under-dog.' But we can do much more than this.

Micro-Enterprises

Micro-enterprises are receiving attention and enjoying the consensus in West and East Africa. Southern African sub-region needs to double its efforts in encouraging and sharing up the growth of micro-enterprises schemes here. It is noteworthy that South African, Botswana and Zimbabwean governments are putting in place different schemes aimed at facilitating the participation of citizens in micro-enterprises. But, there is need to re-double efforts in strengthening the managerial skills of the operators, so that whatever financial support the micro-enterprises are receiving does not go down the drain. The need for the success of micro-enterprises cannot be emphasized. Their growth and viability is one surest way to ease the large-scale unemployment and poverty that has been the lot of Africa for many years now.

Managerial Reforms

It has been alleged that several management personnel in the public and private sectors of the African economy are yet to comprehend the intricacies and effects of globalization. If it is true, there is hardly any need for one to suggest that these middle level management personnel may require some training in the understanding of globalization and how to build the phenomenon into present and future programmes. The implementation of this suggestion cannot be delayed. As part of the managerial reforms being suggested, African governments need to consider seriously the strengthening of policies and funding of lifelong programmes and projects. The payment of lip-service to the cause of lifelong learning in different countries could only have indicated some degree of unwillingness to get on the "boat" of globalization, no more, no less.

Africa's Optoelectronics Development

Globalization is mediated by the modernization of the information technology. We had already drawn attention to the relative weak position of Africa in Internet connectivity. Yet, the continent needs to improve on its Optoelectronics development level. Optoelectronics is the fusion of photonics technologies (the use of photons in delivery mechanisms) with microelectronics (the use of electrons in delivery mechanisms) with a view to attaining greater efficiencies in data processing and transmission that could have been achieved by electrons only (Cogburn, 2000, p.2 of 11). It is clear that Optoelectronics has revolutionized the global communication system resulting in the popularity and use of the Internet. World Wide Web (WWW), Integrated Systems Digits Networks, Asynchronous Transfer Mode (ATM) and the Electronic Data Interchange (EDI) beyond what one could have imagined a decade ago. But in all this revolution that has pushed the information technology beyond the primary level of communication, Africa has yet to catch up or even get started in several countries.

One way Africa can get into the mainstream of the information technology is to invest in it. But in a much more profound way, private initiatives and investment need to be encouraged and promoted by the governments. To be able to do this, the need arises for the development of infrastructures for the generation and distribution of power.

Towards African Model of Lifelong Learning

One last way to reposition Africa for globalization through lifelong learning is to conceptualise and design a lifelong learning discourse model. It is intended that this model would be applied to outlining and explaining the contradiction and weakness in Africa's socio-political and economic policies and programmes.

Within the context of the learning discourse model, we would seek to design a situated lifelong learning curriculum. This curriculum would be contextualized such

that it can address the dominant disruptive circumstances in any given African country. For example, if this curriculum is directed at Nigeria's Niger Delta region it needs to address the problem of environmental degradation, occupational dislocation arising from the destruction of the people's sources of income, unemployment and human misery within environments yielding over 90 percent of the national income. Or, if it were focused on Botswana, it may need to address among other dominant issues the problem of HIV/AIDS. And if it were to be continent wide, emphasis may shift to the cultivation of genuine democratic practices, conflicts resolution and poverty alleviation.

Conclusion

This paper has emphasized the need for scholars and practitioners to rise above the prevailing level of foundational ignorance of the concert of forces, events and contradiction in Africa as they influence the development, relevance and effectiveness of our specialization. As a way forward, the paper highlighted for brief discussion the so-called forces, events and contradiction. In doing this, attention was drawn to such selected issues as conflicts, poverty, pandemic diseases, environmental degradation and illiteracy.

The highlight of the issues was made even more contextual by means of trying to articulate their effects on the awareness of Africa's peoples and governments of globalization as well as the need to participate more actively therein. It was realized that Africa cannot possibly conceptualise how lifelong learning might help in the understanding of and participation in globalization by repositioning itself unless some propositions have been made. Consequently, the discussion has been concluded with a highlight of some propositions that might mediate the respositioning of Africa for globalization through lifelong learning. It has never been our intention to offer a foolproof modicum for invigorating Africa's participation in globalization. After all, there are numerous scholars who do not see much good in globalization, but we have taken the opposite position in this discussion. For weal or for woe, there have been gaps in this discussion. But this is good for such gaps could be vital for furthering the desirable debate on globalization as it affects Africa.

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ROLE OF CANADIAN UNIVERSITIES
IN ADULT EDUCATION

Tadiboyina Venkateswarlu

Historically, in addition to universities and colleges, institutions such as churches, libraries, school boards, social welfare groups and non-governmental organizations have contributed to the advancement of adult education in Canada. However, private sector and business firms had not taken any interest in the promotion of working skills and literacy of the adult population until the mid-eighties when the federal government started providing economic incentives such as youth training grants, subsidies through the departments of manpower and immigration, labour, and industrial development. These grants have assisted businesses in reducing the cost of upgrading the skills of their employees, while helping Canadian firms compete with foreign firms for a major share of international markets. Globalization, GATT, the liberalization of trade controls, and the rapid advancement of technology since the early 1990s' have brought the government, businesses and educational institutions together to provide a united front to the reality of "sink or swim" in international markets, which are influenced by supply-demand forces and the domination of Multi-national Corporations. Bilateral and multilateral partnership agreements among universities, business organisations, governments and social organizations have increased in the 1990s in regards to the prevention of recurring budget deficits in universities, business liquidations and advance with rising prices and wages. The concepts of "Adult Education", "Continuing Education" and "Distance Education" have been used synonymously by universities when new programmes are introduced to promote adult literacy and skills.

The objectives of this paper are to: Provide an overview of the published literature on adult education in Canada in the last 10 years; Present the effects of information technology in the delivery of information to adult learners in Canada and the United Kingdom; Discuss the trade-off between efficiency, equity and market-driven education adopted by the Canadian universities; Present a cross-sectional view of socio-economic data of third world countries like India; And discuss the obligations of Canada towards poor countries in promoting literacy.

A literature search through electronic databases, the Internet, websites, and library catalogues has led to examination of ERIC, the Canadian Education Index, Sociological Abstracts, Social Sciences and Humanities Indexes for the last 10 years. It appears continuing education has helped to accommodate full-time workers, disabled individuals, working women, and those who could not afford to travel to university campuses due to the high cost of transportation, accommodation, and other related factors. Universities and colleges have offered support services like pre-admission counseling,

technology, library resources, financial aid, and off-campus registration centres by diverting more funds from their budgets to adult education programmes. The provision of support services has assisted in removing social barriers especially for women, minorities, and aboriginals who were able to improve their functional literacy level and job skills. A recent study of students attending universities in British Columbia, Newfoundland and Manitoba has demonstrated that women around 25 years and older, constitute the majority of students enrolled in distance education classes, (living at least 50 km away from the campus). These women have expressed an interest in upgrading work skills, have requested high quality resource materials for courses; an easy access to the course instructor; prior information on address or locations where textbooks can be purchased or ordered; and expected the return of phone calls and confirmation of course selections within a reasonable period of time. They would like to see a combination of print and non-print materials such as textbooks, audio conferencing, (one to one basis or in groups) and video presentation of lectures of their courses. Fifty percent of the students surveyed at three campuses expressed difficulties in communicating with their instructors; and 30 per-cent of these students surveyed have felt that they were isolated from other students taking similar course on campuses (Potter, 1998).

Universities in developing nations have to identify student needs by age and gender; required support services; availability of library resources; multimedia instruction; and day-care facilities prior to the introduction of programmes in adult education. Culture plays an important role in the absorption of information for upgrading working skills to match market demand. The importance of culture as an efficient tool for upgrading employees skills, especially among aboriginals, is uncovered by a study done in recent years (Tremblay and Taylor, 1998). Portfolio development method is found to be another way of instilling continuing education faster among adults, as it is similar to the teaching of Native Americans who believe that an individual is part of the society; and the society in turn, is part of the universe. The holistic approach towards learning has proved to be effective in identifying individual experience as mirrors for the progress of the community (Michelson, 1997). In the case of senior citizens who need the assistance to improve their literacy, one has to decide three requirements and pre-requisites before course offering which are as follows :

1. the identification of their learning habits,
2. the creation of a group of healthy seniors who intend to play an active role in the community, and
3. the establishment of workshops or seminar schedules. The infrastructure which is prepared ahead of time for seniors, helps to improve their learning skills, memory and positive attitude towards life and the society (Cusack, 1998).

Regarding the improvement of personal and professional growth along with the renewal of commitment among adult learners, it has been found that methodologies such as storytelling; encouraging a dialogue between student and teacher; allowing students to question the methodology of delivering course content; initiating a global curriculum; and introducing information technology as opposed to traditional methods of instruction are effective among adult learners to keep abreast of new development (May, 1997). The ageing population of Canada, which will continue to increase due to zero population growth for the last decade, imposes serious burden on tax payers to support their social service needs and medicare. Continuing education has to find ways or retraining senior citizens who have the potential to contribute to the development of society both at home and abroad, especially in third world countries. Developing nations require guidance and expertise from the west to design the curriculum for a sustained development with high growth rates.

In China, investment in education has been considered as the highest priority compared to owning a house or tangible assets like businesses. An average family saved 10 per-cent of their disposable income to invest in the education of adults and children, which became an established norm or tradition for present and future generations. Human capital contains the skills, knowledge, health, and education which the labour force acquires in different phases of their lives to become productive on the job and to improve the quality of life. In the United States after the second World War, increased investment in schooling, on the job training, and adult education outside of the workplace have contributed to high economic growth. Similar results have been experienced by the Province of Shenzhen (Mainland China), due to the importance given to human capital on an experimental basis. (Xiao, 1999). The importance of human capital had been tested in national development through the use of empirical analysis on time series data from 1940s to late 1960s by professors Schultz and Baker of the United States. Their analysis led to the conclusion that two thirds of high economic growth rates experienced by the United States since 1940s is attributed to the investment in human capital and the rest to physical capital investment (Venkateswarlu, 1968).

There has been no uniformity in the methodology of delivering adult education in Canada, as each province has adopted its own unique ways of reaching out to people based on the level of their skills, types of jobs in which they are employed, and their socio-economic background. Most of the people who have received adult education in Canada were 45 years of age or older, and predominantly women constituting 62 percent of the student body (Pearle, 1999). The faculty teaching adult education courses have given low priority to research and scholarship activity compared to instructors in other disciplines. Market forces and profit maximization have promoted Canadian Universities to enter into the field of introducing new courses, revising curriculum, and upgrading department status to school or faculty of distance

or continuing education. Corporate globalization has pushed adult education towards technical and vocational areas at the cost of limiting the opportunities to people who would like to take courses in liberal arts and social sciences for enriching the quality of life and broadening their horizons to appreciate work, life, society and family.

The market approach undertaken by universities in the 1980s, had offered courses which prevented positive externalities and/or social benefits in Canada. The high cost of tuition fees, course materials, lodging and boarding facilities prevented professionals like doctors, social workers and small business men from taking continuing education courses for upgrading their skills. The drop in literacy skills could have prevented people from appreciating the value of individual rights and freedoms, democratic-decision making and the pursuit of social justice. In addition, high tuition costs, distance, and job or family commitments contributed to the decline of the labour forces's attend once of adult education classes (Poonwassie, 1997). The funding cuts to universities across Canada, (Ontario in particular) has left them with no choice but to make partnership agreements with dictates of corporations (Summer, 1999). In addition to universities, the province of Manitob Winnipeg, Education and Agricultural Extension Centres used their resources to improve literacy and working skills of adult population.

Information technology and its applications in educational institutions have diminished the role of the instructor in designing the curriculum for the programmes. Internet and web-based instruction were introduced as part of teaching in 1995. The curriculum was designed by web designers, business consultants, and computer specialists as opposed to instructors. Universities undertook an obligation to fulfil their historical commitment towards accessibility to courses offered through Multi-Media Communication Systems at on-and-off campus centres. They introduced cost-cutting measures such as resource sharing with other educational institutes; consortial agreements for a select number of programme like transfer of credits taken at community colleges and foreign universities; and training students to use outside resources through the Internet (Sweet, 2000). These cost cutting measures helped to a marginal extent to create affordability among students and to reduce budget deficits among universities.

Canadian universities after several years of protests from students and social activists and debates among faculty members yielded to their demands for the introduction of art courses as requirements in professional programmes to enable students to lead a full and productive life; they also took a middle of the ground approach to retain the historical principle of academic freedom and research on one hand, and to continue the emphasis on vocational wing and commodification of the curriculum on the other. They became less inclined to honour fully the wishes of the government or the businesses for a shift to information technology as the sole medium of instruction due to lack of financial resources and uncertainty about the future

increases in student enrolment; and they also initiated a number of new adult education courses to meet the students demand and to balance the university budgets out of the revenue generated by new courses.

The introduction of Information Technology (IT) has diminished the impact of basic principles of equity, accessibility and affordability in Canada. The rich and affluent have been able to buy hardware, software, connection charges to the Internet and a personal computer. However, the low income group could not afford the high cost of mediated learning. At the present pace of technological advancement, Canadian universities in the future may run into the crisis to fulfill accessibility and equity, which might bring in business firms to privatize education for profit. Partnership agreements between businesses and universities became a reality in a select number of campuses in the form of contract work, special training programs, and cooperative education on an experimental basis. The long run viability of this partnership arrangement would be difficult to predict at present. Canadian campuses started to consider to undertake for their own economic benefits in future to disseminate adult education to illiterate, unskilled, and undereducated and outdated working population of the third world countries. As these countries start developing with an average economic growth of three or four percent per year in the future, they will demand more Canadian exports for consumption reflecting positively on Canadian employment. One out of three jobs in the province of Ontario depend on the continuation of exports to other countries. The increase or continuation of the present standard of living in Canada is based on the percentage of market share gained by domestic firms in international markets and inflow of foreign capital from the third world countries for investment in Canada.

Universities in recent years have embarked to cut costs and to promote efficiency through the restructuring of programmes of study such as the eliminating or closing of a few inactive departments with limited student enrolment, imposing more expenditures on university budgets and combining small basic administrative units (BAU) under one faculty or college for administration – such as the College of Sciences or Engineering or Law (Sweet, 2000). Universities, however, faced opposition from within and outside the campuses of new restructuring plans due to the fear of loosing autonomy of some departments and difficulties which students might encounter in getting employment or in seeking admission to graduate and postgraduate degrees out of the country. Cost cutting measures helped the Canadian public to exercise their freedom of work, learning to cope with the advancement of information technology and to maintain job security. Businesses, though reluctant to offer adult education classes in the past, have consented recently to conduct training programmes due to economic incentives offered by the federal government (Talnizyaim, 1994).

Three methods were used in Canada to disseminate adult education:

1. Traditional correspondence of text-based learning by mail.

2.   Mail correspondence supplemented by the telephone contact
3.   The use of communication technologies to construct a suitable and cooperative learning.

Text, audio, video and the combination of these three have been used to suit an appropriate context for an effective learning. In doing so, the student was viewed as an agent rather than a recipient; counselling services to students were offered studying at home; multimedia learning promoted audio and video conferencing between the students; and web-based courses were offered through the Internet to promote student involvement in course design and group discussions. The integration of print and non-print media teaching prevented students from experiencing difficulties of computer mediated system which were adopted earlier.

An experimental project in distance education was introduced at Simon Fraser University, British Columbia to provide accessibility to computer and video conferencing, e-mail, and information resources on the Internet. Based on its success, community colleges in the province followed the path set by Simon Fraser University to provide technical education (Thomas, 1993). There was diversity in the delivery of information not only between universities and colleges, but also among community colleges and universities across Canada. Community colleges were entrusted with the responsibility of offering vocational and technical programmes with diploma granting privileges compared to universities offering academic programmes with degree granting status. Beginning with the new millennium, the clear cut division of programme offerings between universities and colleges started declining to cope with the economic realities of reduced funding from provinces. A few campuses signed partnership   agreements with a local community colleges, (such as the University of Windsor and St. Clair College of Applied Arts & Technology) concerning the honouring of courses offered in business administration and engineering at both campuses for credit. The long-run viability of this transition by universities would be difficult to predict, as the quality of teaching, curriculum, faculty qualifications, and expected faculty research output are different in colleges. The partnership did create flexibility among adult working and non-working population to upgrade their skills as well as helped universities from not getting into budget deficits each year (Mitchel, 1998). In recent years, Canadian universities moved further to develop reciprocal agreements for course offerings and resource sharing with American universities to create broader accessibility as well as promote excellence in curriculum for adult populations in North America.

In the United Kingdom, 13 percent of higher education was provided by distance education or adult education centres established by the British Government to furthering academic and vocational interests of the population. On the other hand, the number of institutes to upgrade working skills of employees and to encourage life- long learning of senior citizens had been growing at 6 percent per year. Learning

kits or packages were distributed by an organization called UFI (University for Industry) to 1000 learning centers such as libraries, clubs, shopping malls, factories, and churches on a partnership basis (Coddington, 1999). The importance of UFI was augmented by the British government through the establishment of individual learning accounts in selected banks (ILAS) for the public who were interested in improving their working skills and functional literacy. For each $25 deposited by an individual in a local bank towards education, the government matched it by contributing $ 150 to his/her account. The system provided an opportunity to employees to take a term off from their full-time jobs to attend schools and return to work after the completion of training at an institution supported by UFI and ILAS and businesses. Britain would like to reach one million ILAS and businesses by the end of 2002 (Coddington, 1999). The success of the experiment depends on the confidence people attach to job security, high wages, and flexible working conditions extended   by employers   in the future.   UFI   also undertook the provision of IT facilities, besides packaged learning kits to people who wish to take classes at off campus institutes operated by different social organizations.

Universities in Canada need to work hard to bring other disciplines like humanities, social sciences, and engineering to cooperate with adult education departments in creating the environment for women to become independent. They should train scientists and engineers with the responsibility of extending their professional services to economic development in the third world countries, and to retrain senior citizens to become productive in the society and to train leaders and social reformers.

Table 1 contains data on India concerning functional illiteracy of 67% of both boys and girls combined (15 years old and higher). Among girls, high school dropout rates stood at 81 per-cent; population increased by 2 percent where food production by 1 percent per   year contributed to food shortage and hunger; poverty was about 45 percent of 450 million people, where poverty is defined as a person consuming 1800 calories or less per day; child labour due to extreme poverty and indebtedness of forefathers of the children to the landlords constituted 55 million children; the highest number of vulnerable children in the world; per capita income ($320) was too low to meet the basic needs of the average individual; and the disparity of income distribution between rich and poor indicates 80 percent of the population (800 million) consumes 30 percent of GDP, whereas 20 percent of the population (20 million) consuming 70 percent of GDP in India. To correct these problems for the last 51 years, India has experimented with the Keynesian Policies of State intervention from 1950 to 1990 and with market forces from 1991 to 2001 level without positive impact in the economy. On the contrary, things have deteriorated with high level of political corruption, social and religious unrest and the widening gap between rich and poor with little hope towards sustained development and social justice in the future.

Canadian universities based upon their contribution and success in the domestic market, might consider to undertake the responsibilities of designing adult education curriculum, technological transfer and lending professional and leadership support to improve the Indian economy. The charitable organizations in Canada, local and international non-governmental organizations, and the Canadian International Development Agency should consider to assist Canadian post secondary institutions by extending financial support to promote adult education suited to global market conditions and to mutually benefit economic development and future prosperity of nations in the world.

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC STATISTICS:INDIA

	(%)
Illiteracy (15 years+)	69.9 percent
Poverty	40.00 percent
Population	1.3 billion
Pop. Growth rate	1.90 percent
C/o of World Population living in India	27.00 percent
Percapita Foreign Aid	$7.00 percent
School Attendance	
Boys (5-11 years old)	73.00 percent
Girls (5-11 years old)	43.00 percent
Boys (12-17 years old)	39.00 percent
Girls (12-17 years old)	19.00 percent
Infant death rate <1 year old	7.5 percent
Infant death rate>1 year old upto 5 years	11.00 percent
% of federal budget on Education	6.4 percent
% of federal budget on elementary education	NA
% of budget on Education in China	14.00 percent
% of budget on Education in Japan	19.00 percent
Percapita Income	$320.00
GNP growth rate	6.00 percent
Agricultural growth rate	1.00 percent
20% Population consumes	70 percent GDP
80% Population consumes	30 percent GDP
Child labourers	5.5 million
Exports to North America	$ 3.8 billion
Imports from North America	$ 2.1 billion

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THE UNESCO – TAMING WORLD NON-LITERACY

Tushar Mukherjee

The UNESCO, it appears, has given overwhelming emphasis on educational aspects among its three dimensional mandate of education, science and culture. And within education, priority has been attached to literacy for last four decades. It is a right step since illiteracy has dominated as the single most educational scourge right from the beginning of UNESCO's life. Since 1965, when Education Minister's conference at Tehran adopted a resolution to observe International Literacy Day on 8th September every year, the international body has relentlessly pursued the cause of adult literacy by formulating strategies and re-defining literacy at progressive stages and then motivating nations in adopting such strategies and definitions. Thus, a bewildering array of concepts emerged as a consequence. It affected India more than any other nation across the globe. Here, it began with 'Social Education' defined as 'education for life in society for comprehensive community development through community action' whatever they mean.

Before the idea could sink in the Indian mindset, the new concept of 'Fundamental Education' appeared in the literacy horizon of India and the first institutional think-tank, namely, National Fundamental Education Center was established with the assistance of UNESCO to provide technical and intellectual guidance for the national literacy programmes. Thereafter came the approach of Mass Education which simplified literacy to 'reading, writing and arithmetic' or 3 R's and was adopted all over the country. Gram Sikshan Mahim of Maharasthra based on this system earned worldwide accolade and won for India, the coveted UNESCO prize for the first time in 1972. It was supplemented by yet another programme called 'Farmers' Functional Literacy Programme (FFLP) to help agriculture-rich districts replicate emerging 'Green Revolution'. It was quickly followed by 'Non-Formal Education' during the Fifth Five Year plan. Exclusively meant for non-school-going children in the 6-14 age group and out-of-school youth and adults, non-formal education sought to provide alternative schooling with competencies equivalent to formal education; but with flexibility in duration, pace and school timing all of which were geared to the convenience of learners. With UNESCO's blessings and guidance, thousands of non-formal education centers were established in 1975-76 mainly through government agencies supplemented by non-governmental organizations. In the early part of eighties, students were involved in what was then known as 'Mass Programme for Functional Literacy' (MPFL) which sought to launch a massive programme of literacy with the help of college and university students through a unique method of 'Each one teach one' a concept brought to India again by the UNESCO from its experience elsewhere. Volunteers of National Service Scheme (NSS) spearheaded the movement.

The major breakthrough in Indian adult education efforts came in 1977 when, prodded and funded by UNESCO, the National Government undertook a comprehensive 'National Adult Education Programme' which for the first time introduced it uniformly throughout the country with specific target, objective and time table. It also set up its ideological underpinning by setting out 'Literacy, Awareness and Functionality' as its fundamental objectives. The programme was area specific (two development blocks), age-group specific (15-35) and target specific (10 Million in 5 years). During 1986-88, another major shift in educational policies took place when a new education policy was formulated with concomitant change in adult education. A National Literacy Mission was established which launched Total Literacy Campaign (TLC) in 1990 throughout the country adopting district as a unit of intervention. It made a major departure by abolishing all extant literacy programmes and pooled the fund thus available to finance the campaign and by adopting campaign mode in place of center mode. With the TLC, two more facilitating programmes were tagged. They were Post Literacy and Continuing Education. The entire sequence of events launched by the National Literacy Mission spanning the decade of 1990s was regularly guided and monitored by the UNESCO. From the above account of historical development of adult education in India, it appears that UNESCO along with Indian policy makers had been groping for the right type of strategy, which could alleviate illiteracy of the country constituting 50% of world illiteracy, substantially. The search went on for almost four decades until they hit upon TLC, which was successfully experimented in Kerala following the examples of Cuba and Nicaragua.

UNESCO had made similar experimental interventions in many other countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America during last 50 years with mixed results until 1990 when they realized that mere adult literacy cannot take the world far enough in the field of education unless other segments of the society, especially the children, are not taken into account. Hence, in 1990, UNESCO gave a clarion call of "Education For All" (EFA) and convened another international conference at Jomtien, Thailand to take stock of progress made in literacy and education of the child since the Universal declaration of Human Rights and Right of the Child made in 1948, both of which declared education as fundamental right. Held from 5th – 9th March,1990, the conference conceded that despite 40 years of relentless efforts more than hundred million children including sixty million girls have no access to primary schooling, that more than ninety six million adults two-third of whom are women, are illiterate and that one third of world's adults have no access to printed knowledge, new schools and technologies that could improve quality of their lives.

In fact, educational environment in the third world got its severest beating in the 1980s, the decade preceding the Jomtien meet. During this decade, the developing world faced a number of intractable problems like mounting debt burden, economic stagnation due to sudden spurt in oil prices, rapid population growth, economic

disparities within and among nations, war, occupation and sectarian violence. All these problems seriously inhibited growth of basic education in least developed countries. Taking into account these fundamental historical realities, the Jomtien conclave called upon the nations to meet the basic learning needs of the child, youth and adults by ensuring universal access and promoting equity. It also recommended an 'Expanded Vision', focus on real learning instead of mere enrolment and certification, redefining the scope of basic education to include early childhood education and diverse delivery system for diverse groups of learners; improvement in the learning environment and strengthening of partnership among national, regional and local educational authorities.

The Jomtien conference was followed by a flurry of international activities in which Jomtien declarations were reconfirmed with fresh commitments   by the world community. These activities include World Summit for Children (1990), UN Conference on Environment & Development (1992), World Conference on Human Rights (1963), World Conference on Special Needs Education (1994), International Conference on Population and Development (1994), World Summit for Social Development (1995), International Consultative Forum on Education For All (1996), CONFINTEA V (1997) and International Conference on Child Labour. In all these conclaves, UNESCO had strong presence.

In addition to such types of activities, UNESCO assiduously followed up steps taken by various nations towards fulfilling EFA goals set out at Jomtien. In order to crystallize national initiatives, it arranged a series of stock taking sessions across the globe by holding regional meetings comprising six logistically placed regions such as (i) Sub-Saharan African Conference at Johannesburg (6-10 December, 1997, (ii) Asia & Pacific Conference at Bangkok (17-20 January, 2000), (iii) Arab Conference at Cairo (24-27 January, 2000), (iv) The Third Inter-Ministerial Review Meeting of E-9 Countries at Recife, Brazil (31 January – 2 February, 2000), (v) Europe & North American Conference, Warsaw (6-8 February 2000) and (vi) Conference of the Americas at Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic (10-12 February, 2000). These conferences did not overlap in order to permit UNESCO to play effective role and correctly assess progress towards EFA goals. Most of these conferences have yielded abstract results with no country conceding lack in efforts though all countries failed in their commitment. The UNESCO, far from being disheartened, extracted fresh commitments from each region for reaching a grand consensus at Darkar, Senegal, where the UNESCO had planned another world summit.

Of all the regions, the Sub-Saharan region was most forthcoming and candidly admitted their deficiencies. Only 12 countries of the region have shown some progress and the others just stagnated. As a result, the region's net enrolment in primary education between 1990 and 1998 rose by only 9% for boys and 7% for girls. The overall ratio was 56% for boys and 48% for girls. Pockets of outstanding progress

were reported from Indian Ocean States (70%), from East Africa (except Somalia) where boy's enrolment increased by 27% and that of the girls by 18% and from Southern Africa where girl's enrolment reached 76% compared to 58% for boys. In this area at least the gender equity worked in reverse. Out of 41 million non-schooling-going children, girls account for 65%. In the southern rim of Sahara, an interesting correlation between literacy and gender parity was found to exist. Where enrolment and literacy are high, gender equity prevails and where it is not, girls suffer most. Same is true of economically weaker regions. By the standard of Indian sub-continent, drop out rate of 30% appears to be moderate but in recent years it is increasing due to increased costs, armed conflicts and wide prevalence of HIV/AIDS. Even in the face of such daunting situation, the participating countries resolved to declare education a basic right, considered investment in quality education useful, acknowledged that gender equity was an avoidable evil, committed to remove all barriers that hinder African children from having access to quality basic education and pledged that action on HIV/AIDS, war and conflict should be taken on priority basis in order to boost education for all.

The Latin American countries on the other hand were not so much forthcoming at least statistically and have their achievements and shortcomings expressed in terms of well-known superlatives which betrayed an effort to camouflage. Hence, there was 'substantial' increase in early childhood education, 'significant' increases in access to primary education and a 'relative' decrease in illiteracy. While articulating deficiencies, however, the region had given away the real position when it stated that there was serious inadequacy in early childhood education and development, especially among children under four years of age and that there were high rate of dropout in primary schools besides low level of student learning and quality of general education. Conscious of these shortcomings, the region of Americas has pledged to increase investment in and access to comprehensive early childhood education, maintain and increase access to basic education, formulate inclusive education policies that define goals and priorities in accordance with different categories of excluded population of each country, ensure that schools have a learner friendly environment, both physically and socially, one that promotes healthy lifestyle and practice of life skills, and improvement and six other vital areas like national investment, teachers' training, linking basic education to poverty alleviation, utilization of technologies and management in education.

Like Sub-Saharan Africa, Arab States had little inhibition in disclosing their short-falls since Jomtien. In Early Childhood Education, which most Arab States have unlike in South Asia, Gross Enrolment Ratio varied from 0.7% to 99% in 1990 but have improved since then culminating in 13% in 10 States, between 13% and 50% in six States and more than 70% in only two States (Lebanon 71% and Kuwait 99%). In primary education, too, the Arab States have recorded significant progress.

In three countries, it is less than 68%, but in rest of the sixteen countries it is 90% or above with gender parity at 0.9 and above. Sudan and Mauritania are heads above rest of the countries. In literacy, achievement of Arab States are poor to moderate with 68 million illiterates in 1999, of which 63% are women, 25% of illiterates live in Egypt and 70% in five states of Sudan, Algeria, Morocco, Yemen and Egypt establishing a direct correlation with population size, population growth rates, poverty and concentration of population in rural areas. Another causative factor is gender disparity which is only 0.69. Other areas of concern are poor quality, lack of qualified teachers, dropout and repetition in primary schooling, disproportionate expenditure on education and wastage and poor management of education system.

In their future action progamme, the Arab States have given top priority to quality of education followed by improvement in educational governance and management, with emphasis on capacity building and eradication of illiteracy with priority on education of girls and women. The fourth priority is early childhood education (top priority for UNESCO), while fifth is development of a multi-media environment for formal and non-formal education. In spite of having collective priorities for the region as a whole, they have adopted a realistic goal of having each country their own set of priorities with contextual programmes.

. Asia and Pacific region, the largest of six regions artificially demarcated by the UNESCO been naïve enough to trumpet their achievements than to clearly and dispassionately bring out their collective failure to   create a dent in the   literacy status despite having 60% of world's illiterates within their national boundaries. It is perhaps the South East Asian countries and Sri Lanka which has attained high rate of literacy could smother the huge literacy gap of the Indian sub-continent harboring more than 50% of world's non-literates bulk of whom are non-school-going children. In fact, combined non-literates of India and China having a combined population of more than 2.3 billions and their collective poor performance in basic education should have been an embarassment for international community led by the UNESCO; but they nonetheless, bulldozed their way with high-decibel achievement levels flaunted before the smaller nations in the region and were allowed to escape stronger scrutiny of their real achievements. Hence, we learn that the region has achieved **substantial** increase in primary school enrolment, **big expansion** in early childhood care and education, **higher priority** given to quality of education, **increasing** functional adult literacy, **improvement** in educational information management system and **markedly increasing** national budgets for basic education etc.. When none of those claimed achievements appear to have taken place at least in the Indian sub-continent if not in China.

The real scenario was similarly given away in the 16 point list of challenges which disclosed growing educational disparities among nations, persistent gender gap, lack of alternative basic education, high school drop-out rate, urban bias in

early childhood education, shortfall in educational budgets and finally lack of reliable data and statistics. This last point has perhaps prevented the region to give out their achievements in quantitative terms as have been remarkably done by the sub-Saharan and Arab regions. Goals projected by the region, however, fell in line with the cherished goals envisioned by the UNESCO with the highest priority given to early childhood education, followed seriatim by universal basic education, basic learning and skill programmes, quality of learning, elimination of gender disparities, literacy and continuing education and imparting of life skill and values. All these goals are unexceptionable and worthy of implementation but track record of the region suggests that they may remain gibberish and hubris. Constitution of a separate region for Europe and North America and their inclusion as one of the regions assessing EFA goals was perhaps symbolic and intended to create a high water mark of desirable achievements. The region declared quite expectedly that in Western Europe and North America, universal primary and secondary education exist as is progressively increased expenditure in education in line with the GDP and often more rapidly. Similarly, early childhood education has made great strides and reinforced in almost all the countries in the region. But in Central and Eastern Europe situation was not all too rosy; disturbing signs of increase in dropout, low motivation of some pupils leading to endemic truancy and weaker performance of the most disadvantaged pupil 10-20% of whom have little access to required level of work integration. Besides these, this part of the region has universal problems like social exclusion phenomena, disaffiliations, drug addiction and violence among younger generation. These are cosmetic problems generally found in developed societies. Driven by unlimited consumerism, they do not resonate with rest of the world.

The region has, however, ritually suggested some measures, perhaps prodded by the UNESCO. Such suggestions may not have any relevance to the rest of the world. Their recommendations include admission of the responsibility of north America and Europe towards their less fortunate brethren in central and east Europe which they are already meeting by extending bi-lateral and multi-lateral assistance. Their action plan calls for redefinition of basic education which should now turn to foster basic skills used as personal development tools and as basis for life long learning, provide initial vocational guidance and bestow knowledge, values and abilities that are needed for individual development, and for the exercise of participatory and responsible citizenship in democracy. These are essentially post modern articulations out of steps with second and third world societies which are still grappling with modern or pre-modern concepts of basic education. However, to operationalize these action plans, the region has adopted a number of strategies which include national action plans, maintenance of existing level of investment on education, equitable distribution of resources to reach the disadvantaged, effective partnership among various public authorities and civil societies, address specific

issues like excluded groups and persons suffering for HIV/AIDS, effective monitoring mechanism and training of personnel.

Besides regional conclaves, the UNESCO organized a special convention of E-9 countries comprising of highly populous countries of Brazil, Bangladesh, China, Egypt, India, Mexico, Indonesia, Nigeria and Pakistan, which together constitute 50% of world population and 70% of world's non-literates. It was a wise move because lessening of non-literacy in these countries with corresponding improvement in basic education profile would have caused secular upward shift in world education scenario. The conference, however, turned out to be a damp squib and parroted the declarations of Asia and Pacific perhaps due to pressure from India and China who are ever optimistic about their performances even in the face of rising illiteracy and school dropout. Hence, the E-9 countries have had 'massive reduction in adult illiteracy', 'substantial increase in pre-school education' and 'significant advance towards universal elementary education' all of which are high decibel rhetoric not supported by cold statistics. While listing challenges, the group have given away their real state of affairs and conceded presence of persistent large number of illiterates, lack of access to basic education and the need for expansion of

All these regional and group meetings culminated in another world summit on EFA at Dakar, Senegal, ostensibly to assess progress since Jomtien (1990). The meeting of the World Education Forum, which synthesized the regional reports of 183 countries across the world, recorded a sense of satisfaction on the progress made during last 10 years. The forum found 82 million more children in schools of whom 44 million were girls leading to a net enrolment ratio of 80%. Dropout rate has declined coupled with greater gender parity and 'some' improvement in quality. Adult literacy rate has also risen to 85% for men and 74% for women. It is 75.85% for men and 54.16% for women in India and China's performance would be only marginally better unless their state controlled statistics are fudged. Similarly, the rate of dropout in India is alarmingly rising; it is 60% at the end of primary education and 80% before reaching standard X. The apparent rosy picture painted by the Forum can be true only if other countries have achieved exceptionally well, which is unlikely.

Taking stock of progress thus, the Forum adopted a 6-point omnibus goal consisting of unexceptionable issues though less likely to put into action. The goals, in brief, are expanding and improving early childhood education, all children to have access to basic education by 2015 (a long range of time replacing Jomtien goal of EFA by 2000 with no reasons presented), ensuring learning needs of all young and adult, 50% improvement in adult illiteracy especially for women by 2015 (too long a period considering extent 85% male and 74% female literacy), eliminating gender disparity in primary and secondary education by 2005 and in all kinds of education by 2015 (knowing fully well that gender disparity above secondary level

is non-existent and is limited by cultural options and not by positive discrimination) and improve every aspect of quality of education. By extending the time period of 15 years i.e.upto to 2015, instead of usual decade, the UNESCO has only underscored the inherent weakness of the slogan of education for all which although essential for harmonious growth of world polity, is difficult to achieve if not too ambitious given the international geopolitical situation epitomized by the terrorist attack on America. The Dakar Conference did not have the benefit of hindsight of what is now known as war on terrorism, which have decimated Afghanistan and variously influenced the middle East and South Asia. Coupled with worldwide recession, the international priorities have made a 'jump shift' (in contract bridge jargon) and education has been pushed down several rung of the priority ladder yielding higher place to security related matters.

The basic findings of these high spending and sometimes high sounding jamborees are slow and languid progress in basic education throughout the third world, which are already well known and the basic recommendations were *leit-motif* of future food intentions in hyperbolic languages about what is to be done. It appears that discussions were held under a kind of structured format and that the priorities had been pre-determined as otherwise many of the nations might not have opted for early childhood education as a priority agendum in the face of burgeoning deficiencies in primary education for which necessary resources could not yet be mobilized. Similarly, concern for gender equity and learning quality though crucial may not strike immediate resonance with the national policy makers who are more concerned about universalization especially when countries like India have declared education as a fundamental right. Issues like regional and international partnership and allocation of resources proportionate to a country's GDP are moot issues, which cannot possibly be discussed and thrashed out at international levels. The real breakthrough occurred perhaps in the mindset of UNESCO itself when, either by chance or by design, it gave preponderance to primary education over literacy, which so long constituted its major area of concern.

The extant discourse suggests, nonetheless, that UNESCO has been naïve enough to presume certain hypotheses on attitudes and willingness of some countries to go with UNESCO's diagnosis and prescriptions in addressing problems of basic education. In most of these conclaves a country is represented by persons who may not have proper brief or authority either to shed light on the agenda or to make commitments. In most of the third world democracies, political stability is fragile and political consensus is unheard of even in the spheres of vital national interests and it is highly unlikely that the delegates could carry the government of the day to follow what he or she had agreed on behalf of the country. Even if the delegation was at the highest level, political compulsions and financial constraints – mainly in coalition government – back home may water down the resolutions adopted

abroad. This scenario is absolutely true for south Asian countries where stable
political culture and sanctity of international commitments are yet to take root. In
the Middle East and Latin America concept of democracy is still new and slowly
emerging except in few countries where dictatorship and aristocracy is still the
preferred form of governance. Here, regional conflagrations, religious
fundamentalism, terrorism and drug related issues permeate the governance in much
deeper way than concern for education. Hence, their commitments in international
forums appear to be ritualistic and not meant for strict compliance. Similar situations
prevail in Saharan and sub-Saharan Africa from where reports of fratricidal wars
are endemic and where political culture is still primitive. 15 years prolongation of
EFA goals therefore was pragmatic. Some international observers question the very
modus operandi of organizing international conferences by the UNESCO.

Types of delegations invited and structured agenda formulated preclude free
discussions. Most of such conferences begin and end with long lectures by national
delegates flaunting litany of statistics, which they might not have risked to disclose
before their home audiences. Moreover, most of the delegates are not directly involved
with the subject they are representing or has little knowledge in ground realities. It
is true that regional group meetings are sometimes held prior to summits but even in
those meetings detailed discussions are not always possible due to constraints of
time. There also UNESCO comes with its own agenda and like to push it through
with the help of a structured timetable. Both in summits and in regional discussions
delegates try to impress upon the audience their achievements and seldom bring out
any critical area to enrich the discourse. None of the countries place well-researched
reports indicating micro-level problems and are generally happy to submit macro-
level achievements, which are self-congratulatory and extol the indefensible. On the
other hand, the NGOs representing tiny constituencies and absorbed in their own
fancy projects funded by the UNESCO or by big national or international
organizations portray themselves larger than life and occupy space in the discourse
disproportionately bigger than their actual level of experience and knowledge. In
fact, in many such conclaves where I have had the privilege to attend, the agenda,
the reports presented and discussions held generally hover around their unique
experiences not relevant to the issues under discussion nor they throw any significant
light, which may have illuminated the discourse. In fact, the delegates are prisoners
of their own little experiences and like the proverbial frog in the well consider such
experiences universal, nonetheless, and not amenable to innovations and critiques.
In some instances they are remote from ground realities. Consequently, the decisions
taken are generally vague and omnibus, which although generally non-controversial,
hardly serve any purpose.

Similarly, the experts who are invited by the UNESCO to help them frame
curricula or guidelines for any major intervention, are normally chair-bound scholars

having hardly any grass root level experiences. Hence, UNESCO's guideline series on literacy, post literacy and continuing education and the recent project on Community Learning Centers are too elaborate and prescriptive to provoke peoples' participation or too 'over the head' to address regional areas of concern and aspirations. Unfortunately, most of the third world countries consider those guidelines or formulations too sacrosanct to amend and lap them up lock, stock and barrel. As a consequence, nations are saddled with programmes not relevant to their needs but perforce have had to spend fortunes without corresponding benefits.

Most of the UNESCO guided programmes implemented in India fell under this category in spite of the fact that the UNESCO had spent considerable fund and energy in bolstering educational interventions in India. Observers, hence, accuse UNESCO of 'elitism' and sometimes purveyor of 'cronyism'. Even if the allegations stick, they are surely unwitting as it may not be possible for the UNESCO to locate resource persons with hindsights and perforce have had to depend either on the national governments or their own contacts among the local or international NGOs. Nevertheless, spotters of UNESCO have not done their job well and appears to have landed the institution in an unenviable position as far as their resources person pool is concerned resulting in turnover of poor resource products. Same can be told of their sister organizations like ACCU in Japan and EFA office at Bangkok. So far as India is concerned which harbours 50% of the world illiterates and a very poor elementary education infrastructure, effective presence of UNESCO is negligible with its country office non-functional in Eastern India where educational scenario is worst. UNESCO has no presence at all. While appealing to the UNESCO to show greater concern for India in general and for the states of eastern India in particular, we may suggest that role of UNESCO merely as a resource body with a limited pool of resource person will not take it far enough. They should arrange for extensive research in the fields of learners' motivation, attitude of the parents towards the education of their children and the peculiar mindset of the subaltern.

Professor Amartya Sen, the Nobel Laureate, has done commendable research in these fields in West Bengal. Findings of these studies clearly point out to the inadequacies of existing modes of intervention based on 'totalitarian' concepts of 'total literacy campaign' of the 1990s for eradication of illiteracy and 'Sarbashiksha Abhiyan' or total education campaign of the new millennium for ensuring universalisation of elementary education and have called for greater micro level study of the problems to find out causative factors and make interventions contextual and area specific. For this purpose UNESCO has to find out critics not cronies to undertake those studies on the basic hypothesis that cynics and anti-establishment thinkers are best suited for such research and investigation.

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MACROECONOMIC POLICY ISSUES OF ADULT EDUCATION IN NIGERIA

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Introduction

Economics since its inception as a single subject of study has always probed the major policy issues of the day. The topics that have always aroused the interests of its practitioners generally centre on those issues that present government officials with critical policy choices. The modern literature on the Macroeconomics of Adult Education is no exception. Adult education being a sub-discipline of education constitutes one of the problem aspects of the subject matter of education. The economics of education in general terms deals fundamentally with the impact of education on such phenomena as the occupational structure of the labour force, the recruitment and promotion practices of employers, the migration of labour between regions within a country and between different countries, the patterns of international trade, the size distribution of personal income, the propensity to save out of current income and, most general of all, the prospects of economic growth. Frequently, its main purpose is to describe and explain variables. Mark Blaug (1980) argues that economics of education may not be distinctly different from labour economics, public sector economics, welfare economics, growth theory and development economics except when education appears as a significant variable in an argument. This suggests that what draws it all together is the basic idea that the acquisition of education in a modern economy provides opportunities for individuals to invest in themselves. It is important to note that unlike defence expenditure, public educational expenditure is to some extent the outcome of individual choices exercised. These private decisions are profoundly influenced by expected economic returns. The emerging point here is that it opens the door both to an economic analysis of the private demand for education and the formulation of economic criteria for the collective provision of educational facilities. It is this insight that has inspired the subject from the outset and still continues to motivate present research in the area. This brings us to the issue of education being only one type of investment in human beings, which in turn suggests that people can invest in themselves by spending on medical care, by migrating to more prosperous regions, by purchasing information about job opportunities, career prospects and by choosing jobs with relatively high training content. This shows that economics of education partakes in a much wider subject that has policy implications for governments. However, the scope of this paper extends beyond formal education provided in schools and focuses on macroeconomic policies on Adult Education in Nigeria. This paper reviews and examines the

Macroeconomic issues relating to Human Development Index (HDI) within the context of poverty reduction in relation to Adult Education and economic growth in Nigeria. Besides it examines how macroeconomic policies affect Adult Education in relation to Human Development Index (HDI), and economic growth and evaluates Adult Education programmes and the policy of the political leadership in Nigeria and also studies the economic impact of government policy on Adult Education.

Adult Education and Economic Growth : A Theoretical Review

As Blaug, (1980) has argued, compelling evidence indicates that the economics of education is traditionally confined to formal education. This tends to suggest that apart from a general awareness of the significance of informal education, empirical analysis is far richer in the area of formal schooling than adult education. Similar problems about the scope of health economics exist because investment in health extend far beyond curative and preventive health services to expenditure on raising environmental standards of nutrition, sanitation, housing and clothing. This can be compared with how informal education probably contributes more to economic growth in developing countries than all school enrollments put together. In this direction, public health programmes probably have a greater effect on living standards in poor countries than personal medical care and hospital services.

Psacharopoulos (1995) argues that strong and sound political and economic policies are required in all the sub-sectors of education especially in Adult Education. The rationale is that heavy investment in human capital through improvements in formal and informal educational sectors, health, nutrition and other social services will stimulate economic growth and promote equitable development.

Miller III (1992) observed that economic growth is important not only in terms of real income but also in terms of the stability of the social fabrics of an economy with a law growth rate which is prone to political instability.

The contemporary Nigerian economy requires heavy investment in human capital through Adult Education programmes. This will enable most adult citizens to acquire the skills and abilities they need to take advantage of those opportunities offered by the economic growth. Human capital and economic growth reinforce each other. This is the case because economic growth increases the demand for labour and the returns to work, through employment, higher wages, and better earnings for small entrepreneurs. While human capital makes it more attractive for people to improve their individual skills and abilities for the purpose of increasing resources within the economy. Investment in human capital enhances the skills of individuals and equips them for new work possibilities. It also makes the entire economy more competitive in global markets and strengthens the prospects for faster economic growth.

These two variables are mutually reinforcing improvements and thereby breaking the "vicious circles" of binding poverty among the residents in developing countries.

However,   the two must work together because one without the other is not enough. For example, investment in human capital may fail if there are very few jobs and opportunities that are being generated to make full use of the capital. Also, economic growth may be stalled if very few people are competent enough to fill new jobs and capitalize on new possibilities.

This can be related to what happened in East Asian Countries when they emerged from economic despair in the 1950s and invested heavily in human capital in subsequent decades. The emerging point from this is that primary education is the largest single contributor to the economic growth rates of high performing Asian economics (World Bank, 1993a). A study of 98 countries showed strong and positive association between school enrolments and economic growth rates (Barro 1991). In fact enrolment in Adult Education classes and expansion of Continuing Education programmes can also enhance the economic growth rate in Nigeria.

Education Trends in the Southern and Northern Nigeria

Trends in policy on Adult Education in Nigeria can be linked with general policy on education sector in Nigeria. Education is conceived as a process by which individuals living in a society are taught how to understand the environment in which they live. This enables them to learn and acquire knowledge that might enhance the welfare and progress of the members of the society in which they live. This implies that the individuals will avoid acts capable of being injurious to the well being of the society and engage in such acts that will increase their knowledge and skills for acquiring a livelihood. Education as explained in these terms, clearly suggests that certain educational processes were in operation in Nigeria before the colonial era. These processes can be linked to customs, rules and regulations which usually determine behavioural patterns of individuals in a society. They also determine the status accorded to those who hold the positive of political leadership or who played leadership roles in the society.

A historical survey of Western type of education in Nigeria shows that Colonial Evangelical Education came first to the south in 1842. The first Western type primary school was established in Badagry by Thomas Birch Freeman on September 24, 1842. Subsequently, in 1846 Church Missionary Society (CMS) opened schools in Badagry and Abeokuta respectively. In 1855, the South Baptist convention from USA came to Nigeria and opened two more schools, one at Lagos and the other at Ogbomosho. In 1860 the Roman Catholic Church opened a school at Lagos in which the language of instruction was Portuguese. The United Presbyterian Church of Scotland, led by the Reverend Hope Waddell, opened a school at Calabar in 1846 and another one at Botany in 1847. The first big western institution was the Katsina College in the North in 1922.

A strong policy on revitalization of Adult Education in Nigeria was initiated to correct earlier imbalanced in the development of education. A large number of

adult population in Nigeria remained illiterate till the mid 1990s, and that the Country's public expenditure on education as a percentage of GNP has been among the least in the World-less than 1 percent compared with 5.5. percent among Arab States and 5.3 percent in the developed countries. (UNESCO) Nigerian government did not formulate consistent and sustainable policy towards adult education programmes outside the university system. There are several constraints in the development of literacy and adult education in Nigeria. Political will backing the universalization of basic education has not been translated into positive action programmes and adequate financial and human resources have not been allocated. Other constraints are low motivation among the target population, emphasis on formal education, lack of innovation in delivering adult education, poor quality of programmes, teaching methods and materials, lack of effective post-literacy programmes and inadequate teaching and administrative personnel.

All these issues can be linked to the inadequacies of the political leadership in Nigeria towards sustainable adult education programme. Successive Nigerian government paid no attention to a wide gap, which separates the practice of adult education in Nigeria and current visions of adult learning in the contemporary world economy. For example, the 1997 "Hamburg Declaration on Adult Learning", considers adult learning "both as a consequences of active citizenship and a condition for full participation in society. It is a powerful concept for fostering sustainable development, for promoting democracy, justice and scientific and economic development, and for building a world in which violent conflict and war are replaced by dialogue and a culture of peace... Literacy, conceived broadly as basic knowledge and skills needed by all in a rapidly changing world, is a basic human right... The recognition of the Right to Education and the Right to Learn throughout life is more than ever a necessity, it is the Right to read and write, to question and analyse, to have access to certain resources, and to develop individual skills and collective competence... ("Hamburg Declaration" 1997-202-5). The Declaration has assigned "a new role for the state and the emergence of expanded partnerships devoted to adult learning within the civil society". The document emphasizes the role of the State in "ensuring the right to education, particularly for the most vulnerable, and in providing an overall policy framework" ("Hamburg Declaration" 1997, 203).

However, the operationalisation of these visions appears impossible in Nigeria because the political leadership has not been adequately informed of the need for a radical transformation of resources in favour of adult education. It may be due to the lack of adequate knowledge of the policy makers in Nigeria regarding the economic benefits of adult education in the contemporary society. Hence, the ill-equipped policy-makers are likely to ignore and make ineffective policy towards education in general and adult education in particular. Invariably, this will portend undesirable economic consequences for the society. Such consequences may include social ills and distortions in economic growth.

Macroeconomic Policy and Human Development Index (HDI)-In Nigeria

The level of Adult Education development in Nigeria tends to suggest that there is an apparent need to realign the government choices of macroeconomic policies in favour of three basic dimensions of human development. These include:

i.   longevity which is measured by life expectancy at birth.

ii.   Educational attainment measured by adult literacy rate and the enrollment ratio in primary, secondary and tertiary education; and

iii. Living standards measured by gross domestic product (GDP) per capita at purchasing power parity.

It is important to note that the HDI in this case ranges between zero (i.e.low human development) and one (high human development). In the contemporary economy, it has been observed that the indicators of well-being have improved in many countries, though with major variation both within and across countries. In Nigeria, reducing poverty is a key challenge facing the Nigerian economy, and there is an important debate on the macroeconomic policy choices that may help the government to attain that objective. In addition, the question of how the national financial resources are allocated to various sectors of the economy is also important in the direction of achieving the desired objective in poverty reduction in Nigeria.

Although the HDI as the arithmetic average of a country's achievements in three basic dimensions of human development has a number of advantages for various countries it does not capture income inequality directly, though it is closely correlated with it. Furthermore, countries with a given per capita income, where income is evenly distributed tend to display greater average longevity and educational attainment, and therefore a higher HDI value. This implies that the macroeconomic policy choices of Nigerian government never paid particular attention to Adult Education in the country.

Both the HDI and per capita income are highly correlated with other widely used measures of poverty, such as the share of the population with income of less than N100 per day (a World Bank measure N100 = $ 1) and the share of the population that is undernourished (a Food and Agriculture Organization Measure). Table-1 provides a comparative list of selected countries for which 1998 HDI data are available. The countries are categorized by selected regions and in descending order of their HDI Values. The purpose of this table is to draw the attention of policy makers to see how the macroeconomic policy has affected Human Development Index in Nigeria in relation to educational attainment. This can be related to the adult literacy rate.

Table 1: Human Development Index (HDI) of Selected Countries.

	Africa	HDI	Asia	HDI	Europe/Indus Trial Nations	HDI	Transition	HDI
1.	South Africa	0.70	Singapore	0.88	Canada	0.93	Bulgaria	0.77
2.	Botswana	0.59	Hong Kong SAR	0.87	U.S.A.	0.93	Russia	0.77
3.	Gabon	0.59	Korea, Rep	0.85	Australia	0.93	Romania	0.77
4.	Ghana	0.56	Thailand	0.74	Japan	0.92	Georgia	0.76
5.	Zimbabwe	0.56	Philippines	0.74	U.K.	0.92	Ukraine	0.74
6.	Cameroon	0.53	China	0.71	France	0.92	Azerbaijan	0.72
7.	Kenya	0.51	Vietnam	0.67	Germany	0.91	Albania	0.71
8.	Congo,Rep.	0.51	Indonesia	0.67	Italy	0.90	Molodova	0.70
9.	Sudan	0.48	India	0.56	Spain	0.90	Uzebekistan	0.69
10.	Muritana	0.45	Pakistan	0.52	N/A	-	-	-
11	Nigeria	0.45	Bangladesh	0.46	N/A	-	-	-

Source: UNDP, 2000.

Table 1 reveals that African and Asian countries had relatively low values, while industrial and transition countries had relatively high values. The UNDP study (2000) argues that the HDI improved in almost all countries between 1975 and 1998, and that the median of HDI was significantly higher in 1998 (0.73) than in 1975 (0.62).

The UNDP (2000) study further argues that there was little change in the ranking of countries by HDI during this period. The study reveals that the correlation between countries' HDI ranks for 1975 and 1998 is 0.98. In addition, the study indicates that apart from the basically unchanged ranking of countries, there is some evidence to show that low countries have been improving though slowly, with high – HDI countries. But the question that links this to the present study is how Nigeria has fared in Human Development Index especially with policies towards Adult Education programmes in Nigeria. This question can be answered by looking at Table – 1 where Nigeria ranked 11th among African countries that have made significant improvement in HDI Values. For example, the countries that displayed the greatest improvement in HDI from 1975 to 1998 are from Africa and Asia. Nepal improved (by 63 percent), Mali (53 percent), Pakistan (48 percent), The Gambia (47 percent), and Chad (45 percent). Nigeria with its resources is among those countries that

recorded least improvement in HDI Values in the world particularly in Adult Education programme development.

This further shows that poverty in a given country can be reduced by sound macroeconomic policies towards fostering per capita GDP growth through improvement in adult literacy rate by realigning the macroeconomic policies and by increasing the total budgetary allocation to educational sector. This will be within the context of increasing the total resources available to the population. This tends to suggest that increasing the share of resources going to education sector will increase and foster economic growth through a set of policies aimed at promoting macroeconomic stability (low and stable inflation, low budget deficits and sustainable educational growth and openness to external trade, education and efficient policies of rule of law. However, our causal observation tends to suggest that there is an association between sound macroeconomic policies towards education in general and rapid improvement in Adult Education, in particular. In table – II we attempt to compare financial expenditure of selected countries in Africa in three sectors of their respective economies i.e. Health, Education and Defence between 1986 and 1990.

Table-II : Comparative Analysis of Financial Allocation to Health, Education and Defence in Selected African Countries 1986-1990

(Percentage of GDP)

COUNTRIES	HEALTH %	EDUCATION %	DEFENCE %
Nigeria	1	3	3
Ghana	9	26	3
Kenya	7	23	3
Tanzania	6	8	16
Uganda	2	15	26
Egypt	3	12	20
Morocco	3	17	15
Tunisia	6	15	6
Malawi	7	11	7
Mali	2	9	8

Sources: UNCEF Plan of Action p/36 1991 & Oyside and Achime(2000)pp 303-304.

Table II provides an insight into the allocation policy of Nigerian government and its political will towards social sector of the economy. Nigeria ranks the least among 10 selected countries in Africa in relation to percentage allocation of its GDP between 1986 and 1990 to the education sector. This shows that Health received only (one percent), education (three percent) and Defence (three percent) of Nigeria's national budget during the period as indicated in the table. While countries

like Ghana and Kanya had 26 and 23 percent respectively allocated to education. The implication is that 3 percent of the GDP to education may not go far enough to efficiently develop any meaningful programme, both in the formal and informal education sectors. The emergent point therefore is the adverse effect that this low allocation may have on the economic growth of the country.

Macroeconomic Policy Issues in Adult Education

This section examines how macroeconomic policy issues in Nigeria have affected investments in Adult Education sector. Investments in informal education sector (Adult Education) have received little or no attention in Nigeria. The formal and informal education sectors have been adversely affected by lack of political will on the part of government to realign its poor macroeconomic policies in favour of education sector in general and Adult Education in particular. Here, we argue that there is a bi-directional relationship between financial investment in education and the existence of poverty in Nigeria. We therefore argue in this section that appropriate realignment of financial investment in both formal and informal education programmes in Nigeria will yield positive developmental results, such as increases in : i. Poverty reduction; ii. Labour productivity and iii. the quality of educated labour force. In short, the quality of education will progressively improve. The macroeconomic policy of investing in human capital (i.e. health and education) in Nigeria appears to be uncertain because of the lackadisical attitude of successive political leadership in the country and the constant changes in the political and economic environment.

This paper takes the position that proper policy realignments in favour of Adult Education development will form one of the foundations upon which sustainable economic development and equitable distribution of wealth can be built. More investments in the sub sector of adult education improvements of infrastructure facilities, stable political and economic environment, and most importantly, indigenous capacity building in the area of Adult Education and other essential education at ingredients that can accelerate the development of Adult Educationm economic growth, poverty reduction, and prevent further distortions in the distribution of educational facilities, income and wealth. Scholars like Solow, (1957), Fabricent, (1959) and Mushkin (1962) have argued that financial investment instability caused by macroeconomic disequilibrium in education sector increases the level of poverty in the society. This tends to suggest that an organic bi-directional relationship exists between financial investment in human capital and the level of poverty within the framework of any economy. To increase the level of adult literacy in Nigeria to an acceptable level, an attempt must be made within the macroeconomic policy formulation to realign the current financial investment pattern in favour of the education sector.

Conclusion

This paper has examined how economics since its inception as an indepndent discipline of study has always probed major policy issues of the government. Within the context of topics that have always aroused the interests of its practitioners, the interests generally centre on those issues, chosen by government official. For example, the government allocate all budgets to formal education sector and none to informal education sector where the adult education belongs. A large number of people who ought to be in formal school are not there because of the poverty. The central issue is that if government policy allocates all the financial resources to the formal sector, then the disadvantaged group without opportunity to upgrade themselves through adult learning will continue to contribute to the distortions in economic growth.

Our study has shown that the macroeconomic policies of Nigeria relating to informal education sector are yet to be effectively addressed. The discipline of adult education still remains within the low priority list of macroeconomic policy of Nigerian government. This can been seen clearly from the policy on education especially on the plan of 6-3-3-4. The government policy failed to focus on education within the context of career aspiration of adults. Apart from separating adult education from global educations adequate funds need to be allocated to both formal and informal education sectors which in term would enable literates and on literates to participate in the national development. Macroeconomic policy towards formal education alone cannot, enhance the technological development and economic growth.

Finally, the paper has shown that investment instability induced by macroeconomic disequilibrium created by inefficient policy formulation in financial allocation to the adult education sector decreases the quality of labour force within the economy. The emerging point is that macroeconomic policy towards capacity building through investment in adult education can accelerate economic growth, alleviate poverty and protect the Nigerian economy from further distortions. The paper concludes that an organic bi-directional relationship exists between the financial investment pattern in formal education sector and the level of illiterate adults within the framework of the Nigerian economy. The goal of literate society in Nigeria can be achieved to a reasonable level when a proper macroeconomic policy realignment in the current financial investment pattern in Adult Education sector is made.

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LESSONS FROM ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMMES IN THE EAST AND SOUTH-EAST ASIAN COUNTRIES: A CASE STUDY OF THAILAND

S.Y. Shah

The prevalence of high rate of literacy in the East and South-East Asian countries has evoked considerable interest among administrators, academicians and activists of South Asian countries which have a comparatively lower literacy rate and are keen to catch up with their neighbours. As against 83.4% and 87.9% adult literacy in the East and South East Asia and Pacific, the adult literacy rate in South Asia was 52.2% in 1997.[1] While the number of adult illiterates declined in East Asia from 324 to 281 million during 1970-90; in South Asia, there was actually an increase from 302 to 397 million. (See Table No.:1) How did East and South East Asian countries succeed in achieving high literacy? What type of literacy programmes did they devise? What was the role of primary education in the East and South East Asian countries? Are there any lessons to be learnt from the adult education programmes of East and South East Asian countries? Although scholars argue that universal primary education is the single most important factor which has contributed to the higher rate of literacy in most of the countries of the region,[2] the role of adult education programmes in the liquidation of illiteracy cannot be ignored, specially

Table No.1 Adult illiterate (age 15 and over) and illiteracy rates

	Adult illiterates (in millions)				Illiteracy rates (%)				Decrease 1970-2000
	1970	1985	1990	2000*	1970	1980	190	2000*	% points
World Total	890.1	965.1	962.6	942.0	38.5	29.9	26.9	22.0	-16.5
Developing countries	842.3	908.1	920.6	918.5	54.7	39.4	35.1	28.1	-26.6
Of which: Sub-Saharan Africa	115.0	133.6	138.8	146.8	77.4	59.1	52.7	40.3	-37.1
Arab States	49.7	58.6	61.1	65.8	73.5	54.5	48.7	38.1	-35.4
Latin America/ Caribbean	43.0	44.2	43.5	40.9	26.2	17.6	15.2	11.3	-14.9
Eastern Asia	324.1	297.3	281.0	233.7	46.8	28.7	24.0	17.0	-29.8
Southern Asia	302.3	374.1	397.3	437.0	68.7	57.7	53.8	45.9	-22.8
Developed countries	47.8	57.0	42.0	23.5	6.2	6.2	4.4	2.3	-3.9

*= projected.

Source: UNESCO: Cited in Daniel A Wagner, "Literacy and Development", *International Journal of Educational Development*, vol.15, no:4, 1995.

because of the continuation of the problem of drop-outs and never enrolled (out of school) children.[3] Studies have shown that all those children who enter primary school may not leave it with an enduring capacity to read and write and within a short period, a section of them may relapse into illiteracy. Without an effective component of adult education programme, it may be difficult to achieve universal literacy. Since most of the countries of the region have designed and implemented a variety of adult education programmes during the last fifty years, it would be interesting to review them so as identify effective strategies and exemplar practices which could be adopted or adapted in other regions. The scope of this paper is, however, limited to Thailand mainly due to its rich and varied experiences in the field of adult education.

East and South East Asia: General Scenario

Countries in contiguous areas of South East Asia and East Asia, notwithstanding the noticeable political differences, language and culture have undergone sweeping changes in economy and society during the last fifty years. Of the twenty three countries in this region; China, Japan, Korea and Vietnam have not only experienced great disasters of warfare and invasion but also achieved great feats of national survival and regeneration. Korea stands divided. China has repudiated the policies of Mao and struck out in new directions. South Korea, Taiwan, HongKong and Singapore have witnessed modern economic growth and have moved to establish more open societies. With the liberalization of economy and reshaping of their trading relationship, most of the countries have opened up to foreign direct investment. These counties are characterized by high macro economic stability, per capita income and sound governance. As a consequence of rapid social and economic development in this region, there has been tremendous improvement in several indicators of human development.[4]

Education has expanded enormously in most of East and South East Asian countries resulting in a general increase in literacy rate. Adult literacy rate in Asia has risen from 48% in 1976 to 72% in 1997. As against 98.7% of adult literacy in Developed Countries, East Asia had 83.4% adult literacy rate in 1997. There is considerable disparities in the overall literacy rates in the countries of the region, ranging from a low of 58.6% in Lao PDR to a high of 97.2% in the Republic of Korea (See Table No.2). Countries such as Korea, Philippines, Sri Lanka and Thailand already had high literacy rates by 1970. All the countries of the region have shown deep commitment to combat illiteracy and developed different types of adult education programmes. Where the economy is planned, adult education is approached in a deliberate way and is linked with development plans as in Lao, Vietnam, and China,. In these countries, illiteracy is seen as a major impediment to development.

Table No.2

Adult Literacy In Selected East & South East Asian Countries

Country	Adult Literacy (%) 1997		Estimated no. of Ad Ill.	Public Spending on Education			IMR	GNP per Capita
	Total	Female	(000)	As % GNP	Adult Edn.%	Primary Edn.	1995	1994 US$
Singapore	91.48	7.0	196	3.26	-	26.8	6	23360
Korea, Rep. of	97.2	95.5	697	4.46	-	41.9	223	8220
Malaysia	85.7	81.0	2057	6.10	-	33.4	13	3520
Thailand	94.7	92.8	2613	3.80	1.66	52.8	32	2210
Philippines	94.6	94.3	2234	2.97	-	-	53	960
China	82.9	74.5	166173	2.56	2.78	36.8	47	530
Indonesia	85.0	79.5	21505	2.22	-	-	75	790
Vietnam	91.9	89.0	2916	-	-	-	45	190
Myanmar	83.6	78.8	4913	-	-	47.7	150	-
Lao PDR	58.6	46.8	1170	2.35	3.79	42.2	134	320

Source: *Human Development Report 1999*, pp.134-137, 229-231.

Impact of Non Formal Adult Education in the Asia Pacific Region – 1997, pp.20-21.

Concept of Adult Education

There is diversity within the region regarding the use of the term 'adult education' and the meaning attached to it. During the last fifty years the counties of the region have brought out the several policy statements which defined the concept and programme. In Malaysia, Philippines, Thailand, the term nonformal education is used to cover all the activities organized for out of school population. In China adult education is defined as 'worker peasant education' and it's scope is very wide including civic and political education as well. The main objective of Chinese adult literacy programme is to meet the needs of rural people in acquiring knowledge, recreation and enhance their ideological and ethical standard and improve their productive capabilities and quality of life.[5] Singapore is well known for it's civic education campaigns. The Lao PDR uses both the term literacy and complementary education to cover adult education programmes. The Socialist Republic of Vietnam calls adult education complementary education. In both these countries, complementary education includes development of technical skills among workers and inculcation of political awareness. In industrialized countries like Singapore, Korea and HongKong, vocational education is not considered a part of adult

education, except in retraining or updating initial training. They equate adult education with education for leisure.[6] However, vocational oriented programmes are a significant component of adult education in Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Vietnam and Thailand.[7] In Indonesia, promotion of literacy is inseparably linked to the pursuit of peace and progress.[8] However, functional literacy is not an end in itself but an essential means to assist the individual and his society to deal with the increasingly complex problems which the process of development engenders. In fact different countries have a different approaches but common factor are the development of basic literacy skills, functional literacy like agricultural techniques, health care etc. aimed at development and enhancing civic awareness among poor. Thailand goes beyond this and tries to promote "critical thinking" among adult learners. However, none of the countries in the region equates adult education with literacy though some give prominence to it. In almost all the countries, the target group is rural poor and urban slum dwellers. Both mass and selective approaches have been adopted in different countries to tackle illiteracy. All the countries differ significantly with regard to planning and management of adult education programmes and have a comparatively low budget allocation in the range of 1.66% of total budget on education in Thailand to 3.79% in Lao PDR.[9]

The Case of Thailand

Among the East and South East Asian countries, record of Thailand has been spectacular in terms of all indicators of development. Thailand, relatively speaking, is a large country (with the exception of China) not only in terms of population but also in respect of the national endowment. It was the fastest growing Asian economy till 1995. It has registered highest average real GDP increase of almost 10% per annum during 1988-95 compared to 6% per annum in the preceding eight years. Compared to Indonesia, Singapore, Vietnam, China, which allow little open dissent, Thailand has a liberal democratic polity.[10] Unlike most of the counters of the region, Thailand has designed and implemented a number of innovative adult education programmes very effectively. The rich and varied experiences of Thailand in the field of adult education may provide valuable insights to the policy planners from other countries of Asia.

Society and Culture

Certain special characteristics of Thai Society and culture have been very conductive for planning and implementation of adult education programme. Thailand (meaning 'land of free') was never colonized and has always been able to 'select, adopt and adapt' and hence there was speedier acceptance of what was selected. Constant but select borrowing has been continuing characteristics of development process in Thailand. The majority of population of being Buddhist (95%), there is an heightened awareness among masses about social problems and issues and a

keen desire to participate in community development activities. There are 3,57,048 Buddhist monks and 30,179 monasteries in Thailand which have also been playing an important role in educating the masses. The 'khitpen philosophy' and 'Kalamasutra' which are corner stones of the Thai society have been instrumental in motivating and mobilizing the masses for common action for development.[11]

According to 'khitpen' philosophy, the ultimate goal in life is happiness which needs to be defined by each individual. Happiness is linked to the extent to which man and his environment are in harmony. Education must aim ultimately to increase man's happiness and search his harmony. To achieve harmony one should gather the widest range of information on technical and social environment.[12] Hence education is accorded an important place in Thai Society. The presence of large number (2000) of non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) involved in community work in Thailand has further given a tremendous boost to adult education programmes.

Thailand is a small country, sandwiched between two great civilizations of China and India. It has a population of 59.7 million with a GNP of US$ 2210 in 1994.[13] It has a low fertility rate of 1.7 and IMR of 32 (See Table No.2). It spends 3.80% of GNP budget on Education (1.66% on adult education).[14] It has an impressive adult literacy rate of 95.1%. (97.2% male and 93.9% female).[15] While eastern region of Thailand has 99% literacy, the north eastern region has literacy in the range of 96-98.9%. Over the years, there has been gradual increase in literacy rate (See Table No.3). In view of the excellent socio-economic indicators of development Thailand stands out among the countries of the South-East Asian region.

Table No.3

Literacy Rate in Thailand (Age 10+)

Year	1960	1970	1980	1990	1995	1996
Total	70.8	71.8	87.4	93.4	94.2	95.1
Male	80.6	88.9	92.3	95.6	96.3	97.2
Female	61.0	74.8	82.6	91.2	91.0	93.9

Source: Department of Non Formal Education, Ministry of Education, Thailand.

Non-formal Education

A distinguishing feature of Thai education system is the consistently high priority accorded to basic education since the enactment of compulsory Primary Education Act in 1921. All the subsequent policy documents of 1932, 1940, 1977 have accorded top-priority to basic education.[16] While the World Conference on Education For All held in Thailand in 1990, proclaimed the eradication of illiteracy by   year 2000 in

Asia, the Thailand's National Social Economic Development Plan of 1992, projected education as a life long process and stressed the need for strengthening non formal education. Since 1979, all types of adult education programmes in Thailand were known as Non Formal Education. The objective of non-formal education is "to provide a second chance education to support and promote learning activities for youth and to organize an informal learning environment for the public".[17]

During the last six decades, a variety of non formal education programmes have been tried out in Thailand which can be broadly categorized into four: (i) basic education programme including literacy, primary and secondary education; (ii) Vocational Education Programme; (iii) In-formal Education through libraries, village reading centres, museums etc, (iv) Distance mode-through radio and television.

Although Thailand has had a strong tradition of adult education and had adopted compulsory primary education as early as 1921, the first national government survey in 1937 revealed 68.8% illiteracy among the population of over 10 years of age.[18] In order to liquidate illiteracy, Thai government adopted campaign approach. Systematic attempts were made over a period of two years to plan a comprehensive curriculum and literacy materials. Thailand launched two major literacy campaigns during 1940-43 and 1983-87. These campaigns were aimed at providing an opportunity for those who have not completed the fourth grade of education and are unable to read and write simple Thai language. The campaign was based on the principles of voluntary participation, individualized instruction, decentralized operation and well designed curriculum. The duration of the campaign was one year divided into two parts of six months each. Total contact hours were 200. All those who attended 70% of classes were given a certificate of basic literacy.[19] Compared to fourteen million people who participated in literacy campaign during the first phase, nearly five million (588,518) attended during the second phase.[20] Thai literacy campaign received Noma Literacy prize for its success in mobilizing village volunteers, officials of government and NGOs.

Functional Literacy Programme

During 1950s, when the concept of Fundamental Education was propagated by the UNESCO, Thailand responded by evolving the Work Oriented Functional Literacy through integrated curriculum of literacy and vocational skills. Later in 1969, this approach was modified with the inclusion of problem solving abilities to assist villagers in coping with rapid socio-economic changers. Thus the aim of functional literacy programme implemented since 1971, was to achieve the dual objective of teaching literacy skills and of assisting learners to cope with problems in their daily lives. Specific programme aimed at providing : people having no chance to study in the formal school system with an opportunity to receive education which was functional in content and at the same time entitled them to obtain certification equivalent to primary and secondary Education. It was expected that

through this programme, out of school youth and adults would continue to acquire knowledge and skills and become better prepared for work and at the same time have access to higher education. These programmes were organized, by walking teachers, volunteers, Buddhist monks, for hill tribes, factory workers, military persons, prisoners and all others interested in learning.[21]

Functional literacy programmes are of two types. The programme which has a primary school equivalency certification combines the teaching of literacy skills with issues of development, problem solving and critical thinking abilities. The curriculum is based on the needs and problems of the target groups. It is divided into three parts. 60% of contents is region based, 20% national based and 20% local based (to be determined by the instructor and learners on whatever topics they may find of interest). The total duration of curriculum is 200 hours. The learners with 70% attendance record would receive a certificate which entitles them to secure rights and privileges as Grade 4 primary school pass outs.[22]

An important aspect of Thai Functional Literacy Programme is the provision made to cover people with special needs and living in far off and remote areas. A major group of illiterate population is hill tribes who live in the Northern parts of the country. A special curriculum for the hill tribes was developed by integrating relevant knowledge and information for the hills tribes with the national primary curriculum. The syllabus included four components: Thai language, arithmatics, fundamental knowledge and skills. About 25% of the curriculum is based on issues of national concern, 50% on the general problems of hill tribes and 25% on locally relevant issues. Thus adequate weightage is given to the special needs of target groups. The learning process is self paced. Each learner can learn accordingly to his/her schedule. Competency based tests are available to assist the learner to measure progress. Compared to 6000 hours of learning by primary school children, adults will have to spend 2800 hours of learning. To begin with, trained teachers are sent to live in the hill areas. Later local people are trained to take over teaching. A village education centre is constructed with the help of the local community to serve as a learning centre and as well as lodging for the teacher. The villagers are free to visit the centre at their convenience to learn and engage in discussion with teacher. The teacher becomes local resource person who organizes classes for both adults and children and provides relevant information both directly and indirectly to the community. The Hill Area Education project was initiated during 1980-81 and catered to 272 villages in 10 provinces by 1988. Not only did it succeed in liquidating illiteracy from isolated pockets, but also gave a boost to the promotion of literacy in Thailand. The percentage of literacy increased from 71.8 to 93.4 during 1970-90.[23]

Post Literacy Programme

One of the striking features of Non-formal Education System is the provision of well planned programme of post literacy so that the neoliterates do not relapse

into illiteracy. This was attempted through the organization of Reading Centres, setting up libraries and launching reading campaign.

Village Reading Centres

It is widely known that neoliterates must have access to reading materials in order to retain and further develop their newly acquired skills. With a view to encouraging reading and setting up village Reading Centres, government provided select villages two daily newspapers and other periodic reading materials and handbooks if villagers undertake to build a simple centre and establish a local committee to manage it. By 1987, there were over 27,000 Village Reading Centres in the country.[24]

Temple Reading Centres

To further accelerate the expansion of Reading Centres in the rural communities, the Ministry of Education encouraged the setting Reading Centres within the compound of monasteries. The project was well received and within a short time, over 2,000 temples were able to set up Reading Centres with donation from the public.

Public Libraries

In addition to public libraries at provincial and district headquarters, Thailand has setup mobile libraries using boats, motor-cycles, book vans, book boxes to cater to the readers residing in far of places.

Good Books for Villagers Campaign

In order to increase the supply of reading materials to the rural areas, several measures have been carried out; a series of fifty pictorial booklets dealing with a wide variety of topics were developed with the cooperation of professional writers and were distributed to every village of the country; requests have been made to the major rural development agencies to be aware of the needs of neo-literates and to modify their print materials accordingly; all provinces have been given government support to produce simple wall newspapers focusing on local news, information and utilizing village writers; a major campaign to donate used books for villagers was conducted during 1984-85. Over one year period, close to 10 million books and magazines were donated by the public. The materials were classified and sent to rural schools, village reading centres and public libraries; a private organization named "Good Books for Villagers" was set up to promote production and distribution of suitable books for villagers. The organisation produces low-cost printed materials for sale, certifies books which are appropriate for villagers and encourages book publishers as well the general public to support increased supply of books to the rural areas[25]

The Reading Campaign

Along with the campaigns to eradicate illiteracy and to increase the flow of reading materials to the rural areas, Thai government also launched a Nation wide Reading Campaign in 1984. The campaign aimed at promoting reading habits among children, youth and the general public. The campaign began with training workshops for teachers, librarians and key personnel involved in the promotion of reading. Some of the activities promoted in the Reading campaign were: Reading Competition, Book Exhibition, Reading Circles, Animated book presentation and story-telling, Training workshop and development of reading promotion manuals, Campaign to promote reading through various forms of mass media.[26]

As recommended by the National Educational Development Plan (1993-96), Thailand has set up a variety of learning networks for providing life long learning for public and students. They are set up in monasteries, mosques, Churches and public places and are known by different names, such as education centes, community education centres, learning centres etc.[27]

Continuing Education Programme

A variety of skill oriented Continuing Education Programmes have been organized to provide the opportunities for neoliterates to upgrade their literacy skills and utilize them for the improvement of life as well as acquire educational qualifications comparable with, Upper Primary Education, Lower Secondary Education and Upper Secondary Education. These are offered through various forms of equivalency continuing education programmes.

The curricula used are based on the formal school curricula with 4 major modifications as follows: The contents are grouped into different major topics which can be taken in one semester rather than spreading over a period of two years. Thus, the students can reduce the time taken to complete any level to half of the formal school system. The academic subjects such as Mathematics, Sciences, English, Thai are not taught in isolation but are integrated with discussion of problems in the daily life of the adult learners. Regional and local variations of contents are also given due importance. The student can choose to study through the classroom approach, distance education or self-study. In the classroom approach, the students attend evening classes in the formal Secondary Schools or participate in learning groups organized by Walking Teachers, regularly 3-4 times a week. In the Distance education approach, the students learn through radio programmes, self-instructional materials and monthly tutorial sessions. In the self-study approach, the students can select any learning materials they desire and prepare themselves for the equivalency examinations. They are however, required to participate in periodic learning activities organized at a central place.[28]

Distance Education

Thailand has more than twenty years of rich experience in distance education. In recognition of the increasing demands for functional and equivalency education, the radio and correspondence education programme was launched in 1977 to serve people who are unable to attend regular classes. Today Thailand has 525 (FM&AM) radio stations which are used for broadcasting knowledge oriented programmes, providing advice and stimulating innovative ideas on various socio-economic issues. It has set up Thaicom Distance learning Centre in 1996. Distance Education Programme is one of the most popular and effective programmes of non-formal education in Thailand. For instance, in the Samat Sakorn Primary School at Ban Pan district, hundreds of children and adults come to attend evening classes. This particular school organizes four different types of educational programmes consisting of pre-school education, primary education, secondary education, and non-formal education through distance learning. Nonformal education facilities in this school are provided to youth and adult learners who have successfully completed compulsory education but failed to continue or to those who never had a chance to attend a formal school. The distance learning progamme at Wat Clongtonnatbamrung rural primary school is organized by its teachers. Since 1993 the school annually enrolls at least 300 adults and conducts tests for certification at both primary and secondary levels of education.

Depending on the levels of educational attainment, groups of adult learners are formed to facilitate teaching –learning process. Most learners receive free of charge, the learning materials and on week-ends they undertake group activities. Besides the teaching-learning activities, multimedia as self-learning package, radio and television programmes and group meetings are the modes used in this programme. Each group is also required to participate in several community activities. The group activities are so designed as to cultivate among them the feeling of brotherhood, citizenship, collective responsibility and to develop their own skills and attitude towards their communities. To further facilitate participation of those who have extensive life and occupational experiences, the progamme also allows transfer of life experiences, occupational experiences as well as credits from other educational activities to be counted towards the attainment of equivalency certificates. There are other variations of the project implementation with various target groups. For example, the Department of Vocational Education, which organizes home-based agriculture training to primary school leavers, also utilizes equivalency training programmes to prepare students for lower secondary education. After lower secondary education, these students can continue to work towards a diploma in agriculture education.

The flexibility of the Continuing Education Programmes and the increasing demands of the labour market for higher levels of education have made the programme

highly popular. Each year over 80,000 people attend paying tuition fees ranging from US$20-50 per course. The programme can indeed be self-financing but due to the government's concern that the programme will be inaccessible to disadvantaged segments of the population who cannot afford the tuition fees, the government has provided funds to subsidize half of the operation costs of programmes. In terms of students' achievement, it was found that students in these equivalency continuing classes tend to have comparable academic achievements to those in the formal schools. However, there appears to be a great deal of variations among students due to past academic backgrounds, duration of time elapsed since last schooling, and availability of time for studies.[29]

Vocational Continuing Education

Skill training is the most widely organized activity in the non-formal education. A large number of government and private agencies organize skill training programmes for the out-of-school population. Many of these programmes are standardized packages. Others, however, are developed in response to a specific local group need or interest. The characteristics that they share are brevity and specific focus. In 1984 approximately 900,000 individuals participated in these programmes. These programmes can be categorized as follows:

Demonstrations and Extension: Programmes of this type are conducted by field workers of all the major rural development agencies; Interest Groups Learning Programme; 15 individuals or more interested in acquiring a particular skill can form a learning group using a relevant local resource person who will receive an honorarium from the government for 6 to 30 hours of instruction; Short Term Vocational Training Programmes; 100 to 300 hours of courses offered in educational institutions, non-formal education centres, or through mobile units in 4 major areas viz. Industry, Home Economics, Engineering and agriculture; Long Term Intensive Training Programmes (3-5 months): Participants live in the training institution for specific periods of time undertaking the study of theory and engaging in its practical application.[30]

Mobile Trade Training School

In order to impart skill based training to adults living in far off places, Thailand introduced an innovative project named Mobile Trade Training School in 1960. Each mobile van was equipped with equipments and two instructors and a driver and it moved from village to village at an interval of 1-3 years. Provisions were made to impart vocational training in selected areas, in one or two shifts per day. Total duration of training programme was 300 hours in five months. This programme offers a short, low cost, flexible training programme in non-agricultural skills for rural out of school youth.[31]

Lessons

Several important insights can be derived from the Thai experiences of planning and implementation of non-formal education during the last six decades. Thailand has not only succeeded in bringing down the illiteracy rate from 68.8% to 5% during 1940-1995, but also developed a strong net work of continuing education programmes and reading centres thereby moving towards learning society. Thailand's experience confirm that universal primary education, promotion of basic literacy and provision of continuing education should be perceived and planned as an integral part of the total effort to provide education for all.[32]

Thailand has conceived literacy promotion as a continuous process without any long intervals of inaction. Basic literacy programmes were followed by post literacy programmes. Due care was taken to provide plenty of attractive reading materials to neoliterates so that they do not relapse into illiteracy. Literacy was not for literacy per se or as an end in itself but seen as a component of developing systematic equivalency programmes at par with formal education. The development of strong continuing education programmes, specially vocational training implemented through class rooms, and distance education mode has been a model to several countries of South Asian region.

One of the distinguishing features of Thai experience has been the importance accorded to basic education. While the budget allocation to primary education has been above 50% of total education budget since 1960s, the budget allocation for non-formal education has increased from 0.3% to 1.66% during 1961-1998.[33]

Thailand has shown that through community mobilization, a vast quantity of reading materials-used books and magazines can be collected for setting up libraries and reading centres. In 1985, Thailand collected about ten million publications from the community. By organizing public reading competitions and animated story telling, Thailand has generated considerable interest among the masses in sustaining their interest in reading.

During the early phase of literacy campaign, Thailand took certain strong administrative measures which gave a boost to literacy promotion. It was specified that only literate persons should be employed in Government and all illiterate adults in the family of civil servants should be made literate within a stipulated time. Besides instructions were given to Monks not to ordain illiterates into Buddhism.

Thailand has constituted a strong machinery of interdisciplinary team of professionals, technocrats and civil servants to plan and implement non-formation education. The provisions of security to the teaching staff and the provision of remuneration according to the number of hours taught also helped in involving and sustaining the interest of the teachers in literacy and adult education activities. The

varied experiences of one country can, however, be transplanted to another country only after careful consideration and keeping in view the socio-political and institutional context.

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33. **Thailand: Education Budget Allocation (1986-1998)**

Year	1961	1965	1970	1973	1980	1998
Nonformal Education % of Total Education Budget	0.3	0.4	0.8	1.1	1.8	1.66
Primary Education % of Total Education Budget	54	58	55.8	52.5	53	52.8
Edu%GDP		1.9	3.3			4.2

Source: Department of Nonformal Education, Bangkok.

Rie Yagi, *Process Analysis of a Total Literacy Campaign in India: A Case Study of Udaipur District, Rajasthan*, D. Phil, University of Oxford, 2002

Rie Yagi

The National Literacy Mission (NLM) of the Government of India has adopted the Total Literacy Campaign (TLC) model as the main policy instrument for eliminating adult illiteracy in the 1990s. The study is concerned with how the campaign approach approved at the national level is *de fac to* implemented at the grassroot level with local specific variances beyond the model. The TLC of Udaipur district in the state of Rajasthan is selected as a case for a descriptive analysis of the campaign process, with a specific focus on the policy implementation at the village level. The assumption is that the current evaluation and monitoring system in-built in the TLC scheme overemphasizes the quantitative aspects of the campaign outcomes, namely, the number of the target learners who have achieved the NLM norms and the levels of the learners' achievement as the 'end product' of the campaign. As a result, despite all the efforts toward standardizing the TLC evaluation, we know very little how a TLC has been implemented by the villages, what their responses to the district planning are, and why they have reacted in such a way.

Methodology

The study maintains a comparative nature in two perspectives. First, it is an essential part of the research to describe the implementation processes and operational strategies of Udaipur TLC in the context of the Plan of Action (POA) approved by the NLM. Secondly local TLC practices of six sample villages and their responses to the campaign strategies presented by the district authority (*Zilla Saksharata Samiti* – ZSS) are examined so that the points at which policy and practice converge and diverge are to be assessed within the TLC operational hierarchy. Based on the administrative structure of TLC implementation, the district, a basic administrative unit of operating a TLC, is divided further into two executive levels; *panchayat samitis* (blocks) and *gram panchyats* (GPs) villages. A village is the micro-most unit for implementing a TLC and it is to this level that the study pays a special attention for the process investigation. As a TLC is a multi-faced project by nature, the scope of the study has to be carefully focused. Nine operational stages of the campaign implementation are identified as a framework for data collection and analysis: (1) initiation of the campaign; (2) environment building; (3) survey; (4) administrative structure; (5) monitoring and supervision; (6) teaching-learning

materials; (7) training of volunteer forces; (8) arrangement of literacy centres; and (9) financial management. The question related to each operational stage are asked to all levels of TLC administrative structure (i.e. district, blocks and villages) and the findings are to be juxtaposed for comparative analysis.

The types of insight into the process of the TLC sought by this researcher cannot readily be furnished by quantitative methodologies, but may be the natural domain of the interpretive paradigm underlying qualitative strategies. The issue of whether quantitative or qualitative data are sought, however, reflects epistemological arguments concerning the most appropriate manner in which to research the selected subjects. This researcher recognises that, not only do quantitative and qualitative research strategies each have their own particular strengths and weaknesses, but that the relative appropriateness of these different approaches depends crucially upon the nature of the research questions being asked. In this study of TLC process analysis, it is also predominantly the research questions that determine the choice of research strategy and data collection methods. The application of specific data collection techniques becomes partly a technical matter of ensuring that they are to be utilised to produce valid data, and also partly a logistic judgement of what is feasible. One consequence of this is the adoption of a balance of quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection at a specific level of TLC operation. These are (a) in-depth interviews with the village / GP level volunteer force, namely volunteer teachers (VTs), coordinators and master trainers (MTs); (b) questionnaires filled out by district, block and village literacy committees, followed by a focused (group) interviews; (c) informal open-ended interviews and interactions with officers and resource persons; and (d) analysis of documentary evidence. For this researcher, the rationales for combining qualitative and quantitative research techniques are twofold. The first is to maintain a balance between qualitative data, that could be strong in depth and help interpret the specific, and quantitative data that might be useful in establishing the insights into the wider population to which the selected samples belong. The second is to enhance the validity of data through the process of 'triangulation', i.e. using the same method on different samples and / or different methods on the same sample. This concept of complementarity between the two methods is maintained throughout the research process.

Main Findings

Given a different social milieu and historical context, the application of so-called a 'TLC model' turns out to be a real challenge in Udaipur district of Rajasthan, one of the most educationally, and even otherwise, backward states in the Hindi-speaking heartland. With a deliberate focus on the TLC implementation at the village level, the gap between policy and practice of each campaign becomes even more apparent. It is important to understand that the TLC is on balance more a

'movement' than a 'programme'. While government 'programme', when successful, are examples of useful reform from above, 'movements' are often manifestation of attempted reform through mobilisation of people from below. In Udaipur TLC, there are some signs that this movement of the campaign approach with popular, mass support, has been substituted for a wholly 'top-down' effort to eradicate illiteracy.

By the time Udaipur proposed its TLC to the NLM, decision-making on the initiation was in fact very much centralised. That is, it was the demand from the top (namely, the NLM), under the name of 'national policy', that drove Udaipur to initiate the campaign, not necessarily the demand from the district itself 'fully prepared', much less that from the very 'bottom', namely villages, which were to be actual participants in this campaign process. A similar process of centralisation in the campaign initiation took place in its implementation as well. The District Literacy Cell became *de facto* the solo decision-making and implementation body in Udaipur TLC, which in time led to bureaucratization of the very approach to the campaign within the district itself. This was partly necessitated, and also further expanded, by the absence of strong non-governmental forces (i.e. NGOs or voluntary agencies) at the grassroot level that could work with the district administration 'as a team'. True, so-called a 'structural flexibility' is implicit in the design of the TLC model; the idea of entrusting the implementation of the TLC to a registered society (i.e. ZSS chaired by the District Collector, but not a governmental body) was precisely to avoid bureaucratic straight-jacketing and provide flexibility in policy making and implementation. However, while such flexibility is intended in the structure of the TLC, it tends to get lost as the campaign proceeds, given the general bureaucratic milieu within which the TLC takes place. Leadership at the district required in TLC must consciously allow this flexibility, and identify and encourage creativity at the subsequent levels. This, however, was not the case of Udaipur campaign practices. Local initiatives were hardly identified in any of the sample villages, and the campaign procedures became standardised, to say the least.

To sum up, Udaipur TLC shares in its approach and strategies more with the top-down government programme than with the campaign 'movement', and whatever credit it has gained seems to owe more to the former rather than the latter. This model is quite different from the one envisaged initially, in which the district administration is to be a partner of the progressive forces within the society – a voluntary agency or a group of individuals – and to encourage leadership and creativity for the literacy effort in a campaign itself. This researcher, however, argues that the effectiveness of the campaign thus implemented should not automatically lead to the controversy on the credibility of the model itself. The discussion of serious weaknesses that have emerged in Udaipur TLC is not to conclude

that the model on which the campaign rested is inherently unviable. The point, rather, is that there is still a strong validity for the TLC model per se based on voluntarism and people's participation, but we must at the same time realise that the model is not a panacea, and it needs to be, almost without exception, modified and enriched on the different soil, both before and throughout the actual campaign implementation. It is this conscious effort that the campaign leadership in Udaipur district has failed to make.

Policy Implications

Intensive discussion on whether or not TLC approach should be maintained as a national policy of India is beyond the scope of this study. However, as far as the Ninth Plan (1997-2002) is concerned, eradication of illiteracy is still 'a top priority in the National Agenda for Governance' (Shah, 1999; 211) and the campaign approach seems to stay as a mainstream for the 'efforts...to bring the remaining...districts under the coverage of literacy (campaign)' (Shah, 1999; 211). If   this is indeed the case, the researcher feels strongly that the NLM needs to be aware of the above-mentioned problems, and the serious discussion must take place for a significant reorientation of the very approach to TLC. An attempt, therefore, is to be made by this researcher to contribute towards this end, by presenting some of the   possible remedial measures and suggestions emerging from this study. Indeed, the research rests on a limited number of sample   population in the selected villages of Udaipur district, and consequently, it is not possible to make any generalisation from the findings of the study, neither for the TLC practices of the other districts   i   n Rajasthan   nor   those   in   the   other   states in India. However, the researcher argues that an important criterion for judging the value of this research would be the extent to which the details are sufficient and appropriate for those involved in a similar kind of literacy programmes or mass campaigns to relate their decision-making and policy implementation to that illustrated in this study. The suggestions are, therefore, intended primarily for the campaign practices of sample areas in Udaipur district; however, the findings may also be relatable, if not generalisable, in a way that will enable policy makers, administrators and educationists concerned elsewhere to recognise issues involved in the campaign approach, and possibly, to see ways of solving similar problems in their own cases, particularly in those in Hindi heartland of India.

Behind this researcher's attempt to present any suggestion is a strong argument for a genuinely decentralized mass literacy campaign. The researcher argues that one needs to be aware of the limitations and constraints within which the campaign has been conducted in a certain given context. After all, literacy practices are always embedded in social and cultural contexts and they are not simple neutral artefacts, but are inevitably contested and 'ideological'. One conclusion on what makes for a

successful literacy programme, taken from Freire, is local rather than universal; 'experiments cannot be transplanted; they must be reinvented' (Freire, 1978). This arises the question of decentralisation of the TLC structure itself, in both policy-making and its operation. In this researcher's opinion, a TLC should not be organized at the level of a district, where most TLCs have in fact been conducted so far. It seems to be clear that a district is often a very large unit both in terms of territory and in terms of the size of the target learner population. Related to decentralizing the campaign system, 'Panchayati Raj', introduced in 1992 as a system of local governance, may provide important new aspect for the organization of mass literacy campaigns of this kind. It has suggested a third tier of government, besides centre and sate, namely elected local bodies at district, block and gram panchats, with one-third representation for women. If adequate allocation of funds to local bodies can be ensured, a *gram panchayat* (population; 2,000 to 10,000) could be an ideal unit for mass literacy campaigns, particularly in the state like Rajasthan, where the population of the target learners itself often ends up being more than 200 thousand otherwise. When the number of target learners in a *gram panchayat* is too small to provide the critical minimum size, a block or a cluster of *panchayats* could be the unit for TLCs. The potential advantages of such decentralisation are (a) the greater transparency of the TLC process, given the small and compact territory; (b) the flexibility to respond to varying local conditions; and (c) the greater scope for people's participation.

The quantitative input-output research design that has most frequently been used in TLC evaluation   makes it difficult to penetrate any such marked divorce between policy and practice. It is important, however, to stress that this is not an argument that qualitative strategies should replace the more conventional quantitative styles of research such as that adopted in TLC evaluation. On the contrary, by focusing on qualitative research strategies, this researcher is suggesting that the current study with a qualitative focus can provide a complementary picture for what has already been presented in the evaluation exercises previously conducted and 're-assess' the issues from different perspectives.

This concept of complementarity also indicates a potential for the kind of integration of research strategies, incorporating both quantitative and qualitative techniques for data collection in single research.

The limitations of quantitative strategies in illuminating 'hows' and 'whys' are often self-evident. In fact, the fundamental weakness of quantitative input-output research design may be that they assume, first, that the adopted policy is actually implemented and, secondly, that this process of implementation corresponds to the policy directive itself. This, however, often does not reflect the reality of policy implementation, and managing a TLC is not an exception in this respect.

Promila Yadav, *Total Literacy Campaign and Social Change: A Study of the Six Selected localities in Bhopal District*; Doctoral Dissertation, Jawaharlal Nehru University, 2002

Promila Yadav

Introduction

Education in general, and mass literacy in particular are key contributors to the human resource development. Literacy and education have a direct role in human development and the two are instrumental in other achievements. Given India's commitment towards 'Education for All', the two major events have occurred in quick succession. The first was the launching of National Literacy Mission (NLM) in 1988 which has accorded primacy to literacy and adult education with the goal of making 100 million adults functionally literate in the age group of 15-35 years, by the turn of the twentieth century. Then, in 1990, a unique experiment was adopted in Ernakulam District, (Kerala) characterized by large-scale mobilization of people through campaign based approach of literacy which, highlighted the vital link between literacy and living. The essence of the campaign was to generate a positive demand for learning as a tool of social change. The mass campaign mode for total literacy also became a campaign for social mobilization, which meant promotion of literacy through mobilization. This model was adopted later in other districts of the country.

It has been observed that Total Literacy Campaigns (TLCs) triggered a number of social outcomes such as increase in enrolment and decline in drop outs among primary school children, women's empowerment, adoption of small family norms and large scale immunization of children. The campaign have brought about dramatic changes in both urban and rural areas particularly in rural areas. Further, the impact is particularly noticeable on the women neo-literates. Various studies and evaluation of the TLCs have highlighted the transformational aspect of literacy. It was against this background that a need to undertake a systematic study was felt to analyse the outcomes of the TLC vis-à-vis social development of individuals and community. The aim of the present study was to elucidate the outcomes of the literacy in terms of its effects and consequences in rural and urban areas.

The research question for the study was formulated in the form of a null-hypothesis that the literacy status of an individual has no association with his/her social development. All major research and evaluation studies have indicated success of the TLCs in quantitative terms (male-female made literate) to a large extent and the impact of literacy campaigns in qualitative terms (effects and consequences) in rural-urban areas to a lesser extent. The fact remains that, very little is known about the outcome of literacy for adult men and women in both rural and urban areas. Hence, the present study was undertaken to understand the process of outcome of literacy in relation to adult lives in rural and urban areas.

The neo-literates selected for this study belonged to the congested urban slum areas of the new Bhopal, old Bhopal and the industrial Bhopal. The rural sample included a less-developed village, a modertely-developed one, and a developed village. The effects of literacy can be seen in different spheres, e.g., in family, the community and larger society in terms of participation and awareness in the two selected settings. The study proposed to look at effects / consequences in both qualitative and quantitative terms to know the efficacy of the on-going literacy programme on individuals and households with special reference to social development. These effects emanated from the educational process itself, from the knowledge gained, and from the attitudes transformed and skills acquired.

Objectives of the Study

The concept and perspective of literacy, has undergone a major change in recent past. Literacy, in this changed framework, is no longer a technical input in terms of acquiring efficiency in reading and writing and do arithmetic. Literacy at the application level means the impact of literacy which would ultimately lead to development. For it is the change in the individuals, on households and communities that will to a large extent determine the success of a programme and that the social context is bound to shape the technical input of literacy and this social context is too varied to generate a general question about the extent and nature of impact. District being the basic unit of the operation would provide a reasonable uniform social context to study the nexus between literacy and development.

Within the above theoretical framework, the general objective of this study was to focus on the importance given to literacy as a means for awareness and consciousness through the campaign-based programme. In broad terms the study aimed at bringing out:

(a) The role of the TLC as a facilitator for awareness and consciousness and as a process of social mobilization.

(b) The extent and incidence of literacy, functionality and awareness achieved with the help of literacy.

(c) The effects and consequences of literacy on various aspects of the lives of the neo-literates as well as the households; and

(d) The extent and incidence of variations in terms of effects and consequences along gender and various social groups in rural and urban areas.

More specifically, the study sought:

* To establish how widespread these effects have been or are likely to be;

* Assess the extent and incidences of effects on male and female learners in rural and urban areas;

* Suggest ways and means of improving the efficiency and efficacy of the programmes in the given context;

* Provide academic inputs into the policy and planning of literacy campaign.

The study intended to assess or evaluate the effects / consequences of TLC towards development. Expected changes are already built into the objectives of the programme. They were identified and delimited at each level.

1. TLC has resulted into awareness and this awareness is manifested in demand for education of children, higher education enrolment, retention of children, immunization, small family and environment conservation. Literate individuals become more effective agents in the process of socio-economic development. This implies that literacy has a marked and favourable impact on the way of life of individuals. Basic literacy is a means and source of awareness and awakening.

2. The achievements in terms of awareness and functionality has a positive impact on their well-being. TLC is a development effort to empower people and could be seen as campaign for development of education. Acquisition of Literacy skill does have an impact on Knowledge, Aptitude and Perception (KAP) of neo-literates.

3. Literacy is an important instrument of social change only when people play an active role and are not just the recipients of the programme. TLC could be viewed as an instrument of social transformation.

4. Process of mobilization and participation is as important as the product in terms of number of people who acquired literacy and numerical capabilities. Therefore, process of campaign is as important in evaluation, as an impact or the final outcome.

Universe of the Study

The universe of the study was limited to the TLC, in conclusive stage of the literacy phase, viz., learners completing IPCL (Improved Pace and Content of Learning) Primer-III in the district of Bhopal in Madhya Pradesh. The study covered the neo-literates of the two development blocks, viz. Phanda and Berasia of the Bhopal district. The TLC project in Bhopal district was conducted by ZSS from 15.2.1996 to 28.2.1998. Targets of the project was to cover 1,59,205 learners in the age group of 15-35 years, having predominantly urban dwellers. There were 96,099 illiterates in the urban areas and 63,219 in the rural areas. Out of these illiterates, 64,876 were males and 94,442 were females. The percentage of male illiterates was 40.72 and female illiterates 59.28 which meant that illiteracy was 18.56 percent higher among females.

The Literacy percentage in Bhopal, as per 1991 census, was 52.97% in which male literacy was 60.61% and female literacy was 44.32%. The urban literacy percentage was 59.77% in which urban male literacy was 66.30% and urban female literacy was 52.47%. In contrast, the total rural literacy was 25.82 (38.14% male literacy and 11.70% female literacy). The high percentage of literacy in urban areas may be attributed to the higher preponderance of urban population.

Sampling

Basically the rationale for deciding the objectives and selecting the sample for the study has been determined by the guidelines indicated by the Government of India for evaluating the TLC programme. However, the study does not seek to evaluate the literacy skills of achieving three primers. The study may be termed as an 'Impact Evaluation' study for it proposes to study direct and indirect effects of literacy programme on individual learners and the community. The guidelines suggested that the final evaluation may be carried out when about 50% of the targeted learners have completed Primer-III. In the selected sample villages, all the learners (100%) were to be tested. However, it was stipulated that conceding the possibility of the absence of learners for various reasons, attempt must be made to cover at least 70% of the learners. Village / Ward was the last unit of sampling and that the sampling was representative of the entire population and the sample must be random. Accordingly, the sample was as follows:

* The first step towards the sampling design was to obtain area-wise population of Bhopal district, area-wise literacy percentage of the districts and area-wise number of illiterates in the district as per survey in the age group of 15-35.

* At the second stage, the operational areas of the district were divided into blocks. The information on the names of the Wards / Villages / Slums covered in two major blocks and the information on target number of learners completing Primer III (area wise) was collected from ZSS (Zila Saksharta Samiti).

* At the third stage, sample of Villages / Urban Areas were drawn from the existing areas (covering both the blocks, Nagar Nigam, Nagar Palika) covered under the TLC programme.

* On the basis of above, the six selected localities, namely, villages and urban areas were identified representing two sub-samples from rural and urban areas. The selection of the localities was partly purposive and partly random. These selected locations were those where TLC was launched and the learners successfully completed Primer III stage.

* The final sample of 450 households was selected from six localities on the basis of random sampling.

Data Collection (Sources And Techniques)

Data was collected both from Primary and Secondary sources. These included:

* Structured interview schedule / questionnaire for neo-literates and volunteers.

* Structured interview schedule / questionnaire for ZSS officials and functionaries.

* Village / Area profile of facilities.

* Unstructured interviews of the functionaries at the State, District and village level.

* Observations made during several visits to the field.

The source of secondary data were mainly the ZSS, SRC (State Resource Centre), Directorate of Adult Education. The study of various project appraisals (both at the state and district levels) and (study of supplementary survey data were also used to substantiate the empirical analysis.) District Gazetteers and district handbook and District Census survey also provided the much needed secondary data. Analysis of data derived from these secondary sources was used as collateral evidence to bolster the conclusions derived from the primary field surveys undertaken in select localities.

Given the objectives of the study – two groups of learners who became literate from two different settings were considered. Two sets of samples were drawn. One of these was from three selected urban localities other one was from three rural areas. Since the profiles of these two sets of sample were not similar, the comparison between the two groups became invalid.

The effects and the consequences of literacy on different neo-literates (by gender and social groups) was statistically tested with the help of correlation analysis which was used to analyze relationship between adult literacy and host of variables. The statistical analysis of the data was done by computing average and percentages with a view to knowing the impact on male-female learners on wide range of areas in rural and urban areas. Various statistical tests, measures and techniques were used in the analysis. The data was analysed from the quantitative and qualitative perspective by using frequencies and percentages besides analytical interpretation of the qualitative primary data.

Data regarding the process of TLC, and impact of programme were mainly analysed through the qualitative method. Data regarding district profile, socio-economic, educational and demographic characteristics of the learners were analysed using the quantitative method. Both quantitative and qualitative indicators were considered for measuring the impact. Other measures for direct / indirect measurement based on individual responses were: new skills

acquired, level of individual participation in community affairs, perception about the use of literacy, aspirations for their children including boys and girls, increased self-esteem, health and social awareness, individual self-assessment, literacy and participation etc.

Key Variables of the Study

Major independent variables are TLC, Sex, Age, and Caste. The dependent variables are: Literacy, and Social Awareness at the levels of perception and application of results.

Literacy at the cognitive level means the ability to read, write and do arithmetic. Literacy at the application level means the impact of literacy, gained under the TLC programme, in the every day life of the learner.

Social awareness of an individual is understood in terms of his or her awareness about the impediments to development, his knowledge about social problems and legislation such as dowry, untouchability, and other issues, knowledge of rights and responsibilities with regard to minimum age for marriage and minimum age for voting. At the application level, it is understood as application of knowledge to organize themselves for pursuit of their legitimate interest and in terms of action taken to overcome their social deprivation.

The concept of functional literacy suggests that literacy has a necessary role beyond merely imparting of reading and writing skills. At the cognitive level it refers to the individual's knowledge of certain facilities and programmes that help him for his development. Literacy is meaningless if it cannot be exercised or harnessed to the individual or the group's needs. It helps the adults to play more effective role in their socio-economic and political milieu. Functional literacy programmes, therefore, are intended to have a major impact on individuals, groups, and communities. At the application level it refers to the overall impact of literacy on the well being of an individual. Functionality is viewed as the role of individual as a producer and worker, as a member of the family and as a citizen in the civic and political system.

Plan of the Study

The introduction introduces the subject and gives a broad overview of the rationale of the study. This is followed by a chapter on 'Understanding Adult Education, Literacy and Evaluation' which reviews the existing literature and identifies gaps in the existing research. Chapter 2 defines the objectives and methodologies of the study. Chapter 3 deals with different views on the interface between education and society in general and literacy and development in particular. Chapter 4 traces the evolution of Mass Literacy Movements in developing countries in general and in India in particular. Chapter 5 and 6 explain the Educational Profile of Madhya Pradesh and Bhopal with a view to place the study contextually. Chapter 7 forms the Data Analysis reflecting patterns of literacy in selected villages and

some segments of Bhopal city. Chapter 8 brings out the findings on the learners and perception of social issues. Chapter 9 which provides a summary of the findings also discusses certain issues that arise from the study.

Findings and Conclusions

The thrust of the study was to examine and analyse the process and the phases of the TLC and assess its impact in terms of effects and consequences on different groups involved in the learning endeavour. The study has also analysed the extent of variations of the effects and consequences across different groups by gender and social origins in the selected rural and urban dwellings.

* As literacy factor correlates less with the indicators of social and economic achievements and more with the achievements of learning skills, the effects and consequences of literacy in terms of social achievements was a bit difficult to capture. This realization was considered important, as the notion of 'effects' and 'consequences' itself is a complex one. Part of the problem is, of course, rooted in the debate over how the effects and consequences should be defined and through what strategies they should be conceputalised.

* The impact of literacy varies from significant to moderate in accordance with the rural and urban setting rather than with the socio-economic characteristics such as sex and caste.

* Literacy is seen by us as an independent variable. Sociologically, to understand the limitations and consequences of literacy, one will have to understand the relevance and utility of literacy in the social context in which it is carried out. Literacy and society cannot be isolated from each other. Brain V Street (1984), while discussing the theory of literacy, has proposed two models. One is the 'autonomous' model, according to which literacy is supposed to bring about a fundamental change, including changes in cognitive abilities, functional capabilities, awareness skills, oral communication and rationality, etc. This model makes literacy as an independent variable, and thus facilitates understanding of its consequences. The alternative model is the – 'ideological' model. This model emphasizes on a strong relationship between the meaning of literacy and the cultural ethos of the concerned society. The two cannot be separated. The model presumes that particular practices of reading and writing that are taught in any given social context depend on social structure, stratification, and on the educational institutions. The 'autonomous' model treats literacy in a larger context including cultural, socio-economic and political aspects. Here, literacy is seen as a means of social change. There is ample evidence which substantiates the view that literacy programmes are sustainable only in societies which are undergoing transformation. In India, the outcomes of literacy suggest inclination more for the 'autonomous' model than the 'ideological' model.

*   Further, adult illiteracy and iniquitous underdevelopment are interlinked both historically and contextually. Mass attempts to break this nexus have been made by attacking the very social system perpetuating such a situation. This emerges from the major literacy campaigns (Bhola 1984, Arnove and Graff 1987). In the absence of high ambitions and progressive goals, literacy campaigns and programmes have tended to be programmatic (Saldanha 1995). Given the constraints of a given social context and a lack of direction, the TLC movement does not go far to demand or to motivate literacy for the deprived ones. In India, the TLCs have no backup support from a larger context of social transformation. Therefore, TLCs have ended up close to being a state-initiated cultural movement for literacy. It has not attained the dimension of a genuine 'movement'. In the absence of these elements, the social impact of the TLCs has further diminished.

*   An overall impact of the TLCs in Bhopal is no exception to the above viewpoint. Major aspects of social impact were related to participatory processes and to the subjective dimensions of acquiring literacy skills emerging out from micro level mobilization of human resources within the larger campaign process. We have observed that there has been substantially better and positive effects on the male-female and the rural-urban neo-literates. Response to the TLC was substantial both in terms of a process and a product. The TLC is a process of conscientisation and literacy and participation are its outcomes. By way of conclusion, it may be suggested that the TLCs, to become successful, in terms of equity and justice, should be a part of social transformation.

*   The present study indicates that the differential outcome of literacy is a stark reality in rural and urban areas. To what extent and in what manner the variations exist both gender-wise and area-wise? What do the differential outcomes indicate? These are the research questions we have tried to explore. Answers to these question are found in a very limited way. Before analyzing issues as 'effects or outcomes' of literacy in urban and rural areas, it is important to analyse the extent of differentiation inherent in the neo-literates on the basis of their social milieu. We have found that impact has varied from significantly to moderately in accordance with the areas (rural and urban), and with regard to socio-economic characteristics, particularly sex and caste. In urban context, over-population and deteriorating living conditions for adult learners are quite difficult and miserable. Exclusive pre-occupation with two square meals create special challenges for the urban learners hindering their active participation in the literacy campaigns.

*   Similarly, in the rural areas, the learners are not adequately motivated to participate in the literacy programmes. The matter of fact is that the TLCs are neither tuned to the urban areas nor to the rural areas. Both urban and rural areas are two distinct sets of contexts which necessitate devising of alternate approaches

suited to their varied socio-economic cultural conditions. Considering different contexts and surroundings of the learners, different and distinct literacy issues for both rural and urban areas, proper ambience, social mobilization,and contents of teaching-learning need to be revamped.

* However, one indication of the transformative potential of the campaign is the greater participation of women both in rural and urban areas. The present study shows that participation of women was higher in the TLC programme when area-wise, caste-wise and gender-wise comparisons were made. It is well-known fact that in all the TLCs across the country, women were involved in a big way. The TLC have been able to reach out considerably to women and the weaker sections of society. TLC provided illiterate adult women with a great opportunity for reading, writing and in increasing awareness level. Besides these literacy skills, women have gained more in self-confidence, and improves their articulation. These were the effects of the literacy per se and not the fall out for women's movement from the literacy movement. Women in Bhopal were far from taking charge of their lives. This was typical of all areas where TLCs were initiated in northern India. Since these are high illiteracy states, the chances of the TLCs impact on women empowerment were very poor. It may be stated that this is so because of non-availability of volunteers especially female volunteers and also non-availability of committed and capable district level NGOs to give it a character of the people's movement.

* There has been little or no gender perspective in evaluation of the TLC. A little concern shown so far has been tentative and fragmented with hardly any continuity. This study indicates that literacy as perceived by women was not a tool or a means for empowerment, but it was a means for participation in the literacy programme per se. Further, the involvement of women was more as learners than as volunteers. Nearly sixty per cent of the total target illiterates were women. In case of women of Bhopal, the effects of literacy per se were more evident than the actual empowering of women in terms of their initiative and participation in women's organization. The TLC in Bhopal was not the main vehicle of empowerment but a device for mobilization. Women were mobilized for reading, writing and increasing awareness level.

Policy Implications and Directions for Future Research

Literacy in India can be characterized by a remarkable negligence. However, since the 1980's, there has been positive changes mainly due to the initiation of mass literacy campaigns in India, under the National Literacy Mission (NLM). The NLM has been evaluating all the literacy programmes, and have confined to evaluation of "learning outcomes", which is the immediate objective of the TLC.

Now officially the TLC phase is over and the literacy movements are nearly more than a decade old, it is desirable that "learning outcomes" are supplemented by "social impact" evaluation. Further, the NLM is now ready for post-literacy and continuing education programmes. It is to be seen how the literacy inputs are translated into development outputs, which is the ultimate objective of these campaigns. Effects and consequences of literacy would be short-lived, if not followed by post-literacy and continuing education activities with immediate effect.

To ensure effective and more participation, it is essential that the contents and the instructional strategies for literacy learning programmes for women in both urban and rural areas could be reviewed in view of the changing role of women in various spheres of social life. Programmes aiming at women's empowerment could be integrated with the literacy activities.

Considering the gaps in male-female literacy in general, and in rural and urban areas in particular, especially with regard to women in rural areas, women need to be treated as a "special target group". There has been no change as far as rural female literacy is concerned in Madhya Pradesh. The increase in rural female literacy rate from 1981 to 2001 was much less than the increase in rural male literacy rate, hence, increasing disparity in adult literacy.

This study indicates clearly a link between adult literacy and various socio-economic indicators, and, therefore, we are tempted to suggest greater attention on adult education.

R. Govinda (ed.), *Indian Education Report: A Profile of Basic Education*, Oxford University Press, New Delhi, 2002, pp.362, Price- Rs. 300

A.Mathew

The book under review is the outcome of the assessments of progress in basic education in India in the '90s, undertaken in the context of the "Year 2000 Assessment of Education For All" (EEA). The context could be traced to the mid-term and decadal review envisaged in the World Conference on EFA, held at Jomtien, Thailand in 1990, and the UNESCO initiative for national level assessments across its member countries. Going beyond the quantitative indicators of progress achieved in EFA, as indicated by UNESCO, the National Assessment Group set by up Ministry of Human Resource Development of India (MHRD) for the purpose, decided to undertake a comprehensive review of both quantitative and qualitative dimensions of the EFA efforts by independent scholars. Nearly 25 such reviews were undertaken and the present book is an abridged version of most of the papers, with an exhaustive introductory overview of the EFA efforts, as contained in the *India Report*, as well as the main issues raised in the studies.

There is a certain uniqueness about this book which is worth noting. One is its comprehensiveness in the range of issues covered in one book – 23 papers out of 25 originally prepared, arranged under 6 thematic groups. "Expanding the Outreach" of access and provision – the first theme, includes, *Early Childhood Care and Education by Venita Kaul, Education of Girls in India – An Assessment* by Usha Nayar, Children, Work and Education...by Sharada Jain and others, *Eduation of Urban Disadvantaged Children* by Vandana Chakrabarty, *EFA:Situation of Dalit Children* by Geetha Nambisan and Mona Sedwal, a paper specifically included in this volume, *Education among STs* by K.Sujatha, and *Education of Children with Special Needs* by Sudesh Mukhopadhyay and M.M.G Mani. The second theme "Building Partnerships:Putting Community In-Charge for UEE" consists of three studies viz., *Decentralization of Education* by Vinod Raina, *Role and Contribution of NGOs* in *Basic Education* by Disha Nawani, and *Private Schools and UEE* by Anuradha De, et al. "Meeting Quality Concerns in Elementary Education" has three reviews; one, by Anita Rampal on *Curricula, Textbooks and Teaching Learning Materials; Learning Conditions and Achievement in Primary Schools* by M.S.Yadav and others, *Status of Elementary Teachers* by A.S.Seetharamu, and *Review of Primary Teacher Training* by C.Seshadri. "Education for Empowering the Adult", the fourth theme, has four papers, by A.Mathew on *Indian Engagement with Adult Education and Literacy*, C.J.Daswani on *Education Beyond Literacy:Changing Concepts and Shifting Goals; Social Mobilization and TLCs*

by Anita Dighe and *Education and Status of Women* by Vimala Ramachandran. *Financing Elementary Education* by JBG Tilak comes under "Mobilizing Resources". The sixth theme, "Learning from Experience – Recounting Success Stories" has case studies of four States, viz., Himachal Pradesh, Mizoram, Tamil Nadu and Rajasthan.

The second distinction of this book is the unity of perspective – the EFA decade as the focus, but the post – National Policy on education (NPE), 1986 scene as the larger canvas, while tracing back and locating the EFA spirit in the NPE's conviction so much so that the studies in effect turn out, as the Editor points out (p.2) to be a review of implementation of NPE policy postulates and priorities, innovative approaches and programmes.

Anyone looking for an authentic account of the policies, programmes, progress, a critical review and suggestions regarding access and quality dimensions in basic education, both formal and non-formal as well as gender and social equity dimensions, quality concerns, community role in UEE, the literacy movement, etc., in the EFA decade, would be rewarded in finding both what they are looking for as well as other related issues dealt comprehensively.

The third relates to the abridgement approach and style. Condensing studies of varying length into a uniform size, without loosing the flair of individual studies is a job that has been done admirably, that we have one volume with all the basic information regarding progress and shortfalls, the critical insights, all the core issues as well as the suggestions of more than 20 related aspects of basic education. This is the singular contribution for which the book would be remembered by the readers.

The fourth is the editor's Overview that not only combines a review of the India EFA Report, but also of the whole gamut of studies included in this volume. Such a combination of reviews gives a definite grip over all the aspects covered in the EFA assessment studies. Two facets of the Editor's professional engagements, one may add, would seem to have rubbed its influence, to our advantage, on this volume. One is his intensive engagement in studying basic education in India, in all its dimensions in the post-NPE phase (his major study on Quality of Basic Education, and the recent one on the OB Scheme, readily come to mind). The second is his leading role, as part of the National Assessment Group, in determining the scope, framework and the range of EFA themes to be studied, steering through the preparation and presentation of these papers at national forum as well as at the Dakar EFA Summit, and above all, the benefit of the Dakar Summit deliberations. The combined advantaged of these two facets could be seen when Govinda summarizes the Dakar EFA Summit's assessments, in another place that; (i) the poor and the disadvantaged have not adequately benefited; (ii) gender equity – still a long way to go; and (iii) quality improvement – still to receive serious attention, and hastens to underline its relevance to India, as all the studies indicated.

Considerations of brevity would preclude a detailed discussion of the issues covered in individual studies, but Govinda's introductory chapter gives a flavour of the "mixed picture" of EFA efforts, the progress and un-kept promises. A feel of this "mixed bag" perception that runs across all studies could be seen in Govinda's (i)skepticism about the unrealistic target setting, strategies delineation even in NPE, 1986 regarding Universalisation of Elementary Education (UEE), i.e., achieving Universal Primary Education (UPE) by 1990 and UEE by 1995; (ii) the unconscio- nable neglect of the regional, social and gender equity thrusts delineated even prior to NPE; and (iii)how there was not even an internal discussion, leave alone a na- tional debate, about why NPE priorities for UEE were altogether forgotten, in the race to take up the externally funded District Primary Education Projects (DPEP) in States, like Kerala and Tamil Nadu, where it was not really required, and leaving out those States which housed 75% of out-of-school children in the country (p.19). But for the Dakar Conference, "the domestic discussion on broken promises and setting new targets, that already died down", would have been quietly forgotten. And when the assessment had to be made, it showed how "the country was no- where near the target of UEE, and how "the same old problems – regional and gender disparities, continued low participation of marginalized sections, and poor quality of education provided" persisted. And yet again, the same "unrealistic strat- egies and targets" are set again in *Sarva Siksha Abhiyan*, to achieve UPE by 2005 and UEE by 2010, taking care, simultaneously, all the equity and quality concerns. In raising questions about these unrealistic strategies and targets, Govinda lends an eminent voice that reflects the concerns expressed in the different papers included in this book.

Fisher Ros, Brooks Greg and Lewis Maureen, *Raising Standards in Literacy*, Routledge Falmer, London, 2002.

Pramila Menon

"Raising Standards in Literacy" is a compilation of seminar contributions by a team of international researchers and policy-makers. The Economic and Social Research Council (U.K.) has funded this seminar held during 1999-2000. The book reflects the commitment of all concerned to raise the literacy standards for all children. How teachers are prepared for their work in the classroom and their key role in the development must be the main concerns. This book includes sections on :

* how research into literacy teaching can lead to new approaches found in England, the USA and Australia.

* the issues involved in assessing progress in literacy and the claims made about standards of attainment.

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* how literacy education is being developed in England, the USA and Australia.

The first section deals with what we know about children and how they learn and write. This section on - "Research into the teaching of literacy" discusses the results of the new approaches found in England, the USA and Australia. It is a collection of both the research reviews and follow-up research studies. Colin Harrison and Mary Bailey, from the University of Nottingham summarise evidences to vital questions on literacy. Harrison argues that there has been an enormous research activity in the last decade that a characteristic of this has been an emphasis on collaborative or interactive approaches to reading. He also claims that some consensus view is emerging as how to develop reading comprehension.

The chapters in the first part of the book illustrate how research should and indeed does shape policy and classroom practices. The discussion in each of these chapters demonstrate the role of research in challenging orthodoxies and give direct examples of the role of research in influencing policy makers and practitioners. The Government of the three nations (UK, USA and Australia) are concerned to raise standards in literacy in their own countries and each has used research to help shape its policies. What is apparent in all the three nations is a shared recognition that literacy education is a priority.

The authors illustrate the different ways in each research can be used. The research extends our knowledge of literacy practices based on international and national findings, guide policy relating to literacy teaching, identify effective practices in literacy teaching; and remind us of literacy practices beyond the classrooms within the homes and communities. It also reminds us of the complex relationship that exists between how literacy teaching is perceived and to the tests offered to pupils.

The second section, "What counts as evidence"?, looks at the issues involved in assessing progress in literacy and the validity of research claims on the assessment of literacy. Victoria Purcell Gates of Michigan State University raises strong concerns about the dangers she sees in the neglect of the socio-cultural aspect.

Sue Horner, the Qualifications and Curriculum authority for England, describes some of the complexity of reading in the national tests for 7,11 and 14 year olds in England. Greg Brooks, now at the University of Sheffield in England but previously for 20 years at the National Foundation for Educational Research presents a counting of the evidence' on whether standards are rising or being raised in four spheres, the link between pre-school experience and early literacy development, initial literacy learning, and helping struggling readers and adult literacy. Apart from some aspects of initial teaching and learning, he finds the field underdeveloped.

Finally Greg Brooks considers the issues from deciding how literacy is to be defined. through the development of good instruments to measure it, and on to

findings. He claims that the first two of these are in better shape than the third.

In the third section of developing teacher practice in England, USA and parts of Australia are explored. Questions on how possible it is to mandate teaching programmes relevant to every contest and to every teacher. Yet research must help teachers who may teach for 30-40 years after their initial training to gain new understanding and learn new strategies. Moreover, policy-makers and teachers must be sensitive to the current if not future needs of literacy learners. We need teachers who have the vision and knowledge to prepare their pupils for life in the new millennium.

The varied issues explored in this book indicate many consensus views and some differences in the three countries surveyed here. The vital need to educate children for the literacy demands is undisputed, whether as raising from previous low standards or as a need to improve on existing practices. There is an acute need to learn from both research and policy initiatives of other parts of the world. Differences lie in the extent to which raising standards is seen as an issue with a single externally prescribed approach. Underlying all sections of the book is a plea for recognizing the diverse backgrounds of the pupils, whose needs are the main focus of these literacy researches.

Although, each chapter in the book can be read separately, in its entirety the book provides a snap shot of the stay play in literacy research and reform from three continents, it also presents a picture of academics and policy makers engaging in debate in an endeavour to ensure that children learn to use the gamut of all possibilities that literacy offers in the new millennium.

The book will be a guide to literacy coordinators and consultants and for all those who deal with literacy education.

THE PIETERMARITZBURG DECLARATION, 2002

We, the 180 participants gathered at the first International Conference on Adult Basic and Literacy Education in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) region held at the University of Natal, Pietermaritzburg, South Africa from 3rd to 5th December,2002, and drawn from the community of adult educators and development practitioners in Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Mocambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia, and Zimbabwe, joined in solidarity by non-SADC countries including Benin, Ethiopia, Ghana, Madagascar, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Somalia, Argentina, Brazil, Canada, Denmark, Estonia, Germany, India, the Netherlands, the Republic of Ireland, Sweden and the United States of America.

Have noted with concern that, as stated in UNESCO's recently published Education For All; Is The World on Track global monitoring report, many of our countries are in danger of not reaching the targets of Education For All agreed upon in Dakar in 2000 goals that include achieving a 50 per cent improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015 and ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life skills programmes. This also detracts from the momentum created by the enlarged vision of adult learning at the International Conference on Adult Education (Confintea V, 1997) by the SADC Protocol on Education and Training (1997), the new Vision for Technical and Vocational Education and Training (Seoul 1999), the World Education Forum (Dakar, 2000), the New Partnership for Africa's Development (2001), the renewed emphasis on poverty alleviation and human resource development, the World Bank's re-examination of its policies relating to adult education, the World Summit on Sustainable Development (2002) the declaration of the Literacy Decade:Education for All (2002) and the reactivation of lifelong learning as a paradigm for education in the 21st century.

We also note our shared context of diversity and emerging democratisation that is endangered by poverty and inequality, the HIV/AIDS pandemic, environmental degradation, gender discrimination and social exclusion, unemployment and the marginalisation of adult basic and literacy education, worsened by the negative consequences of globalisation.

We see adult basic and literacy education as a fundamental human right and an indispensable complement to the formal education of children and youth. It is a vitally important component of education policy that must stand alongside formal schooling, as it is adults who hold the responsibility for building sustainable futures. We believe that adult basic and literacy education is the essential foundation for lifelong learning that can be the potar to the development of knowledge, values, skills and sustainable livelihoods, policies, programmes and legislation should reflect this. Therefore, this community of adult educators and development practitioners constituted by people from governments, education and training institutions, NGOs, unions, adult education networks and donor agencies expresses its commitment to the revitalisation of adult basic and literacy education for democracy and sustainable development in the SADC region and in the African continent.

We strongly urge the SADC member states and the restructured SADC Secretariat to make adult education central to the education agenda and that countries allocate resources to deploy adult education for community development, particularly for the millions of citizens and communities in poverty in the region.

We ask for the full participation of our countries in the Literacy Decade Education for All and that the integration of the Literacy Decade with Education for All should be done with integrity so that there is effective implementation of literacy and adult basic education policies, strategies and programmes. We further commit ourselves to mobilise the stakeholders in government, civil society, business, religious institutions, media and donor agencies to rejuvenate action in the field in 2003, the first year of the Literacy Decade.

To ensure that this declaration results in action, we support the request of the Technical Committee for Lifelong Education and Training of the SADC that the University of Natal act as an interim co-ordinating body during the period of SADC Secretariat restructuring and that the University start the necessary actions, including the solicitation of funds for strategic and implementation plans, in respect of the following:

Researching and building up detailed information and databases of literacy and adult basic education programmes, activities and resources (human and material) in the region and regularly reporting, making accessible and disseminating such information to all interested parties and assisting in the effective use of such information;

Audits of curriculum, materials, trainer and practitioner development capacity in the region;

Holding of regional consultations on curriculum development and on trainer and practitioner development;

Encouraging the sharing of resources in the region;

Development of advocacy strategies and documents in the interests of the **education** of adult in the region; and

Development of acceptable funding strategies and guides in the interests of the education of adults in the region.

We recognise the devastation caused by the HIV/AIDs pandemic in the region that has the potential to render all education and development efforts redundant. Consquently we urge that all adult basic and literacy education programmes and activities rapidly incorporated issues and we ask all governments and agencies to make effective use of adult basic and literacy education in achieving the deeper levels of change required for combatting this scourge.

Finally, we reiterate our rank in education as a force for positive transformation of individuals and societies in a rapidly changing world, and therefore we strongly call on our governments to fulfill their commitments and obligations to adult basic and literacy education.

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE OF ADULT AND LIFE LONG EDUCATION: AN OVERVIEW

Background

The Indian Adult Education Association (registered in 1939 under Societies Registration Act), is one of the oldest and internationally renowned professional organization which enjoys the world record of publishing an adult education journal uninterruptedly for more than six decades. A galaxy of eminent leaders viz. Dr. Zakir Hussain, N.G. Ranga, R.P. Masani, S.C. Dutta, A.N. Jha and several distinguished academicians from India and abroad, viz. Dr. Malcolm S. Adiseshiah, Dr. Mohan Sinha Mehta, Professors H.S. Bhola, Amrik Singh, Roby Kidd, Chris Duke and James A Draper have been actively associated with the Association at different points of time. Since its inception, the Association has been undertaking research projects, evaluation studies, organizing annual conferences, regional workshops, national and international seminars, training programmes and bringing out periodicals and publications. Today, the Association has more than 1500 life members from India and abroad, 500 institutional members representing more than 100 universities, 155 educational institutions, 45 research organizations, 15 State Departments of Adult Education and 185 NGOs and eleven state branches. It is affiliated to several international organizations, viz. International Council for Adult Education, Asian South Pacific Bureau of Adult Education, International Federation of Workers Education Association.

The Association owns a building with modest infrastructure facilities in terms of office rooms, seminar rooms, computerized library with a specialized collection of 20,000 books including, personal collections of A.N. Jha, S.C. Dutta and James Draper and 200 journals, 25 computers, guesthouse, vehicles and employs twenty-six full time staff. Since the Association has the requisite infrastructure and been meritoriously performing a number of academic functions over a long period of time, some of its members felt that the establishment of an Institute could provide considerable scope to further expand, strengthen and standardize its various academic activities, seek accreditation from recognized universities in India and abroad and offer several certificate, diploma, degree level courses and also take up collaborative activities with international agencies. Such an Institute could cater to the increasing professional needs of research, evaluation, specialized courses and training generated during the last decade due to the expansion of adult continuing education programmes, information and communication technologies, globalization and liberalization of economy. This institute could also play a key role in furthering the goals of Education For All (EFA) in South Asia.

Mission

The mission of the Institute will be to professionalize adult education by strengthening and promoting it as a distinct but distinguished field of practice and discipline of study. This may entail improving the different aspects of adult education, viz. curriculum, training methodologies and materials, evaluation, research, documentation, publications, networking and advocacy. The Institute will not only pursue the mission of developing a cadre of professional adult educators but also sensitize the policy makers and administrators

regarding the significance of adult education and its role in development. Promotion of peace, international understanding and communal harmony through adult education will be the crucial concerns of the Institute. The scope of adult education shall include adult basic literacy, post-literacy, continuing education, population education, open distance learning, workers education, non-formal education, education of older adults and life-long education.

Objectives

The Institute will function as an autonomous, non-profit and non-governmental organization. Keeping in view the mission of the Institute, the following objectives will be pursued either directly or in collaboration with other institutions in India and overseas.

i.   Offering a wide range of courses viz., certificate, diploma, degree and doctorate.
ii.   Enhancement of professional knowledge, understanding and competence of the functionaries of adult education at various levels;
iii. Orientation of administrators and policy planners in adult education;
iv.   Designing new models of adult basic literacy and continuing education programmes and training;
v.   Development of innovative materials for neoliterates;
vi.   Promotion of research, evaluation and innovations in adult education;
vii. Documentation and dissemination;
viii. Development of adult education repository and archive;
ix.   Networking;
x.   Advocacy.

Programmes

The different objectives of the Institute will be pursued through the following programmes.

Courses

The Institute will offer two types of courses
1.   Short term courses ranging from 3-21 days,
2.   Long term courses of 3 months to 3 years duration viz. Certificate, Diploma, Degree and Doctorate.

Short Term Courses

Following five courses will be organized in a year. These courses will be operational during the year 2003-2004.

(i)	Research Methodology Course	(7 days)
(ii)	Recent Developments in the Field of Adult Education : National and International Perspective.	(3 days)
(iii)	Policy Implications of New Researches and Evaluations	(3 days)
(iv)	Residential Refresher Courses for the Junior faculty members of universities and project/ field/ NSS officers.	(21 days)
(v)	An Orientation Course for Planners and Administrators of Adult Education Programme	(3 days)

Certificate, Diploma, Degree And Doctoral Programmes

The Institute will offer a number of select courses of recognized universities in India and abroad through direct teaching and Open Distance Learning mode. These programmes will commence in a phased manner during the academic year 2004-2005.

Training Progrmmes

Keeping in view the changes in adult education policy and programmes, the Institute will design and offer different types of training programmes for field functionaries. To begin with an attempt will be made to design a programme for grassroots level functionaries, specially *Preraks* (facilitators) through Open Distance Learning in collaboration with the Institutions of open education, especially National Institute of Open Schooling and Indira Gandhi National Open University. In due course, the Institute will develop E-training modules for the training of adult education functionaries in India and other developing countries.

Research And Evaluation

Apart from directly undertaking researches and evaluation studies sponsored by different agencies viz. National Literacy Mission, Planning Commission, Indian Council of Social Science Research, etc. the Institute will promote and support researches through the following : (I) Mohan Sinha Mehta Fellowship, (ii) Roby Kidd Foundation Fellowship, (iii) National Visiting Scholar Award. While the Fellowships will provide financial support to interested scholars to pursue researches, the Award will enable doctoral students and genuine scholars from different parts of India to visit Delhi and consult literature and experts. The Institute will provide travel expense, lodging and boarding for 7 days to the scholars, (iv) International Visiting Scholar Award is meant for adult educators from overseas to spend 7 days at the Institute in connection with their research work and explore of the possibilities of collaborative projects. The Institute will provide local hospitality, office space and computer facilities to scholars.

Th Institute will identify different thrust areas of research every three years. During the first three years, the Institute will focus on the following two areas of research (i) Policy and Practice of Adult Education in different States/ Union Territories in India and select countries, (ii) Review of researches and evaluations in Adult Education : Implications for improvement of policy and programmes, (iii) Role of NGOs in adult education, (iv) Preparation of Statistical database on literacy. These projects will be initiated through research collaborators from different states who may be given some financial assistance.

Field Programmes

The Institute will take up innovative field programmes with a view of designing new programme packages, Continuing Education Courses and learning from field experiences and linking theory to practice and vice versa. These programmes will be undertaken in collaboration with interested institutions and NGOs.

Documentation And Publications

The following activities will be undertaken.
(i)   Preparation of annotated bibliographies.
(ii)   Documentation of field experiences of select projects/ programmes.
(iii) Oral History project : Recording the experiences of eminent adult educators. The oral transcripts will be regularly published in the journal of the Institute.
(iv)   Publication of monographs, books and an International Journal.

(v)   Developing a national repository of adult education publications.

(vi)   Developing an archive of adult education materials and private papers of individuals connected with adult education.

(vii)   Dissemination at national and international levels.

Conferences, Seminars, Workshops and Oration Lectures

Apart from organizing an annual conference and Dr. Zakir Hussain Memorial Lecture, the Institute will also organize, thematic national and international seminars, workshops, round tables and monthly discussion forums on select topics. The Institute will arrange 2-3 lectures in a year by eminent scholars from India and abroad.

Awards

The institute will recognize excellence by administering the following awards.

1.   Nehru Literacy Award for outstanding contribution to Adult Education and Development.
2.   Tagore Literacy Award for outstanding work in the area of Women's Literacy
3.   Best Publication Award.
4.   Best Doctoral Thesis Award
5.   Best Research Study Award.

Strategic Partnership, Networking and Advocacy

The Institute will systematically develop partnership with select institutions at national and international levels with a view to sharing knowledge, human and material resources, initiating collaborative projects/ programmes and promoting adult education activities. The Institute will strive to promote the cause of adult education at all levels and in all forums either directly or through partnership. The Institute will set up Alliance of Adult Educators from SAARC region to discuss issues of common concern and initiate action.

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GUIDELINES FOR SUBMISSION OF MANUSCRIPT

The *International Journal of Adult and Lifelong Education* invites original contributions from all countries and covering any aspect of adult and lifelong education. Apart from research based papers, the Journal will publish notes on innovative field programmes, evaluation studies, review articles, book reviews, abstracts of doctoral dissertations, professional profiles of prominent adult educators, reports of international seminars, conferences and policy statements.

Manuscript Preparation: The manuscripts should be in ENGLISH and accompanied by a certificate that it is not submitted for publication elsewhere. Research articles should not normally exceed more than 3000 words. Book reviews, dissertation abstracts and reports of seminars, notes etc should not exceed more than 750 words.

Manuscript should be word processed (MS word) on one side of the A4 size paper with double spacing and a margin of 2.5 cm. on all four sides. One hard copy of the article accompanied by the floppy diskette should be mailed to the Editor, *International Journal of Adult and Lifelong Education,* 17-B, I.P. Estate, New Delhi-110002. For speedy processing, the author may Email a copy as an attachment to MS word to iaea@vsnl.com or syshah@del3.vsnl.net.in.

Title Page: should include the title of the article, name of the author/s, position and institutional affiliation and full postal address including E-mail or fax. If the article was presented in a conference or seminar, the relevant details should be given.

Abstract: All research articles should provide an abstract in not more than 200 words, stating the aims and objectives of the study, methodology and main findings.

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EXAMPLE:

Book: Shah, S.Y. (1999) *An Encyclopedia of Indian Adult Education*, New Delhi, National Literacy Mission, p.5.

Article: Rogers, Alan (2001) "Rethinking Adult Literacy from an International Perspective", *Indian Journal of Adult Education*, vol.62, no.4, pp.5-21.

Acceptance of Article: The receipt of the manuscript will be acknowledged within 30 days and the decision regarding acceptance of the manuscript for publication will be communicated within 3 months. The accepted article will be published within 6-12 months. The rejected articles will be returned only if accompanied by a self addressed stamped envelope. A copy of the Journal will be mailed free of charge to the author.

Indian Journal of
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INDIAN JOURNAL OF ADULT EDUCATION

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Indian Adult Education Association, 1939

Indian Journal of Adult Education, first published as a monthly in 1939, is now brought out as a quarterly by the Indian Adult Education Association. The Journal has special interest in the theory and practice of Non-formal Education with special reference to the relationship between Adult Education and Development. Contributions on a wide range of themes within this broad framework are welcome. The *Journal* is particularly interested in current experiments in the field.

The average length of a manuscript should normally be between 1500 and 2000 words; in exceptional cases, longer articles can be accepted. Mimeographed, zeroxed or carbon copies of manuscripts will not be accepted. Manuscript should be typed in double space, on one side, with a 2" margin on A4 size paper. Footnotes and references should come at the end and not on every page. Authors are requested to submit one typed copy along with the floppy disc (MS Word).

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EDITORIAL

The present issue deals with multifarious dimensions of the discipline of adult education. We have the opening essay on the making of the 'movement' of adult education in Kerala, the leading state of India in terms of literacy. The other articles are on the modalities of the concept of adult education and consequences of the programmes. There is one that is based upon evaluation study of the "total literacy campaign", the most prominent among the programmes of adult education in recent years. True to the national character of the journal, the issue carries essays on various parts of the country – Assam in the north-east, Maharashtra in the west, Madhya Pradesh in central India, and of course, south India, of which two articles are on the State of Andhra Pradesh.

We, however, do not just carry on with the national feature of the journal nominally. Underneath we are more serious. We have comparative perspective of the concept and programme of adult education in mind. The comparativeness of the concept, experiments and emergent issues of adult education can be seen in terms of region, culture, sex, and historical backgrounds and legacies. With comparative perspective at broader level in view, we have an essay on an important programme on women's skill development among the Africans of Nigeria.

Interestingly, Pillai in his "Six Decades of Adult Education in Kerala" traces the beginning of present programme of adult education in a 'movement'. The fact that the programme of adult education has sustained in various forms since then indicates, more than any, peoples' involvement in it. This underlines an important point to us, i.e. the need of involvement of the people concerned in the movement. In fact there cannot be a real adult education movement without it. This is what is also concluded by one of the Andhra studies we have.

The Kerala 'movement' starts around the time when the momentum of the adult education movement in the country at the national level was picking up. Turning back to the euphoric years at the dawn of Independence shows that one of biggest concerns of the nationalists was how to make the masses literate. From around 1930 they were freshly confronted by the problem of mass illiteracy and appalled by its magnitude thanks to two reports of the British government – *Agricultural Commission* and *Statutory Commission*. (Followed by these, the Census of India also unfolded the problem by a separate chapter on the literacy situation of country.) In the following years, the nationalist leaders and nationalist educationists alike made the problem an important agenda of their action. Thus, when 'national' governments came into being following the first general elections in 1937 in many provinces, literacy campaign emerged as a priority programme. It is at this stage Frank C. Laubach, an expert on literacy education, who gave us the slogan of "Each One Teach One", was hired. Simultaneously, a professional national body, Indian Association of Adult Association, concerned with the problem of adult education was formed.

The political turbulence following the outbreak of the Second World War stalled the adult education programme of those nationalist governments for a decade. But when national government at the Centre took over on Independence, the education of the adult masses under the term "social education" was among its prominent programmes. As part of a broader programme, literacy campaign continued. While recounting these momentous years of adult

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education at the national level 'sixty' years back, we are rather left curious about contemporary development in Kerala. The movement, as it was building there, does not seem to have been swayed much by the above early nationalistic developments, except a Laubach connection in the efforts of A.K. John. Why so is an important question here. Are the regional culture of Kerala, its relatively better educational status under the colonial rule or some other factors responsible for this? This leads us to the need of a larger enquiry into the origin and nature of adult education programmes in various regions of the country.

K.C. Choudhary

SIX DECADES OF ADULT EDUCATION IN KERALA

K. Sivadasan Pillai

While tracing the history of adult education in Kerala during the last 60 years, the names of three state level voluntary agencies, viz., Kerala *Grandhasala Sanghom* (Library Movement), Kerala *Sastra Sahitya Parishad* (KSSP) and Kerala Association for Non-formal Education and Development (KANFED) figure prominently. Along with these a number of other organisations have contributed to the development in the field. The present paper surveys the role of various agencies.

Grandhasala Sanghom (Library Movement)

Prior to independence, in the erstwhile Princely state of Travancore, 47 rural libraries united to form Tranvancore *Grandhasala Sanghom* in 1945, which developed into the Kerala *Grandhasala Sanghom* with nearly 5000 libraries affiliated to it. 'Read and Grow' was the slogan of the *Sanghom*. P.N. Panicker was the founder and kingpin of this movement for about 32 years till 1977 when the *Sanghom* was taken over by the state government. Now it is called Kerala State Library Council with inbuilt democratic set-up and state government's financial support.

The rural libraries organised night schools to combat illiteracy and to spread reading habits. In every *panchayat* ward one can find a library with its own building, infrastructure, a good collection of books, radio, television, sports club, arts club, women's wing, children's section, nursery section etc. The library movement in Kerala was unique and won the acclaim all over India and even abroad.

In 1970, when Kerala *Grandhasala Sanghom* celebrated its 25th anniversary, a reading survey was undertaken. It was an eye opener as the survey revealed that even in the capital city of Thiruvananthapuram there were wards with more than 80 per cent illiterates. The slogan 'Read and Grow', which became very popular shifted to "Acquire Literacy and Get Strengthened". An ambitious project of running two centres each in the 3500 libraries, of 6 months duration was submitted to Government of India under the Farmers' Functional Literacy Project. Only 20 centres were sanctioned on an experimental basis. However, this marked the organised fight against illiteracy in the state. The evaluation conducted by Asher Deleon (UNESCO representative), Dr. T.A.Koshy (DAE representative) and Kerala *Grandhasala Sanghom* representatives came to the conclusion that concrete steps have to be taken in the preparation of primers, selection of instructors, their training, monitoring system etc. to attain the desired results. The duration of six

months was also found insufficient to attain the skills of literacy and numeracy. In the subsequent batches, these lacunae were overcome and results were far better. In 1975 Kerala *Grandhasala Sanghom* was selected for the Krupskaya Award (Honorable mention) of US $ 5000 for the outstanding contribution it made in the filed of literacy and adult education. It continued its work till 1977, when Kerala *Grandhasala Sanghom* was taken over the government. Thereafter the emphasis shifted. Now Kerala *Grandhasala Sanghom* is regaining its lost prestige under the name of Kerala State Library Council, financed and approved by the state government. The Kerala *Grandhasala Sanghom* has to its credit nearly 10 primers, 5 handbooks/guidebooks, 110 books for neo-literates, a weekly for neo-literates "*Sakshara Keralam*" and a series of pamphlets and posters.

Kerala State Literacy Council

In 1947 a Kerala State Literacy Council was registered with a view to combat illiteracy even if Kerala *Grandhasala Sanghom* goes back from its action plan. This had initial problems as the Chief Minister, Ministers etc were in the Executive Committee. The outcome of this organisation is a book "*Saksharatha*" (literacy), a collection of articles/treatises by eminent educationists and adult education practitioners, published by the State Institute of Languages. The work of Kerala State Library Council faded away and could not leave much impact.

In June 1977, Kerala Association for Non-formal Education and Development (KANFED) got registered under Travancore–Cochin Charitable Societies Act 12 of 1955 (Reg. No. 317/77) as an offshoot of the Kerala *Grandhasala Sanghom* and Kerala State Library Council, comprising of the members of the Literacy Expert Committee of the *Sanghom*. KANFED had before it certain specific objectives to fulfil: (1) wiping out of illiteracy from the state, (2) providing opportunities for continuing education for all needy people (3) strengthening the non-formal mode of education, and (4) linking developmental activities with non-formal education. Liberation of the masses, especially the down-trodden people, viz., Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and women was its motive. For this, District/Block/Panchayat level centres were organised and literacy centres were commissioned. In many places KANFED Bhavans were established and welfare programmes were launched. State and central governments approved KANFED providing grants.

The State Resource Centre (SRC) was entrusted with KANFED by the Central Government on the recommendation of the State Government. The SRC was established in July 1978 as a project of KANFED. There was a time when the working of KANFED and SRC were so mixed or integrated that one could not demarcate the boundaries. Later an administrative committee was formed to oversee

the functioning of SRC consisting of government and KANFED representatives. This system continued upto 1993 when SRC got itself registered as a separate entity with the Secretary to Government for general education as the Chairman of the Board of Management. The grant also increased from two to five lakhs of 1978 to 25 lakhs of 1999-2000. The SRC had its own publications, primers, guidebooks, reference books, neo-literate books, slides, charts, pamphlets, posters etc. for non-formal education mostly prepared in workshops where KANFED trained personnel were in plenty.

The German Adult Education Association (DVV) offered financial support to KANFED for about 10 years for organising literacy and continuing education centres, training of personnel, preparation and publication of neo-literate materials including books and periodicals, giving awards to committed social workers at KANFED's annual celebration. The UNICEF supported KANFED's non-formal education centres for the drop outs in the age range 15 to 45 years. Twenty five centres each in 6 northern districts of Kerala were organised for 3 years under this programme. A small film 'Lead Kindly Light' was brought out by KANFED and shown at every nook and corner of Kerala for motivating and conscientizing the masses. The Ford Foundation offered support for organising the *Bharat Gyan Vigyan Jatha* programme and *Neethi Vedi* programme in the state.

'*Souhrida Gramas*' (villages of friendship) were established wherein many disputes were settled before taking them to the court. 'We are one' was a slogan proposed by KANFED on the lines of Harambee in Kenya. This way KANFED has become the synonym for adult continuing education in Kerala.

In the emergence of Kerala as the first totally literate state in India, the role played by KANFED was unique. Its first attempt was a Vediappanchal Harijan Colony of Ezhome village in Kannur district. KANFED took this as a challenge with the help of a local vicar, Fr. Sukol and an activist V.R. V. Ezhome, a KANFED trained volunteer. This was during 1981-82. A KANFED Bhavan at Ezhome stands as a lasting monument of KANFED's praiseworthy work there.

The work for attaining total literacy in the Kottayam Municipal area was the next attempt. Here the National Service Scheme of M.G. University and Kottayam Municipality worked together with KANFED organising a day's survey and the campaign and followed. 2208 illiterate adults were made literate in 10 months time. The project was known as People's Education and Literacy Campaign, Kottayam (PELCK) which was the forerunner of Eranakulam Total Literacy Project. In Ernakulam district 1.61 lakhs were identified as illiterate. All attempts were made to rope in more than 20,000 educated youth for voluntary work in this area. Creating appropriate climate though folk art forms, corner meetings, *Padayatras* etc was

the combined venture of two state level voluntary agencies, viz., KSSP and KANFED. The major part played can be attributed to KSSP. Though Collector K.R. Rajan was initiator of the project, it was a district level new voluntary agency headed but Retd. Justice V.R. Krishna Iyer, which organised the programme. Through hard and dedicated work, Erankulam district was declared as the first totally literate district in India, by the then Prime Minster V.P. Singh. This campaign secured UNESCO's prize.

In the state level total literacy campaign that followed, a state level machinery KSLMA was formed. But KANFED trained volunteers were found at all levels. This effort culminated in the declaration of total literacy with 93.58 per cent literacy at Kozhikode on 18 April 1991.

KANFED had evolved an experimental project of Literacy within 90 days and was fond successful. Separate primers were developed and personnel were trained properly by KANFED. The evaluation showed that three months period is adequate for making an illiterate adult literate, but attempts for sustaining the literacy level and improvement thereupon were recommended. KANFED organised training camps of 100 days duration each for three groups of 30 each. A good number trained in these camps have emerged as promising community workers at different levels. It was KANFED, which began recognising social workers and honouring them at its annual meets.

KANFED produced 20-25 primers, nearly 20 guidebooks, handbooks, workbooks etc, around 50 reference books for workers, nearly 210 books for neo-literates, besides a number of pamphlets. Its weekly for neo-literates 'KANFED News', fortnightly for functionaries '*Anoupachrika Vidyabhayasam*' and monthly wall paper '*nattuvelicham*' were all constant support to the field functionaries and organisers alike. These were published from January 1978.

P.N. Panicker, the architect of library movement in Kerala was also the kingpin behind KANFED during this lifetime 1977-95. P.T. Bhaskara Panickar a popular scientist and one time President of the *Sanghom*, gave ample support and vision to KANFED programmes. It was he who coined the name KANFED, after which may FEd's have emerged in Kerala (Coirfed, Consumerfed Marketfed, Nafed etc). An equal share of KANFED's formation and working is attributable to K. Sivadashan Pillai, who had Post-Doctoral training in non-formal education in U.K and had enough experience though the *Sanghom*; he was in the Secretariat of KANFED ffrom 1977 to 1995 and has now been working as its General Secretary since 1995. Other veterans behind KANFED include literary stalwart N.V. Krishna Warrier, UNESCO expert N.P. Pillai, former Central Minister Lakshmi N. Menon, social activist Pushpita John, a walking encyclopaedia and lexican editor Sooranad Kunjan Pillai, Rev. Benedict Mar Gregorious, Archbishop of Trivandrum, M.

Haridas, NCERT Field Advisor, K. Madhavankutty, retired Principal of Medical College and K. Ravindranathan Nair, a business magnate of Kollam, to mention a few. KANFED has currently 320 life members, two permanent institutional members and around 3,000 associate members. It has a unique pattern of management – a three member Presidium, 5 member Secretariat, 31 member Executive Committee and 100 member Governing Council, elected every three years. DVV's collaboration with KANFED was adjudged as the best of its 19 projects during that period.

Kerala Sastra Sahitya Parishad (KSSP)

KSSP is mainly engaged in the popularisation of science among the masses. Started as a voluntary movement it has emerged as a formidable organisation consisting of college and university professors, school teachers, scientists of various calibre, students and even filed workers. It was founded by visionaries like P.T. Bhaskara Panicker, Madhavankutty, K.K. Rahulan, A.G.G. Menon etc. In the beginning it depended on sale of publications. It has nearly 200 scientific books of different grades. It has four periodicals on science catering to the public, college and school students. Science fairs and science quiz programmes are regular features. In course of time it stretched its attention to field like education, literacy etc.

In the Ernakulam Total Literacy Campaign, KSSP played a key role and subsequently in the state's total literacy campaign. The materials produced and widely circulated by KSSP are good in spreading scientific temper among the public. They are good reading material even for the neo-literates. KSSP won UNESCO award in 1998 for its meritorious work in the voluntary sector. Science talent search schemes are also conducted by the *Parishad*. In the decentralised planning in Kerala, KSSP has played a major role. It has established research wing for studying problems and issues of development in a scientific way. It is giving leadership in BJVJ programmes. KSSP has introduced a P.T. Bhaskara Panicker Memorial state level science competition for school students.

Mitraniketan is situated in Vellanad, 32 kms from Thiruvananthapuram, the capital city of Kerala. K. Viswanathan, trained in Shantiniketan and Denmark and a disciple of Morgan is leading this rural-based experimental institution. With a humble beginning in the family property, Mr. Viswanthan and his wife are the pillars of the institution which has both formal and non-formal systems. A people's college on the lines of Denmark's folk school movement has been established in the Mitranketan campus. *A Krishi Vigan Kendra* (KVK) is functioning as a model training centre for voluntary agencies in the state. Association of Voluntary Agencies for Rural Development (AVARD) is also located in the campus. A dedicated community worker, Viswanathan is the 'big brother' of all local people. Two batches of 10 adult education centres were organised by this voluntary organisation. The

National Open School has started one of its units here. Job-oriented programmes are in full swing. The entire community is involved in the developmental programmes organised by the Mitranketan.

Laubach Literacy Trust (LLT)

Laubach's method is famous in the field of adult education. A disciple of Laubach, A.K. John got inspired in this method and started a Laubach Literacy Trust at Karthigappally in Alapuzha district. The LLT trained personnel in the methodology and evolved primers and follow-up books. A number of Adult Education Centres were started in the coastal areas of Alappuzha and ran them for years. A training centre and library are housed in the main building. The trust has been affiliated to the IAEA. John was an active member of the Kerala branch of IAE till his death last year. Laubach Jr. used to visit this institution.

Quilon Social Service Society (QSSS) is popular in the coastal areas of Kollam district. Adult education is one of its functions. Nearly 50 Adult Education Centres were being conducted by the QSSS during last 10-20 years. The Diocese of Quilon has the leadership. It is also an affiliate of IAEA. M. Pathrose is the person behind this movement.

University Departments/Centres

The universities in Kerala are also actively engaged in adult education programmes. Most prominent is the Kerala University followed by Calicut and Mahatama Gandhi.

A Centre for Adult Education & Extension (CAEE) was established in the University of Kerala in 1980 with the financial support of the University Grants Commission (UGC). It was inaugurated by the then President of India, Neelam Sanjiva Reddy. The centre was later named as Centre for Adult Continuing Education and Extension (CACEE). Population education programmes form a major activity and a Population Education Resource Centre (PERC) is attached to CACEE. Legal literacy and environmental education are its other activities.

The CAEE organised centres with the cooperation of affiliated colleges. At one time their number was 780. The average membership in each centre was 25-30 and women formed a major portion of the participants. A separate primer *Jana Bodhana Sahayi* was prepared along with a handbook for using the same A collection of motivational songs was also published. The Comprehensive Monitoring Register (CMR) developed by the CAEE was appreciated by the UGC and was used in many universities. The primer developed by the centre was also sought for by the state run centres and by many voluntary agencies. A series of 24 neo-literate books were prepared in two workshops sponsored by the Directorate of Adult Education

(DAE). An evaluation study of the adult education programmes in the seven southern districts of Kerala was entrusted to the centre by the Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD). The work was completed on time and report published. On behalf of UGC, DAE, UNICEF etc research studies were undertaken by the centre. A post-master diploma course in Adult and Continuing Education was commissioned in 1988-89 with UGC's concurrence and financial support with an intake of 20 per year. After five batches the course was renamed as Diploma in Non-formal Education and converted to full time course. The faculty of education of the University through its Department of Education has provided opportunity for specialising in Adult Continuing, non-formal education at M.Ed level and carry out researches at Ph.D. level. So far 17 persons have secured Ph.D. on topics related to adult, non-formal education. Dr. K. Sivadasan Pillai, the founder head of CAEE steered the university's involvement in adult education activities.

For fifteen years till his retirement in 1995. Considering his meritorious work in the CAEE, the voluntary sector and in the government sector as a trainer, research guide, advisor, director of workshops, evaluator etc. the Nehru Literacy Award of 1994 was conferred on him.

The University could help around 62,000 illiterates become literates and conscientised. Many innovative approaches were followed, especially in the training, material production, monitoring, evaluation aspects of adult education. A mobile convocation was introduced and a neo-literate book kit each was presented to the neo-literates to certify them as literates. This helped many in confirmation in class IV posts, based on literacy and numeracy skills and general knowledge. The Kerala University CACEE was made a nodal agency (only 10 such in India) and one of the top five by the UGC. Dr. Pillai also headed the state level evaluation team for identifying the best district and district level co-ordinators and project officers on completion of the Total Literacy Campaign in the state.

When the University of Calicut was established bifurcating Kerala University, it started with a Department of Adult Education. Within the first five years its faculty was merged with the Faculty of Education. In 1983, a co-ordinator and project officer were appointed as per UGC guidelines and the University gave leadership and co-ordination to the affiliated colleges in organising adult education and population education programmes. The University Department of Adult Education has produced 15 neo-literate books. It organised adult education centres in nearby villages. Currently they organise income generating programmes through self-employment activities. The University too has provision for research at Ph.D. level at the faculty of Education and five have obtained Doctoral degree in this area from here.

M.G. University, Kotttayam was an active partner (rather a frontline partner) in the Total Literacy Campaign of Kottayam municipal area. It was though not through adult education wing, but through the National Service Scheme (NSS).

However, a Centre for Adult Education & Extension has since been established with Dr. Thomas Abraham, the then NSS Coordinator at its helm of affairs. There were programmes in some of the affiliated colleges when they were part of the University of Kerala.

The NSS of all the universities in the state were involved in the Mass Programme for Functional Literacy (MPFL) under which 'Each One Teach One' was the method. Then NSS volunteers were expected to help one to five illiterate adults become literate. Though kits were supplied free by the SRC, due to lack of monitoring devices and systems, the programme failed considerably. But in the adult education programme – whether it be centre-based, small group or each teach one, in Kerala one could find NSS volunteers and Adult Education Programme instructors dominating. Unlike many other Indian States, in Kerala, university involvement in adult education was unique and praiseworthy. In the 1921-23 report on the formation of a University in Kerala, it was suggested that it should concentrate on adult education also. Even before the acceptance of extension as a third dimension equal to teaching and research in Indian universities, Kerala then took the lead and showed the way.

Shramik Vidyapeeths (SVP) were started to attend to polyvalent adult education programme. These were to cater to the workers and their families in selected areas. On such SVP was established in the University of Kerala in 1985. It took up literacy work, besides offering vocational training programmes. The SVP Trivandrum has emerged as one of the leading centres due to its commitment and work. Currently, falling in the line with the all India pattern, it has been renamed as *Jan Shikshan Sanstahn* (JSS). Now the emphasis is to shift to 'education for all and for ever', mainly through occupational pursuits and income generating programmes. In course of time, SVPs have been established at Calicut, Kodungallur and a fourth one is to come up at Kottayam, all under different voluntary agencies. Since SVPs cater to adults, this organisation also comes under the aegis of adult education.

Literacy Forum

The Literacy Forum was registered in 1981 as an offshoot or rather an extension wing of the CAEE of Kerala University as a platform for all those interested and involved in adult literacy and allied areas. This too is affiliated to IAEA. It took up an experimental centre in a remote village and attempted many innovative techniques. Studies were done on the basis of data collected. It conducted workshops on educational journalism, production of teaching aids, including puppetry, regular discussions and seminars. Even in the continuing education scene, the Literacy Forum is actively involved in the running of centres, training of functionaries, evaluation etc. The Forum has since dissociated itself from the centre, to have popular support and involvement. The Forum sent its representatives for

training and study to *Viswa Yuvak Kendra* (Delhi), PRIA (Delhi), NIPCCD (Bangalore), Sarvodaya Movement (Sri Lanka) etc. The forum has a group of academicians, able to provide technical inputs and practical known how. Since its formation in 1981, Dr. Sivadasan Pillai has been its President.

The Kerala State Chapter of IAEA was formally installed on 11 July 1998. It has Dr. K. Sivadasan Pillai as its President and Dr. V. Reghu as its Secretary. The branch has 75 individual life members and six institutional members. This unit organises seminars and conferences on topics of current importance. Its programme on disaster management was a significant achievement. It organises World Literacy Day befittingly in collaboration with other agencies in the state.

Kerala State Literacy Mission Authority (KSLMA) was formed consequent on the NLM's directions and to launch state level total literacy campaign in 1990. The Chief Minister heads the KSLMA and the Education Minister, its executive committee. There is a Director and a number of consultants. District level Literacy Mission authorities have been established in all the 14 districts. These authorities are looking after the implementation of continuing education programmes through various local self-governments and voluntary agencies.

Conclusion

As per the *Census Report of 2001*, Kerala has 90.92 per cent literacy. However, it is a fact that many have relapsed into illiteracy (out of the 12.2 lakhs made literate under the TLC). School drop out (though the least among Indian states) resulting in illiteracy also adds to these figures. So realistic estimate would be that out of the three crores of people in Kerala, at least 25 lakhs are unable to decipher the alphabet. (They are the illiterates in one sense!). They are not ignorants! They are knowledgeable in many respects and politically and socially conscious! Only thing is that they are devoid of literacy and numeracy skills. They too have to be made literate and liberated at the earliest. May be in course of the next five years.

EDUCATION AND SOCIAL MOBILITY AMONG THE SCHEDULED TRIBES : A CASE STUDY OF TWO VILLAGES IN ASSAM

Kunja Kusum Kakati

It is a known fact that the Indian society is basically hierarchical. Yet, the democratic framework of India with its socialistic nature provides sufficient safeguards to those who are at the lowest rung of the social ladder. According to the constitutional directives, the Government has special provisions for the protection and promotion of the Scheduled Tribes, who are recognised as a weaker section of the society.

Tribal Development and Education

The contemporary Indian society is in transition changing from the traditional stage to the modern. Our national government though its planned strategies aims at directing the tribal communities towards modernity. It wants to enable them to acquire an equitable and rightful place in the society. The Tribal Sub-Plan is one of such strategies, which has led to the creation of Integrated Tribal Development Projects (ITDP). The ultimate idea is elimination of their exploitation, acceleration of the pace of socio-economic development and building inner strength in the tribal communities.

With the introduction of different avenues for development, the tribals are expected to perceive the change in a positive direction. In this, education is undoubtedly an important social input. As education implies awareness it can help them to overcome their social barriers and pave the way for social mobility.

The North-East India comprising of seven States (Assam, Meghalaya, Nagaland, Manipur, Tripura, Mizoram and Arunachal Pradesh) is inhabited by different tribal communities having their own ethnic, linguistic and socio-cultural value systems. Their problems vary from group to group. Even within the same tribal group, the situation varies from one region to the other. Hence, the pace of development among different tribal groups may not be uniform. Against such circumstances an attempt has been made in this paper to see how far social mobility takes place among the tribal people in two villages of Barpeta district of Assam and the role of education in it.

The Villages and the People

The study was conducted in two villages: (1) Baghapara and (2) Nimua out of 42 ITDP villages of Gobardhana Development Block of Barpeta district. Barpeta

is one of the 19 ITDP districts of the state covering 197 villages with 1.87 lakhs of population, of which more than 90 thousand are Scheduled Tribes according to the census of 1991. Bodo-Kachari is the prominent tribal group constituting almost 99 per cent of the total ST population of the area, remaining one per cent being the Rabhas. The literacy rate for the whole of the ITDP area stands at 38.14 per cent, where only 18.26 per cent form the ST people.

Baghapara is a purely tribal village with 35 households inhabited by Bodo-Kacharis. It is situated at a distance of 25 kms. north of District headquarter and about six kms south of the Block office. It is about two kms, east of National Highway No. 37 and one km south of Simlaguri Majgaon PWD Road. Barpeta Road is the nearest town at a distance of four kms. The total population of the village is 380 with a male-female break-up of 210 and 170 respectively. Literacy rate stands at 40 per cent and 20 per cent for males and females respectively with a total of 36 per cent.

Nimua is a mixed village inhabited by both tribal and non-tribal populations. There are 45 tribal and 25 non-tribal households with a population of 490 and 225 respectively. The literacy rate for the tribals is 28 per cent, with male 35 per cent and female below 20 per cent. On the other hand, there are 42 per cent literates among the general people with a male-female break-up of 45 per cent and 25 per cent respectively. The village is situated at a distance of 32 kms. north of District headquarter and 12 kms. north of the Block office. Although the village is 15 kms north of National Highway No. 31, yet, it is adjacent to the PWD road and well connected by road, not only with Barpeta Road town, but with the District and Block headquarters also. It was found that all the tribal households of the village are Bodo-Kacharis.

The Bodo-Kachari, a branch of Indo-Mongoloid family falling within the Assam-Burmese linguistic section is the largest group among the plain tribes of Assam. They have a patriarchal form of society.

Tools of Investigation

The present study is based on primary data collected through a structured information schedule, which was administered upon the heads of all the households numbering 80 (35 from Baghapara and 45 from Nimua). Thus, 80 heads of the household constitute our respondents, who were categorised on the basis of their education and occupation.

Table No.1

No. of respondents as per educational level (percentage in parenthesis) in Baghpara and Nimua

Level of Education	Baghapara	Nimua	Tota
Illiterate	18 (51.42)	25 (55.55)	43 (53.75
Up to Primary	11 (31.41)	10 (22.22)	21 (26.25
Up to Secondary	4 (11.41)	7 (15.55)	11 (13.75
Above Secondary	2 (5.75)	3 (6.66)	5 (6.25
Total	35 (99.99)	45 (99.98)	80 (100.00

Table No.2

No. of respondents as per their occupation (percentage in parenthesis) in Baghpara and Nimua

Occupations	Baghapara	Nimua	Tota
Agriculture	24 (68.57)	35 (77.77)	59 (73.75
Service	6 (17.14)	6 (13.33)	12 (15.00
Business	5 (14.28)	4 (8.88)	9 (11.25
Total	35 (99.99)	45 (99.98)	80 (100.00

Although social mobility may take place in two directions – upward and downward - it is expected that the tribal people should be upwardly mobile, as it is a desirable characteristic of society, and that education should promote and facilitate it.

Under the above circumstances some variables were adopted as indicators of upward social mobility of the tribal people. Data collected through these variables from the two villagers under study were compared with the help of simple frequencies and percentages. It was also intended to see the relationship of these variables with the education of the respondents.

The following were the indicators of upward social mobility

1)   Shift from traditional occupation
2)   Social contact with non-tribals
3)   Changes in life-style
4)   Improved family resources
5)   Aspiration for high education of children
6)   Divorced from alchoholism
7)   Absence of indebtedness
8)   Absence of land alienation
9)   Social infrastructure

Findings on Variables

Shift from traditional occupations – It is well known that agriculture is the principal occupation of the tribal people in Assam. Data presented in Table No. 3 regarding the occupational pattern of the study households shows that majority of them (64.57 per cent in Baghapara and 77.77 per cent in Nimua) are engaged in their traditional occupation, i.e. agriculture. Yet, some of them have shifted o the non-agricultural sector. Although the percentage is not very remarkable, a positive trend can be noticed in their mobility towards non-agricultural activities as they constitute 31.42 per cent and 22.21 per cent in Baghapara and Nimua respectively. In Baghapara 17.14 per cent of the respondents are service holders, most of whom are working as defence personnel. On the other hand, three per cent in Nimua and 13.33 per cent in Baghpara are working as school teachers and defence personnel. Business as an occupation was not familiar among the Bodo-Kacharis till some years back. But present investigation reveals that 14.28 per cent of the families of Baghapara as against 8.88 per cent of Nimua are engaged in different kinds of independent activities like running medical shops, grocery shops, tea stalls etc. An educated youth from Baghapara village has even opened a motor garage.

Thus, although occupational mobility of the villages has not been very encouraging, yet, it is higher in Baghapara in comparison to Nimua. It is again higher among the educated than the uneducated respondents.

Social contact with non-tribals – Social contact of the tribal with non-tribals takes place in both the villages of Baghapara and Nimua, although the pace of contact varies from one another (Table No.4). In spite of being a homogenious village, more families of Baghapara are interacting frequently (48.57 per cent) with the non-tribals of the neighbouring villages. There is even one case of matrimonial

relationship between the two groups. On the other hand, Nimua being a village with mixed population does not show much progress in their contact with the non-tribals. It is observed that the educated families are more exposed to the outside word, which makes it easy for them to interact with the general people.

Changes in lifestyle – Life style is a relative concept. It is differant in different communities. Although there are innumerable variables to determine the improved life style of an individual, yet, some of them, which were thought to be relevant to the present study have been presented in Table No. 5. It reveals that highest number of families in Baghapara have changed their pattern of dress (48.71 per cent). Next to it, the highest number have adopted improved toilet habit (shifted the habit of open air toilet to the closed latrines) and dietary habit (34.28 per cent). Although changes have taken place in respect of dress, diet and toilet habits in case of Nimua village also, yet the changes there are much lower than those in Baghapara.

Our field investigation reveals that majority of families in both the villages to do not adopt scientific method of treatment of illness (Baghapara 75 per cent and Nimua 78 per cent). They still believe in the existence of evil spirits and depend upon the village Kabiraj. The same is true in case of drinking water and the use of labour saving devices. Very few persons use filtered water and a quite negligible number of families in both the villages go in for labour safety devices like LPG, pressure cooker etc. Yet, Baghapara is slightly more positive than Nimua in adopting a changed pattern of life.

Family resources – As regards the family resources (Table No. 6.) it is found that bicycle is the only item which is available to the great majority of the families in both the villages. Yet, Baghapara has much higher number than Nimua. There 85.71 per cent families possessed the item, compared to 55.55 per cent of the families in Nimua.

In respect of the average size of land holding per family, Baghapara is placed higher (15 Bighas) than Nimua (10 Bighas). There is, however, a great difference between the two villages in respect of the use of pump sets and diesel tractors – 42.85 per cent of Baghapara are using pumpsets and 5.71 per cent using diesel tractors, whereas only 4.44 per cent families of Nimua are having pumpsets and none has a tractor. Similarly, more families of Baghapara village (22.85 per cent) possess radio as a means of their entertainment, whereas only 11.11 per cent families of Nimua have it. On the whole, the families of Baghapara possess more resources than Nimua.

Aspiration for higher education of children – Although the literacy scenario of the tribal people in general and in the villages under study in particular is not encouraging, yet, great majority of the respondents in both the villages (82.85 per

cent in Baghapara and 80 per cent in Nimua) expect that their children should be highly educated. Accordingly, it was found that quite a good number of their children (both boys and girls) are studying in colleges. This trend is more visible in case of educated families than the uneducated ones.

Alcoholism – Drinking rice-beer is a common habit of the Bodo-Kacharis. A shift from this habit is regarded as a positive change in their lives. It is found that (Table No.8) although both the villages are not completely free from this habit, yet, 80 per cent of the respondents of Baghapara are found not regular drinkers, whereas there are only 49 per cent respondents of Nimua village in this category. Only 20 per cent from Baghapara again st 51 per cent from Nimua are regular drinkers. Thus, change in the positive direction is more in case of Baghapara than Nimua. Although no significant relationship was found between education and alcoholic nature of those respondents, yet, most of the educated prefer traditional drinks.

Indebtedness – Rural indebtedness is a common problem in rural Assam. It is more widespread in the tribal areas. Under this situation less indebtedness is regarded as a symbol of upward mobility of the tribal people. Although all of our respondents were not completely from indebtedness, yet, 34.28 per cent of Baghapara and 15.55 per cent of Nimua report that they have not taken any loan for the last five years. Among the regular borrowers, percentage is more in Nimua in comparison to Baghapara. But no significant relationship was found between education and indebtedness of the respondents.

Land alienation – Land alienation is one of the worst problems of the Bodo-Kacharis. But unlike the earlier problem of large scale transfer of land, a great majority of our respondents (94.28 per cent in Baghapara and 88.88 per cent in Nimua) report that they have not sold any land for the last ten years. Only a negligible number of them (5.7 per cent and 11.11 per cent respectively) say that they sold a small portion of their original land under some eventualities (Table No.10).

Social infrastructure – Data relating to the social infrastructure of the villages under study reveal a poor picture (Table No.11). Although there is a 30-bedded hospital in Nimua, yet, it is running without any permanent doctor. Similarly, the inhabitants of Baghapara have had to move to the nearby village (Majargaon) which has a Public Health Centre, (althogh even the latter is rarely visited by any doctor). Same is the case with the adult education centres; they were non-functional. The Gaon Panchayat Samabai Samitis are also not fulfilling the commitments of the government. There are no facilities for youth hostels in both the villages. Lacking also are electrical connections, bank facilities, post office, water supply and proper transportation facilities. Thus, both the villages are poor in terms of basic amenities which has a bearing in the social mobility of the villagers.

Table No. 3

Occupational pattern of the families of the two villages (percentage in parenthesis)

Villages	Agriculture	Non-agriculture		Tota
		Service	Busines	
Baghapara	24 (64.57)	6 (17.14)	5 (14.28)	35 (99.99)
Nimua	35 (77.77)	6 (13.33)	4 (8.88)	45 (99.98)
Total	59 (73.75)	12 (15.00)	9 (11.25)	80 (100.00)

Table No. 4

Social contact of tribal families with non-tribals in two villages (percentage in parenthesis)

Villages	Frequently	Occasionally	Rarely	Never	Total
Baghapara	17 (48.57)	5 (14.28)	10 (28.57)	3 (8.57)	35 (99.99)
Nimua	12 (26.66)	19 (42.22)	9 (20.00)	5 (11.11)	45 (99.99)
Total	29 (36.25)	24 (30.00)	19 (23.75)	8 (10.00)	80 (100.00)

Table No. 5

Changes in life-style of tribal families (from traditional to modern) in the two villages (percentage in parenthesis)

Level of Education	Baghapara	Nimua	Tota
Illiterate	18 (51.42)	25 (55.55)	43 (53.75
Up to Primary	11 (31.41)	10 (22.22)	21 (26.25
Up to Secondary	4 (11.41)	7 (15.55)	11 (13.75
Above Secondary	2 (5.75)	3 (6.66)	5 (6.25
Total	35 (99.99)	45 (99.98)	80 (100.00

* Percentage out of total no. of families.

Table No. 6

Family resources of the tribals of the two villages (percentage in parenthesis)

Resources	Baghapara*	Nimua**	Total***
Bicycle	30 (85.71)	25 (55.55)	55 (68.75)
Scooter/Motorcycle	2 (5.71)	2 (4.44)	4 (5.00)
Car	1 (2.85)	1 (2.22)	2 (2.5)
Bus	0	0	
Truck	0	0	
Bullock cart	6 (17.14)	5 (11.11)	11 (13.75)
Tractor	2 (5.71)	0	
Pumpset	15 (42.85)	2 (4.44)	17 (21.25)
T.V.	1 (2.85)	1 (2.22)	2 (2.5)
Radio	8 (22.85)	5 (11.11)	13 (16.25)
Telephone	0	0	
Average land holdings	15 bighas	10 bighas	25 bighas

* Percentage out of 35
** Percentage out of 45
*** Percentage out of 80

Table No. 7

Aspiration for higher education of children of the tribals of the two villages (percentage in parenthesis)

Villages	Yes	No	Total
Baghapara	29 (82.85)	6 (17.14)	35 (99.99)
Nimua	36 (80.00)	9 (20.00)	45 (100.00)
Total	65 (81.25)	15 (18.75)	80 (100.00

Table No. 8

Alcoholism among the tribals of the two villages (percentage in parenthesis)

Villages	Regularity	Occasionally	Rarely	Never	Total
Baghapara	12 (34.28)	14 (40.00)	9 (25.71)	0	35 (99.99)
Nimua	23 (51.11)	19 (42.22)	3 (6.66)	0	45 (99.99)
Total	35 (43.75)	33 (41.25)	12 (15.00)	0	80 (100.00

Table No. 9

Indebtedness of the tribals of the two villages (percentage in parenthesis)

Villages	Frequently	Occasionally	Rarely	Never	Total
Baghapara	4 (11.42)	9 (25.71)	10 (28.57)	12 (34.28)	35 (99.98)
Nimua	20 (44.44)	14 (31.1)	4 (8.88)	7 (15.55)	45 (99.98)
Total	24 (30.00)	23 (28.75)	14 (17.5)	19 (23.75)	80 (100.00

Data presented in the tables were collected through field survey during September/October, 2000.

Table No. 10
Land alienation among the tribals of the two villages (percentage in parenthesis)
No. of respondents

Villages	Regularity	Occasionally	Rarely	Never	Total
Baghapara	0	0	2 (5.71)	33 (94.28)	35 (99.99)
Nimua	0	0	5 (11.11)	40 (88.88)	45 (99.99)
Total	0	0	7 (8.75)	73 (91.25)	80 (100.00

Table No. 11
Social infrastructure of the two tribal villages under study

Avenues/facilities *Educational institutions*	*Baghapara*	*Nimua*
Primary	1	1
M.E.	0	1
H.E.	1	1
Hospital	0	1
Post office	0	0
Public Library	0	0
Adult education centre	1	1
Village education committee	1	1
Youth hostel	0	0
Bank	0	0
Samabai samiti	1	1
Electricity	0	0
Water supply	0	0
Pubic transportation	0	Yes

Summary and Conclusion

Although social mobility takes place in both the villages – Baghapara and Nimua, it is quite insufficient. At this age of scientific explosion and globalisation, the tribal people are lagging far behind the general people. In spite of planned strategy of the government for tribal development, vertical mobility of the population under our study has been only limited. Yet, Baghapara is slightly higher in the pace of mobility in comparison to Nimua in respect of the tribals' occupational pattern, social contact with the general people and adoption of modern life style. As regards family resources also Baghapara is at a higher position; the tribals there possessed more land on an average and more technological weapons for agriculture, used the scientific method of pesticide and fertiliser more and had their own means of transportation – bicycle, car, scooter more than their counterparts in Nimua. The Baghapara tribals were also found to be less alcoholic, less indebted and more resistant to land alienation, which is a positive symbol of development. It was found that general education of the respondents were positively correlated with all these variables.

Besides the outward mobility through material possession, inward mobility like attitude towards provisions of birth control, small family norm, proper age at marriage etc. were also observed. In this educated tribals again seemed to have a more positive outlook. Thus, education was found to be an essential input in the lives of the tribal people to achieve upward social mobility, which is seen as an important factor of tribal development.

The tribal villages should be provided for with sufficient basic facilities along with general education. Also special steps for popularisation of scientific method of agriculture and rural technology (gobar gas plant, smokeless chulah, low-cost sanitary latrine, home made water filter etc.) and encouragement for the adoption of scientific method of treatment of illness should be taken. For all these purposes voluntary action group should come forward along side government machinery.

* * *

WOMEN'S ATTITUDE TOWARDS SPECIAL SKILLS TRAINING PROGRAMME IN NIGERIA AND ITS IMPLICATIONS

Augustine U. Osunde
Francis E.O. Omoruyi

Introduction

Since the United Nations' declaration of 1975 as the International Year of Women, the period 1975-1985 as the 'Decade for Women' and the world conference on women held at Beijing in 1995, efforts to raise women's economic status through appropriate training and education have heightened. The aim is to liberate women from men's subjugation and all forms of discrimination which have been their lot. Earlier, particularly before 1960s women's activities were not recognised; their services were largely devalued and underpriced (Bhola 1995). In African society they were socialised to be as appendage to men; for a long time the training they received confined to their sex role as mothers and home managers (Omoruyi 1999). One major reason which was adduced for women's low status, particularly in Africa has been lack of their access to education and income. Since they have no access to income, they are forced to depend entirely on their husbands to meet their financial obligations.

In Nigeria since 1987 in line with global developments, there has been drastic turn in the affairs of women. Series of efforts have been made to propagate the cause of women. Women's uplift has become a prominent issue in development planning activities. The programmes related to it have been subject to constant review keeping in view the global trend and economic realities of Nigeria.

The challenge from these developments has taken various dimensions, particularly new constitutional provision and the institution of various programmes of women's development. Of all the efforts for women's emancipation, the most important is the institution of education and special training programme designed to help women acquire skills; these would enable women to earn income and become self-dependent. Recent developments in this area show that women's education and training have occupied a central position in the activities of government and non-governmental organisations. Today, there are many governmental organisations involved in women-based educational programmes.

Before late 1980s there were only few centres for women's education located in Igarra, Otuo, Irrua, Auchi, Sabongida-Ora, Afuze and other parts of the country.

In recent time, however, the number has increased as a result of the activities of the various women's commissions at the Federal, State and local government levels geared to improving the economic and social status of women. These centres have been established to provide women with skills in typewriting, computing, basket weaving, pottery, fashion designing, hair dressing and so on. The special skills development programme aims at raising the economic status of women and promoting self-reliance and financial independence.

However, it has often been argued that most of such programmes in the country are concentrated in the urban areas at the expense of rural areas, where the majority of women live. Needless to say that the programmes which target the rural areas, where majority of the women dwell and find their means of livelihood would produce more results. A knowledge on the perception and attitude of women can help to provide an insight into their level of involvement; it can also help to establish if the programme is reaching out the majority of the women, who constitute the target group. Besides, if the attitude of the women is known it can provide guideline for the organisation and implementation of the programme.

With these points in mind, a study was designed to ascertain women's perception and attitude towards the special training programme instituted for them.

Purpose of the Study

The specific objectives of the study were the following:

i) To find out the attitude of rural and urban women towards women's special skills training programme.

ii) To ascertain significant difference, if any, in the attitude of rural and urban women towards women's special skills training programme.

iii) To determine the perception of rural and urban women towards the women's special skills training programme.

In order to achieve the above objectives of the study, the following research questions were raised:

i) What is the attitude of rural and urban women towards women's special skills training programme?

ii) Is there any significant difference in the attitude of rural and urban women towards women's special skills training programme?

iii) How do the rural and urban women perceive the women's special skills training programme designed for them?

Our hypothetical understanding was that there was no significant difference in the attitude of rural and urban women towards special skills training programme.

Significance of the Study

The significance of a study like this cannot be over-emphasised. In the first place, it is hoped that the findings will assist in policy formulation and decision making process and have a bearing in the organisation and implementation of the programmes. Perception and attitude are variables which can affect both the level of participation and the benefits that the target audience or anticipated beneficiaries can derive from the programme. This in turn affect the state of the programme. Kumari and Srinivasulu (2001) have argued that the success of any development programme depends largely upon the attitude and involvement of people for whom it is designed. From this point of view, the present study should help in effective implementation of the women's special skills training programme by providing information on the opinion and attitude of urban and rural women.

Methodology

To explain the attitude of rural and urban women towards the special skills training programme, the study employed the simple descriptive survey research design. The choice of the survey research design method stems from its strength as a powerful tool for obtaining social facts and opinion. Besides, according to Kelinger (1979), the method has the ability to provide accurate information on a whole population even when a relatively small sample is used.

The sample in the present case consisted of a total of 360 women participants selected at random from six women special skills training centres in the southern part of Nigeria. The break-up shows that 60 women participants were chosen from each of the centres.

A scale to assess the attitude and opinion of women towards the women's special skills training programme was designed. Simple knowledge items on opinion and attitude were raised. The scale titled "Women's Attitude and Opinion Scale (WAOS)" was designed along the line of Likert's summated rating technique of scale construction. The responses were recorded on a four point continuum ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree' with a weightage of 4 and 1 respectively.

To validate the instrument, the expertise of the members of the Faculty of Education was availed of. In the light of their comments and suggestions some of the items were modified and addition were made in some others. To estimate the reliability of the instrument, a test re-test procedure was employed within an interval of two weeks. The result produced a reliability coefficient estimate of 0.68.

In analysing the data, simple statistical techniques such as mean, frequency count and simple percentages were brought into use. The mean score, standard deviation and the z-test statistical analysis were also computed. To determine the mean score, the weightage score for each level in every item was calculated and the total was divided by the total number of respondents on the item. A mean score standard of 2.50 was adopted as the criterion for measuring and accepting any of the attitudinal and opinion variables on the scale. The mean score was also used to classify the attitude as 'highly favourable', 'favourable' and 'unfavourable'. A mean score of 3.00 – 4.00 was regarded as 'highly favourable', while a mean score of 2.50 – 2.99 and below 2.99 were classified as 'favourable' and 'unfavourable' respectively.

Results

The findings of the study are presented in the tables below:

Table No. 1

Distribution of respondents based on location

Location	Frequency	Precentage
Urban	232	64.44
Rural	128	35.56
Total	360	100

The above table shows that of the 360 women respondents used for the study only 232 (64.44 per cent) of the respondents were from the rural areas, while 128 (35.56 per cent) came from the rural areas. This implies that majority of the participants of the women's special skill training programme were urban dwellers.

The data in table no. 2 show that the urban and rural participants in the programme are at par in their attitude towards the programme in all the areas examined, except in the aspect on the level of involvement of the women. The urban and rural and rural participants do not agree that almost all the women are involved in the programme. While the participants from the urban area accept the fact that almost all the women are involved in the programme, those from the rural areas disagree.

The weightage mean was also used to compute the level of attitude of the participants towards the programme.

Table No. 2

Attitude of women participants towards Women's Special Skill Training Programme

S.No.	Attitudinal variable	Mean	Score	Remark
1.	I feel great being part of the programme	3.29	3.94	Consensus
2.	The programme has helped me to acquire basic vocational skill	3.40	3.60	Consensus
3.	The programme has helped me to raise my economic status	3.00	3.75	Consensus
4.	Almost all women are involved in the programme	3.65	1.14	Variation
5.	The programme has provided opportunity for women to acquire wealth	3.00	3.64	Consensus
6.	Full involvement of women in the programme should be encouraged	3.20	3.75	Consensus
7.	Women who participated in the programme have made more progress economically and socially	3.40	3.50	Consensus
8.	The special training programme is not the proper place for imparting vocational skills and knowledge	2.94	3.94	Consensus
9.	As a result of my involvement I am now aware of greater opportunities available for me in life	3.50	3.65	Consensus
10.	My participation in the programme has created in me a sense of belongingness	3.94	3.75	Consensus
11.	The programme can produce a high self concept and confidence in women	3.00	3.50	Consensus
12.	As a result of my involvement in the programme I now have positive self-image	2.80	3.20	Consensus

Table no. 3 shows that 59 per cent of the participants from urban area or centre have highly favourable attitude towards the women special skills training programme. The corresponding percentage from the rural area or centre is 90 per cent. Whereas 37 per cent and eight per cent have favourable attitude towards the women special skills training programme from the urban and rural areas or centres respectively, only four per cent and two per cent had unfavourable attitude respectively. From the analysis, it can be inferred that greater percentages of 86 and 98 of the urban and rural centre participants respectively have positive attitude towards the women special skills training programme.

Attempts were also made to determine if there was any signiiicant difference in the attitude of urban and rural women participants towards the programme. The result obtained is presented in table no. 3 below.

Table 3

Z-test of significant difference between the attitude of urban and rural women participants towards the programme

N	X	SD	Cal.Z-value		Crit.Z-value
Urban	232	3.26	7.55	0.12	1.96
Rural	128	3.36		7.34	

The data in table no. 3 shows a calculated Z-value of 0.12. The table value or critcal Z-value is 1.96 at five per cent level of significance. As can be seen, the calculated Z-value of 0.12 is less than the table value of 1.96. The null hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference between the attitude of rural and urban women towards the women special skills training programme is retained. It can be concluded that there is no significant difference in their attitude towards the special skills training programme.

Analysis of the Results

It has been discovered that the rural and urban women participants are at par in their attitude towards the special skills training programme. In fact, greater percentage of the women were found to have positive attitude towards the programme. This finding corroborates with the findings made by Naresh et al (2001), which studied the attitude of beneficiaries towards total literacy campaign in Dungarpur. Similar finding was reported in 1988 by Misra and Kablethiyal in their study of the attitude of instructors in the pre-and post-session of adult education programme.

However, it was revealed that the rural and urban women participants differ in their views on the level of women's involvement in the programme. This variation can be explained in terms of the percentage of involvement of participants from the area. Since more women involved in the programme came from the urban area, this probably made the participants from urban centres to state that almost all the women were involved. The finding is also instructive in that it points to the fact that not many women have taken advantage of the special skills training programme to better their lots. In spite of this, the result also reveals that the attitude of the participants towards the programme is similar irrespective of the area where they come from.

Development and Implementation

The findings of this study have great implications for development and implementation of educational programmes for women in the area. In the first place, the programme need to be expanded so that more women can participate, especially in the rural areas. Since the participants and/or beneficiaries have positive attitude towards the programme, policy of expansion should be pursued; at the same time the provision of training or skills should be diversified.

The government should formulate a foreward policy aimed at creating awareness, particularly among rural women and break the cultural taboos/barriers that might hinder their full and active involvement in the special skills training programme.

Conclusion and Recommendation

It can be concluded that women in urban and rural areas have positive attitude towards special skills training programme designed for them. In view of this, the programme should be retained and concerted effort be made to expand the programme, so that more women can participate and benefit from the various training provided for. The tempo of progress should not be allowed to slow down; rather the programme should be sustained and improved to cater to more and more women. The programme should be vigorously pursued and monitored to ensure its effective implementation.

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INVESTING IN YOUNG ADULTS: AN NGO INITIATIVE IN MADHYA PRADESH

Anjali Agarwal

In any society youth is a treasure and promise of the future. In India, they constitute one third of the population. Young population is increasing and becoming more visible due to decrease in child mortality, improved life expectancy at birth and delay in age of marriage.

Youth are generally defined as 15-24 year old and adolescents are considered to be in the age range of 10-19. The term adolesscence is derived from the Latin word *adolescere* which is 'to grow into maturity'. During this phase, individuals experience a gradual change from childhood to adulthood. This transition period is characterised by discernible physical, emotional, cognitive, social and behavioural changes.

Despite the crucial nature of this phase and associated needs of nutrition, educational information and guidance and counselling, adolescents generally have not been accorded due importance. Society generally approaches them with pre-conceived notions about this phase of life and views them as problems instead of realising their immense potential as being partners in development programmes and process.

The situation becomes more complex due to prevailing patriarchal family structure with typical age and gender stratification, caste and class dimensions. Consequently, adolescents, especially girls, enjoy very little power in the family set-up. The fear of their impending sexuality is used as rationale to restrict her mobility and prematurely push her into adulthood. Adolescent boys too are laden with expectations of earning and fending for the family, continuing the family name and developing a strong self-identify by not expressing emotions. As a result, this group continues to be exposed to various risks and is challenged by the specificity and gravity of their situation.

In the last decade, a significant change has resulted in the world's perceptions and attitudes towards adolescents. The idea that children, including adolescents (0-18 years) have special needs has given way to the conviction that they have rights, the same spectrum of rights as adults enjoy. This conviction, expressed through the convention on right of the child by the United Nations (UN) in 1989, has been ratified by 191 countries, including India. It signifies that these countries have committed themselves to provide four broad sets of rights to children and

adolescents, namely, right to survival, protection, development and participation. A significant implication of this change in focus is that now the active partnership of this group is regarded as imperative for the effectiveness of any programme that seeks to address their needs. The right to participation is the most significant in this context. Actualising the participation of adolescents in various aspects and programmes is likely to ensure that their other rights are realised.

Adoption of Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population Development (ICPD) in 1994 has further strengthened adolescent-centred interventions, especially those aimed at girls. Consequently, many participating countries, including India, have designed and are implementing unified programmes for Reproductive and Child Health (RCH), an integrated approach to family welfare with a special focus on adolescents. Polity and programme initiative by government is also a reflection of the political will to address the needs and rights of adolescents. A number of NGOs are also making efforts to understand and promote the interests of adolescents. Some organisations address specific needs such as reproductive health education, literacy, vocational skill building, healthcare, drug, alcohol and sexual abuse, income generation, etc. Others are more generic and include non-traditional services such as programmes for personality development, career counselling, counselling for personal problems and for adolescents' families, helpline services, etc.

Cited below is the case study of the effort of an NGO – *Bhartiya Grameen Mahila Sangh* (BGMS) Madhya Pradesh branch, working with adolescents for last nine years and using an empowerment model aimed at enhancing self-esteem and self-identity among the adolescents and developing life skills in them to face the challenges of future life.

BGMS initiative in M.P.

BGMS, M.P., a state level NGO, is a part of a national level voluntary organisation with branches in 14 States/Union Territories and a constituent unit of the international organisation – Associated Country Women of the World.

BGMS was set up in M.P. in 1961 with an aim of 'leadership development' among rural women. Currently, BGMS is working in the area of health, education, adult literacy, population and development and skill development among women and girls. State Resource Centre for Adult Education is a unit of BGMS responsible for providing technical resource support to adult literacy programme in 24 districts of M.P.

Programmes for adolescents are being implemented by the organisation since 1993. The programme is titled 'Better Life Options Programme for Girls and Young

Women' and receives financial and technical support from Centre for Development and Population Activities (CEDPA), an international NGO based at Washington DC, USA with its country office in New Delhi.

The 'Better Life Options' Approach

BLO is grounded in a holistic approach that aims to broaden the life options of adolescents girls by meeting their development needs while also promoting social change through the education of parents, the family, the community, and decision makers at the local, national and international levels. The BLO approach is implemented with flexibility to enable partner NGOs to tailor it to the local context. The common themes that form BLO approach include:

- Non-formal Education (NFE) – literacy, post-literacy and linkages with formal education.

- Family Life Education (FLE)

- Vocational Skills Training (VST)

- Health education and services, including reproductive health (RH)

- Creation of public awareness and advocacy

Better Life Options Model
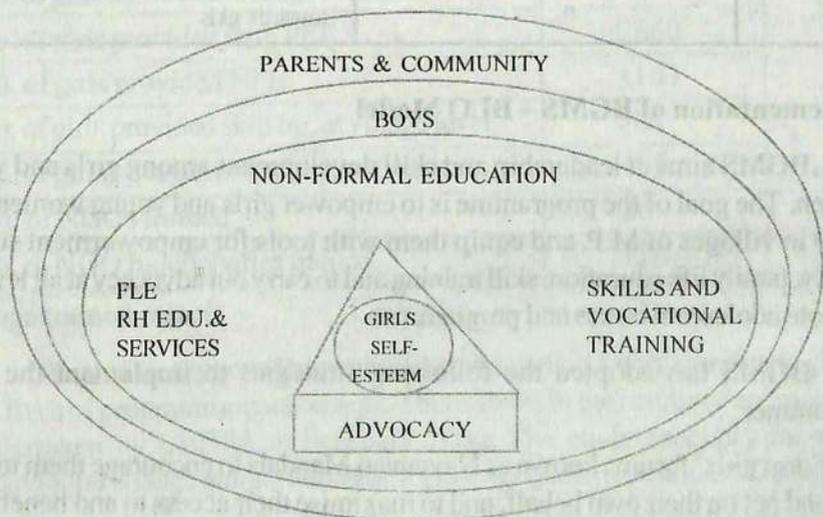
These strategies are all geared toward reaching the BLO programmes ultimate goal of building the self-esteem and self-confidence of adolescent girls, and

expanding their choices related to marriage, fertility, health, vocation and civic participation.

Expected Outcomes of the Programme

Audience	Processes	Projected outcomes
Adolescent girls	* Increase their knowledge of family life, health, reproductive health, gender and human rights * Provide vocational skills training * Promote literacy	* Increased self-esteem and self-confidence * Delay in marriage * Delay in first birth * Spacing of subsequent births * Employment * Active participation in family decision-making civic participation .
Community	* Awareness creation * Training * Coalition building * Seminars * Research and documentation * Media outreach * Policy advocacy	* Networks of trained youth professionals * Information on effective programmes for adolescent girls * Identification and support of group interested in implementing BLO projects * Strategic advocacy for positive social change and policies * Awareness of gender issues * Change in community attitude towards girls

Implementation of BGMS – BLO Model

BGMS aims at leadership and skill development among girls and young women. The goal of the programme is to empower girls and young women aged 12-20 in villages of M.P. and equip them with tools for empowerment such as literacy, family life education, skill training and to carry out advocacy at all levels to promote adolescent issues and programmes.

BGMS has adopted the following strategies to implement the BLO programme;

* Form girls' forums known as Navyuvati Mandals to encourage them to unite and act on their own behalf, and to maximise their access to and benefits for BLO.

* Identify local literate women from the project villages and train them as instructors.

- Train girls graduating from BLO courses as peer educators and use their skills and talents to sustain BLO by reaching other girls.

- Closely involve parents, families and communities in decisions related to BLO.

- Identify girls in other governmental bodies or NGOs, academic and other institutions to instruct them in FLE.

- Network with other NGOs to advocate adolescent girls' issues.

- Undertake capacity building for GOs and NGOs to promote programmes for adolescents.

Project related Achievements

Project Area

- 32 villages
- 2 slums
- 5 schools
- 3 residential institutions

Coverage

Total no. of girls covered	3600
No. of girls covered in village & slums	1520
No. of girls provided with FLE	2660
No. of girls provided NFE	1163
No. of girls provided skill trg. at village level	866
No. of girls covered under residential trg.	405
No. of NGOs trained	86
No. of NGO functionaries trained	126

Progarmme Impact

Better Life Options Programme has resulted in a very significant change in the lives of programme participants. This reflects in the results of an impact study undertaken by CEDPA in February 2000. The study specially focussed on behavioural change among adolescent girls who participated in BLO programme.

A comparative cross-sectional study design was selected to meet the objectives of this study. Two groups were taken for the study: the BLO group and the control group. The BLO group consisted of the BLO programme alumni (married

and unmarried) while the control group included girls/women (married and unmarried) who had not participated in the BLO programme, but were living in similar socio-economic environment. In both groups the age group of the girls was decided as 16-24 years, but as data on girls of 15 years and up to 26 years was collected, the age group analysed was 15-26 years.

A total sample of 600 was taken, of which 300 were from control group and 300 were from BLO group. Out of 300, as sample of 100 married girls and 200 unmarried girls taken in each of the two groups. Presented below are the major findings of the study:

- Level of educational attainment (secondary schooling, diploma/certificate) was higher in BLO. There was a significant reduction in school drop-out rate among BLO girls and six per cent were in Open School in BLO group.

- Economic empowerment is indicated by the fact that four times as many BLO girls were in business or self-employed compared to control girls. Significantly higher percentage of BLO girls had a say in how money earned is to be spent.

- BLO girls had a better role in decision making, their communication skills had improved and so also their mobility.

- More BLO girls than control girls performed traditional male dominated tasks, thus breaking the gender stereotypes.

- A significantly higher number of BLO girls were members of village level groups or clubs and had played varied leadership roles to organise various programmes/events.

- BLO girls were consuming protective foods more frequently than control girls such as pulses, milk products, vegetables, sprouted grains, fruits, and eggs, indicating an improvement in nutritional practices.

- Compared to just about half of control girls, almost all BLO girls were aware of AIDS.

RCH–related Impact of BLO

- Age at marriage had gone up on BLO group. Compared to seven per cent control group, 27 per cent had got married beyond the age of 18 in BLO group. Among others also, age at marriage had gone up from 13-14 years to 16-17 years.

- More than twice as many BLO group of married girls compared to control

group had discussed family planning recently primarily with husband (a few talked to friends). The probability of BLO girls discussing family planning with their husbands was 55 per cent higher as compared to control group.

- Use of contraceptives was particularly more likely in BLO than control group (53 per cent higher probability) including that delaying the first pregnancy after marriage is a more likely practice in BLO participants. Child spacing methods were also more commonly reported in BLO.

- In contrast to the control group where various responses regarding Dr. Shah were given by less than one-fourth girls, in the BLO group above 80 per cent girls stated that they received ANC and its various services.

- About twice as many BLO girls delivered at a hospital compared to control group girls, the differences being highly significant.

- Mean number of children born per subject in control group was higher (1.98) than the number born to BLO (1.73). More importantly, child deaths were higher in control group, 40 per cent higher probability of child death in control girls as compared to BLO girls was indicated.

Lessons Learnt

- Direct involvement of young people in every stage of the programming is crucial to ensure relevance, acceptability and effectiveness. Community participation and ownership are equally crucial for acceptability and sustainability of the programmes and for changing social norms.

- By providing adolescents with access to literacy, self-development and skill building as well as economic opportunities, a foundation is laid for their overall empowerment.

- Involvement of boys is essential to improve gender relations and contribute to gender equity. By raising awareness of boys and men, spaces are created for girls and women to exercise their voices, make decisions and have access to opportunities.

- Forming network and linkages is but one step in the process of upscaling and expanding activities. Capacity building of staff and focus and replication of the process are equally important.

Future Direction

The population policy recently adopted by M.P. has included introduction of adolescent education and Family Life Education as a key component of the policy. To give the programme a multiplier effect, BGMS now aims to establish itself as a

resource centre tor promoting youth development initiatives. The present thrust areas include capacity building, networking, advocacy, research and documentation and creating a reliable data base on situation of adolescents in the state. The organisation is currently training the master trainers and animators of five IPD districts in M.P., so that they can implement similar programmes among the adolescent girls .n these districts.

It is hoped that in the next five years, adolescent component will be institutionalised into the programmes run by GOs and NGOs incorporating adolescent sexual and reproductive health components into their ongoing programmes. Upscaling programmes and reaching out to larger population of unreached adolescents is the major challenge ahead before us. These can be done by adopting the strategy to create comprehensive programmes and expand coverage through linkages, collaboration with existing infrastructures and ongoing interventions that address different needs.

POST-LITERACY PROGRAMME OF AURANGABAD DISTRICT, MAHARASHTRA

Umesh C. Sahoo

Literacy is an important tool for intellectual and moral development of an individual. It is a medium of empowerment to marginalised groups like women, backward classes, Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other poor classes. As such literacy has been professed as a major component of human resource development. Since independence, the Government of India, like many other developing countries of the world has committed under its "Directive Principles of State Policy" to universalise basic education, especially on the front of 'literacy', for individual and social development of the people and as such for and national development. Against this backdrop, the National Literacy Mission (NLM) began in 1988. Under the banner of NLM, the Total Literacy Campaigns (TLCs) and subsequently Post-literacy Programme (PLP) launched mass literacy programme containing functional literacy, skill development, vocational training, etc. with a view to upgrade the quality of life of the people. To accomplish this gigantic task, *Zilla Saksharata Samitis* (ZSS) and other agencies were involved. Over the years, several interesting programmes have been conducted in various districts of India, of which the results have, however, not been uniform. Situation differs in different districts and some of the weaknesses of the earlier programmes have lingered in the literacy programmes of today.

The present study examines the PLP operation of *Zilla Saksharata Abhiyan Samiti* (ZSAS) of Aurangabad district, Maharashtra state. The focus is primarily on retention and spread of three R's (i.e. reading, writing and numeracy) among the neo-literates and their upgradation in terms of development and vocational training.

Aurangabad District and PLP

The district of Aurangabad is centrally located in the State of Maharashtra. The district occupies 21st rank in the literacy map of Maharashtra State. The literacy rate in the district is 57 per cent, which is lower than the state average (64.67 per cent). The female literacy rate is lower (39.6 per cent) than male (72.9 per cent). The literacy rate in urban areas is more (75.4 per cent) than in rural areas (47.8 per cent). The TLC followed by PLP were implemented through ZSAS. After years of adult education under TLC and PLP, the status of neo-literates in the district at present are as follows:

	Total	Male	Female	SC	ST	General
No. of Neo-literates	2,82,586	94,603	1,87,983	46,649	24,078	2,11,85

Objects and Methodology

The Post-literacy Programme study was sponsored by the ZSAS, Aurangabad. The objectives of the study were: i) to review the managerial and organisational aspects of the programmes from the point of view of realisation of goal and sustainability of the programme; ii) to measure the outcome of literacy campaign among the learners with respect to prescribed levels of literacy competencies as per the NLM norms; iii) to examine the impact of the literacy and vocational training programme on the quality of life of neo-literates and other target population.

Approximately 6,500 neo-literates including SC, ST and General categories – males and females - were selected on random sampling basis from eight blocks, six municipal towns, 715 Gram Panchayats and 1261 villages of the district. Pluralistic methods like semi-structured interview schedule, group discussion, informal conversation, participatory rural appraisal (PRA) and observation were adopted to elicit information.

PLP operation

PLP had a good beginning under the guidance of honorary chairman Shri Govindbhai Shroff and President of ZSAS. A calendar of events was prepared. This was followed by distribution of responsibilities on activities of training, functional literacy, continuing education, supply of teaching-learning materials, formation of Mahila Mandals etc. An academic committee comprising of educationists, resource persons from State Council of Educational Research and Training (SCERT) and agricultural scientists contributed to the literature of learning materials on the areas of three R's, agriculture, animal husbandry, dairy development, food processing and Indian mythology with a view to augment the knowledge of neo-literates. The management information system (MIS) was introduced for collecting and analysing information.

The programme functionaries at district, block, panchayat and village levels played pivotal role in the PLP operation. Training of key resource persons, other resource persons, master trainers and volunteers was crucially placed, since the

latter were responsible for from making the learners understand the meaning and importance of literacy to the teaching-learning process, skill development, operationalisation of the whole programme, creation of awareness and organisational management. Visualising constraint to reach the training clientele within shortest possible time, a three-tier structure was created in the Aurangabad district which was comprised of at the upper level an academic group drawn from State Resource Centre, (SRC) Krishi Vigyan Kendra, Marathwada Ambedkar University and Shramik Vidyapeeth. Village Education Committee was instituted to initiate people's involvement, obtain local cooperation and motivate neo-literates for the programme. Teaching-learning centres opened on the directives of cluster head on the basis of availability of local volunteers and space and convenience of learners.

Overall, the PLP operation was very encouraging in the initial phase. However, the programme suffered from the transfer of district Collector and other key functionaries. It became difficult to sustain the programme which was originally designated as people's movement. An important casualty was the project of mini-libraries in the villages aiming at generation and substenance of interest of in new knowledge. Vocational training programme, a vital aspect of PLP found inadequate attention because of the lack of full-time trainer. The employed part-timers did not do full justice since they had other priorities. Such a massive and time-bound programme was running without any full-time functionary. The implementation of the PLP was overall adversely affected.

The Learners' Literary Achievement

The learners' level of acquiring the skills of three R's – reading, writing and numeracy are affected by a host of factors such the type of environment prevailing in the district concerned, nature of social mobilisation, execution of the plan, the quality of both training the personnel and the training itself, the quality of teaching-learning materials in terms of production and supply and the timings of the monitoring system.

The assessment of target learners of the present study, revealed that 23.7 per cent became fully literate as per the NLM norms in the district. An other important finding was that in all the three categories, i.e., SC, ST and General, females achieved NLM norms significantly (44.73 per cent). This picture was invariably common in all blocks of the district. It showed that women learners were more amenable towards PLP than men. Women learners comparatively maintained better reading habits going through religious and story books and utilised their skills better than men learners.

Impact of PLP

It is different to assess the impact of PLP because a number of socio-psychological attributes are involved in it. This study primarily focused on individual's awareness and his functionality related to improvement in the standard of living, acquisition of skills and maintenance of health and hygiene. In general, it appeared that learners were somewhat realistic in assessing some of the irrational traditional practices. Many of them were not in favour of dowry system, a social evil related to marriage. Some of them were aware of a few ongoing government development projects in their respective areas.

Many of them were now able to put signature in place of thumb impression while fetching rice, sugar and other commodities from the ration shop. Some of them were also found to be capable of protesting against the cheating practices of the shop owners; they were confident enough to express their grievances to the government authorities on the problems of water, electricity etc. Many of them raised their voice against moneylenders, forest contractors, control dealers and so on, who indulged in unscrupulous deeds. Most of them have benefited from the training programme on horticulture and agriculture; they have now enhanced knowledge on preparation of compost pit, papaya plantation, kitchen garden, use of inorganic fertiliser and soil testing for suitability of crops. They also acquired knowledge on livestock and diary development and actually made use of these to raise the family income.

PLP had more impact on female than male learners. It helped the female members of the community in getting rid of many misconceptions. Further, women were now more conscious of cleanliness of their surroundings, value of educating their children, specially girl children, adopting small family norms, harmful impact of liquor, use of smokeless *chullah* etc. Many female neo-litertes became empowered to be member of Gram Panchayats Mahila Mandals and other village level developmental institutions. Among them, Shahezadi Begum, an elected Sarpanch of village Kaizipur in Khultabad Block was an exemplary reference.

Besides, many women neo-literates, especially those who were members of Mahila Mandals, adopted new production activities, such as preparing soyabean oil, jam and jelly, pickle, toys and so on and were involved in marketing those products. These successful stories are, however, not so widespread; they are still a milestone to bring about social change through such development-oriented programmes.

In addition to the neo-literates, the PLP left an impact on the project functionaries. It could be gathered from discussion with the functionaries of various

levels – District and Block level officers, Gram Panchayat and village level coordinators and volunteers; they developed managerial capacity in various activities of the PLP. The programme helped them in improving their communication skills and abilities. This was because they had to interact frequently at various levels as integral part of their activities. Further, the programme increased their self-confidence and developed leadership quality in them. On deeper scrutiny it was, however, found that the impact was less on the volunteers compared to other functionaries. It was probably because of frequent change of the incumbents, which limited their scope of interaction.

The PLP enabled the community members to improve their understanding of health care, education, environment and politics. As a positive sign, in some pockets of operational areas, the neo-literates' enrolment and attendance in the programmes of the post-literacy centres increased. People have started taking active interest in the working of Panchayati Raj institutions. Women are now coming forward in large number to lead the community on various matters. The operation of the programme helped in narrowing the gap between the community members and local administration, they also broke many traditional social barriers related to caste, community, sect and sex.

On the whole, the impact of the programme is noteworthy in connection with development and process of social transformation. Its momentum as people's movement is belied at the moment because of lofty expectation of common masses. Nevertheless, the programme has contributed significantly to the awareness building and skill development among the learners and organisational capacity of functionaries, which in no way is a mean achievement.

Conclusion

The post-literacy programme was implemented with least constraints in Aurangabad District; yet, the outcomes have far-reaching implications for PLP elsewhere. The organisers and resource persons involved in the programme were dismayed that the programme did not pick up to their expectation for reasons over which they did not have control. But the hurdles were ultimately overcome by the spirit and enthusiasm of the people. There are a number of instances, which indicate that the strength and potential of the PLP in Aurangabad have not been properly utilised. Coordination of NGOs and academic institutions could not be worked out, which weakened the programme in several ways. In fact, PLP needs to have a committed group of local people to lead the programme. Moreover, if there is constant follow-up action and adequate supply of vocational literature and marketing facilities of the neo-learners' products, the learners are bound to be a force in national reconstruction.

RETENTION OF LITERACY BY ADULT LEARNERS IN NELLORE DISTRICT, ANDHRA PRADESH

B.S. Vasudeva Rao

The Total Literacy Campaign (TLC) of Nellore district was named as "*Akshara Deepam*" and was organised during the months of April to October 1991. The *Zilla Saksharathe Samthi* (ZSS), Nellore prepared reading, writing and arithmetic tests in consultation with Andhra University and Sri Venkataswara University as part of internal evaluation. In the process of implementation of the campaign, they conducted then literacy achievement tests. The learners' performance on the third, sixth, ninth, tenth tests was taken into consideration to declare the literacy achievement score and the learners securing an average of fifty or more on these tests were declared literates. The external evaluation of the TLC of the Nellore district was entrusted to Andhra University and was conducted during the month of September 1995.

Nellore district has 46 mandals and these can be categorised into three revenue divisions, namely, Nellore, Kavali and Gudur. In internal evaluation, all the mandals were selected. These are: Kavali and Bogolu from Kavali division, Indukuripeta and Muthukur from Nellore division and Venkatagiri and Tada from Gudur revenue division. For the purpose of the study regarding retention, of literacy, the same six mandals were taken from internal evaluation for compromise.

The objectives of the present paper are:

1) To compare mandal-wise retention of literacy achievement.
2) To know the rate of retention among four categories of literacy achievement in respect of male and female learners.
3) To know the role of retention among four categories of literacy achievement in respect to learners belonging to different mandals.

The learners' questionnaire contained biographical information and literacy performance tests, i.e. reading, writing, and arithmetic. The methodology and approach of the study was given in detail in the text of the paper.

Literacy Achievement of Selected Mandals

The literacy achievement percentage of all the mandals in Nellore district as per the internal assessment is provided in Table No. 1. It can be observed from the table that among the six mandals covered in the present evaluation study, Tada has the highest literacy achievement percentage (64.7). This is followed by Muthukur (46.7 per cent), Bogolu (41.6 per cent), Kavali (39.2 per cent), Indukuripeta (35.50 per cent) and lastly Venkatagiri (26.7 per cent).

Table No. 1
Mandal-wise Details of Literacy Achievement

Mandal	Percentage	Mandal	Percentage
Nellore	70.0	Bogulu	41.6
Tada	64.7	Varikuntapadu	41.5
Kovur	63.0	T.P.Gudur	41.1
Buchireddypalem	60.9	Duttalur	40.5
Sangam	58.2	Balayapalli	40.0
Alluru	57.5	Ogili	39.3
Manubolu	56.2	Kavali	39.2
Sydapuram	53.0	Kaligiri	38.5
Sururpet	52.3	Naidupet	38.0
A.S. Pet	51.8	D.V.Sathram	37.8
Dagadarti	50.8	Vinjamur	36.9
Jaladanki	50.0	Marripadu	35.7
Kodavaluru	49.1	Indukuripeta	35.5
Chillakur	48.2	Kaluvai	35.1
Muthukur	46.7	Pollakur	34.4
Rapur	46.1	S.R.Puram	33.7
Udayagiri	45.2	Podalakuru	33.6
Atmakur	44.5	Kondapuram	33.4
Chejerla	44.5	Ananthasagaram	33.1
Gudur	44.1	Vakadu	30.3
Venkatachalam	43.2	Vidavalur	28.9
Kata	43.0	Dakkili	27.7
Chittamur	42.4	Venkatagiri	26.

Mandal-wise Comparison

The literacy achievement percentages of the samples of learners (a score of 50 or more was taken as the criterion for considering a learner as having achieved literacy) from the six mandals are presented in Table No. 2. The table provides information regarding the literacy achievement as per the internal and external evaluation.

Table – 2
Mandal–wise Comparison of Literacy Achievement

	Internal	External
All Mandals	1165 (99.58)	1115 (95.30)
Bogolu	208 (99.53)	205 (97.61)
Kavali	178 (100.00)	162 (91.01)
Indukur	206 (99.53)	200 (96.62)
Muthukur	187 (99.53)	180 (95.74)
Tada	215 (99.23)	202 (93.52)
Venkatagiri	171 (99.53)	167 (97.09

Note: Percentages are given in parantheses

It can be observed from the table that while 99.58 per cent of the sample of 1170 learners have achieved literacy as per the internal evaluation, only 95.3 per cent have achieved literacy on the basis of external evaluation. The table also indicates that all the learners selected from Kavali have achieved literacy as per the internal evaluation. In all the remaining mandals, 99.53 per cent of the sample of learners have achieved literacy. When the external evaluation is considered, Bogolu mandal comes first with 97.61 per cent achievement, followed by Venkatagiri (97.09 per cent), Indukuripeta (96.62 per cent), Muthukur (95.74 per cent), Tada (93.52 per cent) and Kavali mandals (91.01 per cent). These values indicate a decline in literacy achievement from 1992 to 1995. This is discussed in detail in the subsequent paragraphs.

Retention of Literacy

The learners' retention of literacy performance was assessed taking into consideration only the total score on reading, writing and arithmetic tests, regardless of whether the learners have passed or not the individual tests. This procedure was adopted since the ZSS had estimated the literacy achievement percentage on the basis of the total score only.

The retention of literacy performance was examined in the following manner. Firstly, the internal evaluation marks (average total score on the ninth and tenth tests conducted by the ZSS) were obtained for all the 1170 learners covered in this study. Secondly, the external evaluation marks (only the total score of the reading, writing and arithmetic tests conducted by the evaluation team) of all the learners were also taken into account. Thirdly, the learners were categorised into four groups on the basis of their scores in the internal and external evaluations. The four groups consisted of learners scoring less than 50 in both the evaluations, between 50 and 60, between 60 and 70 and more than 70 on the internal and external evaluations. The results regarding the individual mandals as well as all the mandals are provided in table no. 3.

Table No. 3
Sex-wise Comparison of Performance in Evaluations

Percentage		Male	Internal female	Total	Male	External female	Total
Below-50	n%	20.44	30.42	50.43	211.66	344.73	554.70
50-59	n%	163.33	162.22	312.66	408.87	669.18	1069.06
60-69	n%	6414.19	8611.96	15012.83	6414.19	13418.64	19816.92
70+	n%	37082.04	61485.39	97483.25	32672.28	48567.45	81169.3

It can be observed from the table that the maximum percentage of learners have obtained a score 70 or more in both the evaluations (more than 84 per cent in internal and more than 69 per cent in external evaluations). This finding is very encouraging. Secondly, the percentage of learners obtaining a score of 70 or more is less in the case of external evaluation, with a difference of nearly 15 per cent. In other words, significantly higher percentage of learners was declared literate as per the internal evaluation as compared to the external evaluation.

The finding could be due to two reasons. Firstly, the internal evaluation score

is an average of two tests, while the external evaluation is based on only one test. Secondly, it is possible that some amount of loss of literacy skills had taken place in the gap of nearly four years.

Retention of Literacy: Sex and Mandal Profile

A sex-wise comparison of retention of literacy performance indicates that lower percentage of both male and female learners have scored more than 70 in the   A sex-wise comparison of retention of literacy performance indicates that lower percentage of both male and female learners have scored more than 70 in the external evaluation as compared to the internal evaluation (see Table No. 3). This result is in line with the result regarding the total sample of learners. Further, the percentage of male learners securing a score of 70 plus is more than that of female learners in the case of external evaluation. On the other hand, the percentage of female learners securing this score is more than that of the male learners in the case of internal evaluation. In other words, while more male learners, have obtained scores, more than 70 in external evaluation, females have the edge over males in the internal evaluation. Finally, the loss in retention of literacy performance is more in the case of female learners (18 per cent) when compared to male learners (10 per cent).

A mandal-wise comparison indicates a similar loss in retention of literacy performance i.e., less percentage of learners from each of the six mandals have obtained scores of more than 70 in the external evaluation (see Table No. 4). The difference is maximum (52 per cent) in the case of the Kavali mandal, with only 39.24 per cent of the sample of learners securing a score of 70 plus in the external evaluation as compared to 91.01 per cent in the internal evaluation. The loss in retention of literacy performance is least, i.e. four per cent, in the case of Bogolu mandal. In the remaining mandals, the difference in percentage is as follows: Indukuripeta (18 per cent), Tada (7 per cent), Venkatagiri (7 per cent) and Muthukur (5 per cent).

The results regarding retention of literacy performance can be summarised by stating that

1)   Overall, there is loss in retention of literacy performance in the total sample of learners, as well as in those from the different mandals and the male and female learners.

2)   The loss in retention is more in female learners as compared to the male learners.

3)   The loss of retention is maximum in the case of learners from Kavali mandal and least in the case of learners from Bogolu mandal.

Table No. 4
Mandal-wise Performance in Evaluations

Mndl		Below 50	50-59	60-69	70+
Bogolu	Internal	1 (0.47)	2 (0.95)	19 (9.09)	187 (89.47)
	External	5 (2.39)	2 (0.95)	24 (11.48)	178 (85.17)
Kavali	Internal	0 (0.00)	3 (1.68)	13 (7.30)	162 (91.01)
	External	16 (8.99)	38 (21.35)	54 (30.34)	70 (39.24)
Indukurpeta	Internal	1 (0.48)	5 (2.41)	14 (6.76)	187 (90.33)
	External	7 (3.38)	13 (6.28)	36 (17.39)	151 (72.74)
Mthkur	Internal	1 (0.53)	8 (4.26)	36 (19.15)	143 (76.06)
	External	8 (4.26)	22 (11.70)	23 (12.23)	135 (71.80)
Tach	Internal	1 (0.46)	8 (3.70)	53 (24.54)	154 (71.30)
	External	14 (6.48)	19 (8.80)	44 (20.37)	139 (64.35)
Venkatagiri	Internal	1 (0.58)	5 (2.91)	15 (8.72)	151 (87.79)
	External	5 (2.91)	12 (6.98)	17 (9.88)	138 (80.23)

In general, learners in their daily life were acquainted with reading skills like reading newspapers, boards, cinema titles and so on. In daily transactions also they are habituated to memorise arithmetic skills, while purchasing items of daily need and in travelling and collecting their daily wage earnings. In any case, they have not much need and use of writing skills. It is observed in the evaluation study of Nellore district, that loss is more likely in the case of writing skills; significantly lesser percentage of learners, regardless of biographical background have passed the writing test as compared to reading and arithmetic tests. Hence, to sustain retention

rate appropriate steps should be taken towards reading, arithmetic and particularly in writing skill in the post-literacy and continuing education programme.

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POST-LITERACY AND CONTINUING EDUCATION MATERIALS IN CHITTOR DISTRICT, ANDHRA PRADESH

T. Kumaraswamy
G. Eswaraiah

Post-literacy and continuing education materials have major role to play in preventing the neo-literates from relapsing into illiteracy and in improving their knowledge, skills and standard of living. The objectives of establishing a learning society, which is a knowledge-based and economically stable, have a major bearing in the post-literacy and continuing education programmes and reading materials. Though the materials are basically designed for the benefit of neo-literates, yet they are utilised by a wider range of community like school drop-outs, pass-outs of formal and non-formal educational system and those who wish to continue their education.

The Guidelines of 1995

In 1995 the National Literacy Mission formulated guidelines for preparation, production and distribution of books for the neo-literates. According to those guidelines:

1) The materials for neo-literates should facilitate smooth and phased development of general educational competencies in terms of reading, writing, numeracy and mental skills.

2) Reading materials should be sound, attractively produced and interesting, so as to promote development of a reading haibt.

3) The content areas of books should offer a wide range of choice to the neo-literates. The content areas may comprise of (a) recreational topics/fiction, (b) social and development issues, (c) civics and values (d) culture, and, (e) work related knowledge and skills.

4) Improvement of economic conditions of the neo-literates should be an important objective in the development of reading materials.

5) Reading materials should make the neo-literates enjoy learning more and hence these should contain elements of entertainment. Content providing mere information and knowledge tends to be drab and devoid of any interest to the neo-literates. Fiction, plays, light humour and folklore should form a good part of the content. Simultaneously, these materials must also help the neo-literates develop scientific temper.

6) The materials should help imbibe the values of national integration, conservation

of the environment, women's equality, observance of small family norm etc.
7) The language should be simple and should suit the learner's comprehension level. The letter size may vary from 16 to 24 points light.

Further, the content of the reading materials has to correspond to the needs and academic level of the learner. The material must be carefully prepared employing words, phrases and idioms from the user's dialect and complex sentence structures have to be avoided as far as possible to sustain the learners' interest. Obviously, the reading materials for neo-literates have to be used on their culture, environment, myths and beliefs, nature of agriculture and other vocations, diseases, difficulties of the people and their socio-economic life. They should be able to arouse interest in reading and increase their awareness about the world outside. The size and get-up of the book, should be appealing to the neo-literates and the books should be within their reach.

Perception of the Neo-literates

Studies conducted by Ahmad (1957, 1958, 1984), Pati (1985), Shanker (1982), Krishnan (1997), Das Gupta (1990), Farooq (1990), Lakshmi Reddy and Krishna Mohan (1993), Venkatappaiah (1993), Directorate of Adult Education (1998), Viswanath Gupta and Janardhan Reddy (2000), Janardan Reddy and Sivashanker Reddy (2002) throw light on different aspects of neo-literates literature. The study below is an attempt to understand the perception of the neo-literates themselves about the neo-literate literature provided for at the continuing education centres.

The following were the objectives of the study:

1. To know the perception of the *preraks* on various aspects of neo-literate literature – their coverage, relevance, get-up, mode of supply, adequacy and utility.
2. To identify areas on which additional material is required for the neo-literates based on the perceptions.
3. To study the differences in the perception of the *preraks* on various aspects of neo-literate literature.
4. To suggest remedial measures.

The Case of Chittoor District

Chittoor district was selected for the purpose of the study since it happened to be one of the successful districts in implementing the literacy, post-literacy and continuing education phases. The district consists of three revenue divisions, namely,

Tirupati, Chittoor and Madanapalli. There are as many as 1143 continuing education centres spread over the three revenue divisions. Out of the three revenue divisions, Madanapalli division is the biggest one consisting of more than half of the continuing education centres. For the purpose of the study, Madanapalli division was selected keeping in view the spread of centres. A check-list was developed for the purpose of the study. Since a good majority of the *preraks* working in the centres happened to be male *preraks*, only male *preraks* were considered for the study. For the purpose of the study a sample of 210 *preraks* organising continuing education centres were randomly selected. Data was collected from the sample by meeting them personally. The help of the Mandal Literacy Organisers was sought while preparing the check list and in collecting the data from the *preraks*. Percentages and critical ratios were used while analysing the data.

The Findings

1.   The personal characteristics of the sample revealed that abut 57.14 per cent of sample were possessing more than three years of experience as *preraks*, whereas the remaining 42.86 per cent of the *preraks* were possessing less than three years of experience as *preraks*.

2.   As revealed in table no. 1 a good majority of the *preraks* constituting more than 50 per cent were satisfied with the neo-literate literature provided to continuing education centres (including the material developed by the State Resource Centre, Hyderabad and material developed by the Zilla Saksharatha Samithi, Chittoor) on the content areas namely, democracy, education, issues related to children, health and family welfare, animal husbandry, culture, human values, and women issues.

3.   The content areas with which at least half of the samples are not satisfied include agriculture, social evils, environment, dreadful diseases, scientific temper, entertainment and local issues.

4.   The National Literacy Mission has chalked out specific programmes to be organised by the continuing education centre viz., equivalence programmes, income generating programmes, individual interest promotion programmes, quality of life improvement programmes and post-literacy programmes. In addition to those programmes, continuing education centres are expected to serve as centres for developmental programmes and in orientation development. A good range of these programmes are implemented by the central and state government for the benefit of the poor and down-trodden sections. Further, there are as many as 40 to 45 government departments and agencies at the district level, who attended to matters related to agriculture, education, veterinary, small scale industries, forest, revenue etc.

The success of the continuing education centres to a great extent depended upon availability of materials on various programmes of the centres. Perception of the *preraks* on the availability of the materials reveals that enough materials were not available on these aspects. Further, there was dearth of specific materials to promote the writing and numeracy skills of the neo-literates.

5. The perceptions of the *preraks* reveal that a good majority of the sample constituting 94.28 per cent were satisfied with the relevance of the material supplied from the viewpoint of the neo-literates in particular and others in general.

6. As regards the perceptions of the *preraks* on the get-up of the materials, it can be observed from table no. 1 that more than half of the respondents were satisfied with the size of letters, captions and titles, method of writing (essay type, conversion, question and answer etc.), alignment of sentences, linguistics aspects, quality of paper, binding and general outlook.

7. It may be observed from the same table that more than half of the respondents were not satisfied with the size, colours, illustration/examples, figures, and ways of evaluation.

8. With regard to mode of supply of the materials, the majority of the respondents (more than 50 per cent) were satisfied. From the viewpoint of utility of the material, the general public and *preraks* of the sample were highly satisfied.

9. It is to be noted that more than half of the respondents were not satisfied with the reaching time of the materials of the centre, adequacy of their copies and their utility to the neo-literates, who happened to be the target beneficiaries of the continuing education centres.

10. The details as shown in table no. 2 reveal that out of 42 items, the *preraks*, with above three years of experience and the *preraks* with less than three years of experience, differed significantly on majority of the items i.e., 28 out of 42 (vide critical ratios). As far as the perception of the *preraks* with more than three years of experience are concerned a good majority of them (constituting more than 50 per cent of the sample) were satisfied with 21 items out of 42 items (1,2,4,5,6,8,9,13,18,24,25,28,29,30,33,34,35,37,41 and 42). When the perceptions of the *preraks* of the sample with less than three years of experience were taken into consideration the majority of them were satisfied with 24 items (Nos. 1-8, 10,12,14,21,24,-26, 28-30, 33-35, 37,41 and 42). While items Nos. 1,2,5,6,8,24,25,29,30, 33,34,35,37,41,42 were commonly checked by 50 per cent and above sample of both the groups, item nos. 8,13 and 18 specially checked by the

preraks with three years and above experience whereas item Nos. 3,7,10,12,14,21 and 26 are specifically checked by the *preraks* with less than 3 years of expe rience.

Suggestions from the Study

1.   The trend of the results indicates that majority of the *preraks* of the sample are satisfied with the various aspects with regard to majority of the content areas. The State Resource Centres, which are playing a leadership role in the development and supply of neo-literate literature have to be appreciated for carrying out the magnificent task. However, attention is required to content areas like agriculture, social evils, environment, dreadful diseases, scientific temper, entertainment and local issues. Though the continuing education centres are expected to organise income generating programmes, equivalency programmes, individual interest promotion programmes, income generating programmes and quality of life improvement programmes, yet there is dearth of specific material on these programmes. There is even limitation of materials with regard to improving the writing skills and numeracy skills. Hence immediate attention needs to paid to these aspects. A study of reading needs and interest on neo-literates need to be carried out. The materials developed should be field-tested from different angles. The materials should be updated from time to time to incorporate the latest issues.

2.   Get-up of the post-literacy and continuing education materials has a major role to play in motivating the neo-literates and others. The perceptions of the *preraks* of the study reveal that majority of them are not satisfied with aspects like number of pages, colours used, illustrations/examples and figures. Apart from preparing the best materials for continuing education centres from the viewpoint of neo-literates though workshops, the SRCs should concentrate on the above aspects while finalising the materials.

3.   The ultimate purpose of the production of materials is their utilisation by the beneficiaries. In the process the packing and supplying, mode of transportation, adequacy and utility have to be given proper attention. Apart from materials supplied by the SRCs, material relating to pot-literacy broadsheet, literature procured from the development departments and others is provided to the centres. The materials procured and produced should be supplied to the centres in time as and when required by the centres. It should be seen that the materials provided to the centres are well utilised by the general public and *preraks*. The neo-literates should be motivated to utilise the materials.

4.   The present study is an effort to know the perceptions of *preraks* on various

aspects of neo-literate literature. A broader study may be conducted covering more sample and by considering more variables. A study on perceptions of supervisors, neo-literates, and community members on neo-literate literature may also be taken up with a view to suggest better strategies.

(Table No. 1) The perceptions of *preraks* on various aspects of neo-literate literature (N=210)

S. No.	Area	No. of Preraks who are satisfied	Percentage
I. Content areas:			
1.	Democracy	112	53.33
2.	Education	151	71.90
3.	Agriculture	92	43.80
4.	Child related issues	146	69.52
5.	Health & family welfare	162	77.14
6.	Animal husbandry	117	55.71
7.	Social evils	82	39.04
8.	Culture	97	46.19
9.	Environment	97	46.19
10.	Human values	124	59.05
11.	Dreadful diseases	84	40.00
12.	Scientific temper	95	45.23
13.	Women's issues	126	60.00
14.	Entertainment	88	41.90
15.	Local issues	66	31.42
II. Programme Contents			
16.	Income generation	98	46.67
17.	Equivalency	81	38.57
18.	Individual interest promotion	92	43.80
19.	Quality of life improvement	91	43.33
20.	Development	96	45.71
III. Development of literacy skills			
21.	Reading	162	77.14
22.	Writing	74	35.23

23.	Numeracy	35	16.67
IV. 24. Relevance of material supplied		198	94.28
V. Get-up of materials			
25.	Size of letters	162	77.14
26.	No. of pages	90	42.86
27.	Colours used	62	29.52
28.	Captain & titles	146	69.52
29.	Method of writing	169	80.47
30.	Alignment of sentences	176	83.81
31.	Illustration/examples	59	28.09
32.	Figures	77	36.67
33.	Linguistic aspects	162	77.14
34.	Quality of paper	174	82.85
35.	Binding and general outlook	163	77.62
36.	Evaluation	84	40.00
VI. 37. Mode of Supply		167	79.52
VII. 38. Reaching time to centre		71	33.81
VIII. 39. Adequacy of copies		84	40.00
IX. Utility			
40.	Utility by neo-literates	97	46.19
41.	Utility by general public	176	83.80
42.	Utility by the *preraks*	189	90.00

Table No. 2

The perception of *preraks* on neo-literate literature based on experience (data relates to those, who are satisfied with the item)

S.No. of the item Ratio	*Preraks* with experience	Percentages		Critical
1 Above 3 years $N_1 = 120$ (2)		Below 3 years N_2=90 (3)		N_1(4)N_2 (5) (6)
1.	67	45	55.83	50.00	0.85
2.	92	59	79.66	65.55	2.32*
3.	42	50	35.00	55.55	3.00*
4.	97	49	80.83	54.44	4.16*

5.	107	55	89.16	61.11	4.84*
6.	67	50	55.83	55.55	0.04
7.	31	51	25.83	56.67	4.59*
8.	98	58	81.66	64.44	2.86*
9.	66	31	55.00	34.44	2.99*
10.	49	75	40.83	83.33	6.27*
11.	59	25	49.16	27.77	3.16*
12.	38	57	31.66	63.33	4.62*
13.	91	35	75.83	38.88	5.47*
14.	31	57	25.83	63.33	5.51*
15.	27	39	22.50	43.33	3.26*
16.	57	41	47.50	45.55	0.28
17.	41	40	34.16	44.44	1.93
18.	63	44	52.50	48.88	0.52
19.	55	36	45.83	40.00	0.85
20.	52	44	43.33	48.88	0.81
21.	51	49	42.50	54.44	1.73
22.	51	23	42.50	25.55	2.57*
23.	19	16	15.83	17.77	0.37
24.	116	82	96.67	91.11	1.74
25.	99	63	82.50	70.00	2.16*
26.	32	58	26.67	64.44	5.54*
27.	51	11	42.50	12.22	4.81*
28.	67	79	55.83	87.77	5.03*
29.	105	64	87.50	71.11	3.00*
30.	89	87	74.16	96.67	4.44*
31.	23	36	19.17	40.00	3.36*
32.	49	28	40.83	31.11	1.46*
33.	105	57	87.50	63.33	4.18*
34.	89	85	74.17	94.44	3.90*
35.	100	63	83.33	70.00	2.32*
36.	44	40	36.67	44.44	1.15
37.	112	55	93.33	61.11	5.79*
38.	38	33	31.67	36.67	0.76
39.	55	29	45.83	32.22	2.01*
40.	56	41	46.67	45.55	0.16
41.	91	85	75.83	94.44	3.67*
42.	118	71	98.33	78.88	4.71*

* t value of 1.96 is significant at 0.05 level.

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NOTES

ENVIRONMENT AWARENESS THROUGH ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMMES

Chhaya Nahar

One of the most glaring problems the world face today is the environmental pollution. Man has exploited nature excessively at the cost of the environment. There is an immediate need to make people aware about environmental degradation, pollution, ecological imbalance and its after effects. The message "Save our Planet" can effectively be given to the masses through adult education programmes. This would rejuvenate the curriculum and contents of adult education and make them more practical, useful and beneficial to the individuals and the nation as a whole. Day to day problems of environmental pollution need to be focussed upon and clear understanding of the need for clean environment, especially to the village folks should be explained. The strategy here should be: (a) detailed and practical user-oriented information, and (b) general information covering wide range of environmental issues.

While providing detailed information, it is important to identify the specific character of the audience. Audience of various categories or background should be dealt with differently. At the same time care should be taken that information is relevant, factual, concise and intelligible.

In the beginning, it is necessary that the people are sensitised to the problem of environmental hazards. The growth of population and increasing pressure on the natural resources—air, water and land—resulting in pollution, pose new challenge to the welfare of not only the present, but also the future generations.

The approach to implement the aforesaid programme should be through people's participation and method should be instructions and training programmes. The course content may vary from place to place according to regional needs. In drought-hit areas, the education about water management techniques is essential. Similarly, land degradation, deforestation and desertification may be due to problems of over-population, poor soils, use of marginal lands and fuel wood harvesting. Mismanagement of water may be because of poor soil conservation and badly planned irrigation schemes. Thus, environmental strategy should be able to identify basic knowledge on where, when, how and whom to contact for guidance in respect of environmental needs.

Necessary Steps of Environment Literary

Awareness

Knowledge

Attitude building for motivating to protect environment

Evaluation of environmental measures

Skill and capacity building

Resolution

Educating people for environment presupposes a policy for environmental training. This policy should be comprehensive covering a number of elements. These may include:

1) Identifying training objective.

2) Determining environmental training practices.

3) Matching training programmes to local demand for environmental knowledge and skills.

4) Determining the contents of training programmes.

5) Identifying the best modes and methods of training.

6) Selecting the target group of training.

7) Ensuring the financing of training activities.

   The aim of adult education programme should be to create an ethic through collective action. The new types of complex environmental problems require understanding and hence a new approach to adult education. New planning components should be considered and environmental protection programmes should be reshaped according to specific needs.

   Such plan should be:

1) relevant with regard to being able to fulfil established environmental objective.

2) operational with regard to cost effectiveness on a regional scale.

3) realistic with regard to feasibility.

   For general information, following may form the subject content for educating adults to become environmentally literate:

1) Plastic pouches after use should not be thrown on farmlands because these pollute the soil.

2) The water of wells, ponds and rivers should not be polluted by bathing animals or dumping garbage in them.

3) To keep the well water clean, potassium magnate or bleaching powder should be applied in the well once in a month.
4) Every house in the village should have a soak pit and water should not be allowed to spread in front of the houses.
5) The dead animals should be removed before the decomposing.
6) The flourmills and other small-scale industrial units should be established away from residential areas to avoid noise pollution.
7) Solar energy should be encouraged for light and cooking purposes.
8) Fertilisers be used in appropriate quantities to avoid its bad effects on the soil.
9) Tree plantation should be encouraged in and around villages.
10) Smoke inhaling through *bidi* or tobacco should be discouraged.
11) Water conservation techniques should be taught and cost could be shared by beneficiaries on equity sharing basis.
12) Bio-gas plant should be encouraged to minimise the use of wood fuel.
13) Embankments and fences around farms can be built so that stray animals do not enter farm lands.
14) Collective responsibility may be entrusted to people in case of the failure of well or other cooperative plans may be the collective responsibility of the people and failure, if any, should be dealt with accordingly.
15) Environmental issues may be linked with health explaining things like stagnant water breeds mosquitoes for malaria etc.
16) People should be encouraged to abandon unscientific beliefs.
17) Waste recycling should be organised.
18) Lessons for disaster management should be taught.
19) Environmental training should be multidisciplinary focusing on interaction between environmental phenomenon and human activity.

The participation of rural woman in all these programmes is very essential. She spends a great part of her life in arranging fuel, fodder and water for her family. She has to be rational in grazing the animals and actively involved in sustainable use of common resources. Thus, women's involvement in decision making, especially for natural resource management and development activities should constitute an essential case for building a solid framework for adult education programmes. This should be done under gender sensitisation training for natural resources.

For effective adult education, functionaries have to build rapport with the support organisations. They require to do the following:

1)   Build capacities in technical, social and institutional aspects of environmental management in villages.
2)   Reorient teachers and instructors with regard to natural resource management.

3)   Monitor the system and develop a system of feedback along with learning-based evaluation programmes.

4)   Find ways to sustain people's interest on environmental issues and identify systems for conveying knowledge and skill.

5)   Remove structural barriers – internal and external – for the execution of the programme.

6)   Harness the talent of community school teachers by environmental training.

7)   Equip trainers with scientific and technical knowledge.

8)   Garner the help of NGO's, community organisations, mass media, etc on environmental matters.

There is an urgent need to safeguard our environment to save the future generation. It requires understanding the immediate and real needs of developing countries by initiating a local process through adult education programmes. It may mean environmental progress promoting low-cost resources conservation, regeneration of village eco-system and stimulation of environmentally sound surroundings.

Particularly challenging in this direction is the task of training uneducated people, such as illiterate farmers, women and others in the informal sector. Job-based environmental training programmes that use community approach and simple and inexpensive training can change production practices making production more sustainable and at the same time raising incomes of the people and improving their quality of life. Environmental training can also promote better health and sanitary conditions. Finally, the objective of providing information about the environment is to empower people to take appropriate action. The programmes on environment education and training are important channels through which information can be disseminated.

CONSTRAINTS IN THE SUSTAINABILITY OF CONTINUING EDUCATION CENTRES IN INDIA

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Literacy is the basic for development. If here is no literacy, development programmes will not be successful. Realising this truth, the Government of India started the National Literacy Mission in 1988. Inspired by the success story of Ernakulam, hundreds of districts in the country started Total Literacy Campaigns (TLCs). Post-literacy programmes have also conducted. As a result of these programmes, several crores of people have become neo-literates in the country.

The neo-literates learn only simple reading and writing. They understand simple reading material and acquire preliminary skills. If left at this stage, they may forget what they have learnt and relapse into illiteracy. Hence, they need an opportunity to consolidate and apply the literacy skills to their actual living conditions.

Man responds to the changes in the society around him. He has been creating provisions and making laws necessary for the guarantee of human rights and welfare of the individuals. It is imperative that all the citizens of the modern society including neo-literates are aware of the changes and developments occurring around themselves and elsewhere in the world. They should also know their rights and responsibilities. They should further better their quality of life by making use of new knowledge and skills. They should become useful members of the society and responsible citizens of the country. When neo-literates move towards those, their learning becomes meaningful. To achieve this central goal, learning should become a habit of neo-literates forming part of their lives. For this they should get opportunities and encouragement for learning continuously, or in other words "continuing education".

Concept of Continuing Education

The need of continuing education has been realised in many literacy campaign programmes. It is in right earnest that the National Literacy Mission has decided to take up continuing education programmes. The neo-literates themselves have been desiring for continuing education. Continuing education itself is an indispensable aspect of strategy of human resource development, and of the goal of creation of a 'learning society'. Of late, the concept has gained new importance in the educational system.

Andhra Pradesh Effort

In Andhra Pradesh from among 140 lakhs of illiterates identified in the age group 15-35 years by March 1998, 70 lakhs have been made literates through TLC and PLC programmes. By the year 2001 the aim was to bring 261 lakhs of the people under the literacy programme. It was foreseen that all parents would became literates and school drop out rate would come down. To achieve the goal of "Education for All" all the educational functionaries in village like teachers, non-formal education instructors, and Adult Education Volunteers should work together.

TLC and PLC have activated and infused dynamism into millions of our illiterate adult population and made them realise the value of education. The beneficiaries have learnt the need for savings and have improved their occupational/professional skills. 'Continuing education' is necessary to keep up this tempo of development.

The Study and its Findings

To ascertain how continuing education centres (CECs) play a role in furthering the advantages of adult education under TLC and PLC, we conducted a study. We collected data from 100 learners of the continuing education centres and 25 *Preraks* in different villages of Nellore district. We prepared a questionnaire containing 23 items for collecting information from the sample. From the response of the sample, we have following findings:

1. 78 per cent of the people are able to read and write. 22 per cent of the respondents were not able to read and write even though they attended literacy classes. The latter were attending the CEC to enrich their knowledge on different aspects of life with the help of the other literates. In such situation it is the duty of the *Prerak* to help them to learn literacy skills. But through the interview of the illiterate learners it was found that the *Preraks* were not acting in this regard.

2. In 45 per cent of the CECs the learners reported that educational programmes were not being organised by the *Preraks* in their centres. They were however not able to say why the *Preraks* did not organise.

55 per cent of the respondents reported that they attended CEC regularly because the programmes conducted in those centres and the teaching materials were very useful to them. 45 per cent of the respondents reported that the programmes did not interest them. The situation underlined the duty of the *Prerak* to convince the learners and try to organise the programmes according to the learners taste.

The *Preraks* stated that the members of the villages were using the services of CEC without coming to centre. They were reading newspapers and magazines of CEC's at common places like 'Rachabanda' and homes, some times they did not even return those reading materials.

3. Majority of the *Preraks* were men, women *Preraks* were only few. There was a need to increase the number of women *Preraks* which would help in the increase of the number of female beneficiaries.

4. Majority of the *Preraks* were resigning their job and the new appointments had negative effect on the programme. Though one could not stop them from resigning, care should be taken at the time of selection so that *Preraks* continue for longer time.

5. In some villages, the location of the CEC was inaccessible; also there was no sufficient accommodation to undertake the activities.

6. The percentage of female learners was low compared to the male members. The female learners were also not active participants. Some of the reasons were: lack of cooperation from their husbands and other family members, and heavy work in their houses.

7. The *Preraks* were expected to discharge a number of functions: to conduct vocational training programmes, maintain the library, collect and disseminate information, maintain the registers. To discharge these functions effectively, the *Preraks* needed good educational qualification and training.

8. The *Preraks* were not satisfied with their honorarium and they did not receive the honorarium for two years. This made them try earning money through other jobs at the cost of their duty as *Prerak*.

9. Lack of awareness about the CEC's and its importance was found to be the main cause for the failure of CECs in some villages. People in some villages did not even know that there was a CEC in their village. It could be either due to their disinterest or lack of motivation or awareness.

Suggestions

1. Priority should be given for setting up of CEC's at the school buildings, so that it would be easy for the village people to know that there is a CEC in their village for enhancing their educational skills.

2. Programmes should be organised to promote wider use of library and books and need-based vocational training programmes.

3. The *Preraks* should be selected without any pressure from local leaders. Weightage should be given to the expertise, interest, commitment and educational qualification.

4. The *Preraks* or the educated persons in the village should be asked to motivate the males and elders of the family to send the females to the CECs.

BOOK REVIEWS

Sandhya Thaker, 'A Study of the Effects caused by water in Amreli District' Memiographed, Pp.1-37.

The study was conducted in Amreli District of Gujarat State to investigate the effects caused by the use of water which contains fluride. The objective of the study was to find the proportion of fluride in water and to identify the diseases caused by it and to survey the efforts if any made to remove fluride contents from water. The study was conducted in two Talukas of Amreli district, namely Lathi and Lillia. These areas were known to have fluride contaminated water. In all 23 villages (10 from Lathi and 13 from Lillia) were selected. The study was conducted mainly through interviews of the common citizens, teachers of elementarly schools, medical officers of the Taluka and the Taluka Development Officers of each Taluka, 7 medical officers, 115 teachers at the rate of five from each village and 575 common citizens at the rate of 25 from each village were randomly selected for interview.

The report is divided into six sections. The first five sections deal with objectives, research methodology, tools, sample and data collection. The sixth and the last section contains data analysis. Primary data contained in the report relates to age, caste, sex, education, occupation and income of the respondents. The respondents are adults above the age of 20 belonging to male (78 per cent) and female (22 per cent), SC (10.95 per cent), Baxi Panch (43.05 per cent) and other castes (46.1 per cent). Educational level of the respondents indicated that around 50 per cent of them were illiterate and another 40 per cent were educated upto primary level. Occupation, annual income, residential accommodation and family size of the respondents have also been studied. Data relating to size and type of land holdings, types of crops. Sources of irrigation, source of drinking water and problems related to it have also been studies. The study reveals that 97 per cent of the village people reported that all the people in the village experience the difficulty of getting drinking water throughout the year. The main difficulty is in summer season. Ladies mainly perform the duty of fetching the drinking water. Three-fourth of the respondents indicated that water had to be brought from a distance of about half a kilometer.

A high percentage of the respondents (72 per cent) indicated that they did not get adequate and proper water. Similarly 97 per cent of the respondents indicted that no steps were taken by Gram Panchayat or the Taluka Panchayat for cleanliness of water. Questions relating to effects of he available water on the health of the people were asked. A predominant majority of the respondents (90 per cent)

indicated that the water caused certain diseases. The respondents felt that it caused them several problems like digestion (25.6 per cent) headache (32.3 per cent), eye burning (24.7 per cent), breathing problem (14.26 per cent), burning inside body (21.5 per cent), dropping hair (52.0 per cent), stomach pain (47.6 per cent), joint pain at early age (65.5 per cent), bones becoming weak (78.0 per cent), teeth getting down (81.1 per cent), skin diseases (58.8 per cent), etc. The water is also not good for cooking food. Two-third of the respondents confirmed it. Types of difficulties in cooking food indicated were: (1) pulses were not cooked properly (99.1 per cent), (2) colour of the cooked food changed (83.1 per cent) (3) smell in cooked food (53.07 per cent) (4) cooked food became stale (61.5 per cent) etc. The effects of water on the health of the people were long lasting in about 60 per cent of the cases. Asthama (91.8 per cent) and intestine trouble (65.5 per cent) are the common diseases caused by water in these areas.

Responses of the *sarpanches, talatis,* primary school teachers and the village leaders indicated better position as compared to the responses of the common citizens with regard to availability of drinking water. They indicated that there was common water tap and hand pump for drinking water. Some of them (24 per cent) had water tap in their houses and some others (47.8 per cent) indicated that they used water from the bores. As far the effects of water on health, their responses are also alike. Water was heavy for digestive system (75 per cent) and caused stomach pain (36.5 per cent) back pain (87.1 per cent) hair dropping (78 per cent), skin disease (70 per cent) etc. They indicated that efforts were being made by Gram Panchayts and Taluka panchayats, volumtary agencies and village people to remove the difficulties of the people.

The medical officers and Taluka Development Officers also confirmed that impure water caused various diseases. Some suggestions to improve the situation were made by them to ensure safe drinking water supply for the villages in these areas.

The study has highlighted the problem of unsafe water being used by the people in Amreli district and has shown how they are suffering from several diseases. The study is purely based on the opinion of the different sections of the society. Extent of fluride in the water in different villages/areas has not been studied.

Premchand

Education Activities for Children – A Teacher's Guide, Prepared by New Era Development Institute, Panchgani, Maharashtra, 2002, pp. 317.

H.G. Wells has said; "Civilization is a race between education and catastrophe." Gandhi's disciple Pyarelal wrote: "The world today stands uneasily poised on the brink of catastrophe. Science has given man almost unlimited control over natural forces and resources. But it has not taught him to control himself." Today we see rampant violence affecting almost every aspect of our life. If democracy and secularism have to survive and if science has to be utilised for stable society, we have to work vigorously to build mankind. Universally, education is seen as an instrument to make a better world, since it is hoped that education would produce a new person. With this in view, the 93rd Amendment to our Constitution has recognised elementary education as a fundamental right of each and every citizen of India.

The present system of education cannot contribute much to the development of the individual and society. Value-oriented education does not mean preaching or teaching mere moral sciences or propagating particular religious tenets in the form of general education. On the contrary, it is imparting knowledge of values, which is considered the foundation of both individual and society. Truth, righteous conduct, peace, love and non-violence are the universal values that should form the core of the value-based educational programme. This requires changes in primary education. Gandhi wrote "I am a firm believer in the principle of free and compulsory primary education for India." While saying that, Gandhi believed that education without character building was no education at all. He considered strong character of the individual as the basis of a good citizen.

The book under review addresses some of the issues raised above theoretically and practically. It is a good guide for teachers as well as parents. It has 160 peace education activities for children aged four years and above. The activities included in the book are classified into four sections: (1) friendship activities, (2) value activities, (3) peacemaker activities and (4) world peace activities.

The special feature of the guide is the involvement of students in the total learning process through the use of stories, pictures and dimonstations. The suggested type of method and technique directly touches the head, heart and hands of the tender students. They imbibe the right values because in various cases the teacher not only tells or demonstrates, to the student, but also inspires them. The teacher has to become a role model. The guide teaches the teacher to become a manager

of human affairs. This is possible by not simply asking students to do what he (teacher) cannot do himself, but by putting that into practices.

I have tested this material on my grandson Vaibhav Gangrade. He is about eight years old studying in the third standard at the Apeejay School. He was able to receive the messages contained in different sections of the book. He very much appreciated the pictures. By looking at the faces of pictures, he could read the mood and the messages they convey. He was able to easily identify the symbols of peace, unity and cooperation and was able to grasp the intent of the quotations given in the book.

While promoting curiosity and questioning mind in the children, the book is left with certain problems. In a world charged with religious animosities and frenzy, how should the teacher cope with children's questions on the philosophy and values of different religions? And how are we to ensure that a teacher will talk about faiths other than his or her own with sensitivity and reverence? We should remember that no pedagogic activity is ever devoid of values. But pedagogy does not take place in isolation from the child's ethos.

Another limitation of the book is that it has not taken into consideration the home atmosphere. Many children come from broken homes, or situations were there is little parental supervision. It is no longer that only boys are turning out to be anti-socials. There are many girls as well. Moreover, it is no longer a mainly urban phenomenon. Similar tendencies are found in rural areas. The Indian educationsts and teachers have to filter and modify the methods and techniques given in the book to suit the specific conditions. India must take advantage of the fast growing knowledge system and children, the biggest resource of the country should be shaped by a sound education suggested in the book.

K.D. Gangrade

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The Indian Adult Education founded in 1939, aims at improving the quality of life through education visualized as a continuous and lifelong process. It directs its efforts towards accelerating adult education as a process a programme and a movement.

The Association co-ordinates activities of various agencies -- Governmental and voluntary national and international -- engaged in similar pursuits. It organises conferences and seminars and undertakes surveys and research projects; it endeavours to update and sharpen the awareness of its members by bringing to them from all over the world expert views on and experiences in, adult education. In pursuit of the policy, the Association has instituted the *Nehru Literacy Award and Tagore Literacy Award* for outstanding contribution to the promotion of Adult Education and women's Literacy in the country respectively. It has also instituted the Dr. Zakir Husain Memorial Lecture, which is delivered every year by an educationist of eminence.

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The Association acts as the Indian arm of the International Council for Adult Education, International Federation of Workers Education Association and the Asian-South Pacific Bureau of Adult Education. It's membership is open to all individuals and institutions who believe in the aims and objectives of the Association.

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Indian Journal of Adult Education, first published as a monthly in 1939, is now brought out as a quarterly by the Indian Adult Education Association. The Journal has special interest in the theory and practice of Non-formal Education with special reference to the relationship between Adult Education and Development. Contributions on a wide range of themes within this broad framework are welcome. The *Journal* is particularly interested in current experiments in the field.

The average length of a manuscript should normally be between 1500 and 2000 words; in exceptional cases, longer articles can be accepted. Mimeographed, zeroxed or carbon copies of manuscripts will not be accepted. Manuscript should be typed in double space, on one side, with a 2" margin on A4 size paper. Footnotes and references should come at the end and not on every page. Authors are requested to submit one typed copy along with the floppy disc (MS Word).

All correspondence should be addressed to the Editor, *Indian Journal of Adult Education*, Indian Adult Education Association, 17-B, Indraprastha Estate, New Delhi - 110002, India.

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EDITORIAL

A basic feature of the British colonial system of education, which post-Independece India has largely inherited, was its being anti-people. It denied access to a vast majority of the common people because of its uneven development and skeleton structure. It was further indifferent and even hostile to local cultures and languages, which should have served as a useful base to promote a national system of education. Education, thus, imposed things alien upon the masses.

Yet, some among the masses were lured to join the colonial education for its certificate-for-job value and associated social status; they struggled hard to find a berth for themselves. While joining the system their aspirations were high. But hopes of many were soon shattered. They were rejected by the system and left in an educational cesspool of drop-outs.

The incidence of drop-out was an ultimate logical stage of stagnation of the students and the phenomenon was most rampant at the school level. Apart from low percentage of schoool enrolment, this has been the prime reason why literacy progressed in India at an abysmally slow rate. According to an estimate, it grew in fifty years between 1881 and 1931 from 3.5 per cent to 8.0 per cent only.

Till mid-1930s almost the only way to teach literacy to the people was the school education. And, the educationists of this period believed that not less than four years of continuous education at the initial stage could sustain literacy of the learner. But it was this very stage of school education that was notorious for heaviest drop-out. According to a government report of this period, as high as 74 per cent of enrolled boys and 87 per cent of enrolled girls failed to reach class IV. Thus, all except a measely figure of 25 per cent of total enrolled children relapsed into illiteracy.

This shows that the education system under British colonialism has been more a breeding ground of illiterates than an agency of empowerment. The problem has been endemic since the beginning of the system in the early nineteenth century. But surprisingly it was perceived as a grave national issue only in the pre-Independence years. Since then "literacy campaingns" and moves towards "universal compulsory primary education" culminating in the present *Sarva Siksha Abhiyan* has greatly mitigated the situation. In the last seventy years literacy has increased from 8.0 per cent in 1931 to 65.38 per cent in 2001.

The achievement of the last one decade following the launching of the National Literacy Mission has been particularly spectacular. This record , however,

should not be a reason for the nation to be complacent. India at present carries the dubious distinction of possessing the largest number of illiterates in the world. A prime reason here is deficient primary education, which fails to enroll all children of the school-going age and continues to reject many at the early stage of schooling. Another important factor is high rate of population growth. The country's planners have to find a remedy for these fundamental problems.

As far as the andrologists are concerned, the question is: will the traditional campaign method that we began in late 1930s finally cope with the situation? Side by side the traditional methods and approaches the country needs to explore other ways. In an interesting article in the present collection, we are introduced to how computers can be harnessed to teach literacy to the illiterate adult in a few weeks' time; the author however admits that it can teach only a small number of learners in one batch. There are other papers in this area, which suggest effective use of library system and so on.

Another major concern of adult education experts is how to sustain literacy achieved by a large number of learners either through a modicum of primary education or mainly through crash course called "literacy campaigns". One hopes that the problem of rampant drop-out seen in the primary education is not repeated here in the form of relapsing into illiteracy. It is in right earnest that most of the essays in the present number of the journal address the issue of "post-literacy" and "continuing" education of the neo-literates. To make literacy sustainable, apart from making the teaching method effective, a lot more depends on the capsule of the contents. We have a set of interesting articles on this aspect as well.

THE CHALLENGE OF ILLITERACY: CAN INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY HELP?

Ila Patel

Rapid expansion of the information technology in the world and its convergence with communication technologies have opened new opportunities for harnessing the power of information and communication technologies (ICTs) for promoting social and economic development in developing countries (World Bank 1999). However, there is a growing concern about widening disparities between information-rich and information-poor countries. Widespread illiteracy and lack of basic education are among the key factors contributing to the digital divide. The task of making the vast population of illiterate adults literate is very daunting. However, there is hardly any serious debate and discussion on how to harness the benefits of ICTs for providing literacy and basic education to the large population of unschooled youth and adults in the developing countries.

Discussion in this paper is organized in four sections. The first section highlights the challenge of illiteracy in the developing countries. Neglect of using ICTs for imparting basic literacy education to the large population of adult illiterates is examined in the second section. The next section discusses two innovative experiments in teaching literacy through computers in India. The concluding section draws attention to limitations and potential of using information technology for adult literacy education in the developing countries.

Gravity of the Situation of Illiteracy

In the twentieth century, worldwide there has been considerable progress of literacy. The global literacy rate for the adult population (15 years and above) has increased to 84 per cent for men and 74 per cent for women. Despite improvement in the literacy situation, according to the estimates of the United Nations there are about one billion adult illiterates in the world today, which is nearly one-quarter of the world's adult population. The vast majority of adult illiterates are concentrated in the poorest underdeveloped countries. Nearly 46.3 percent of the adult illiterate population is in South Asia and 39.39 per cent in Sub-Saharan Africa. Of the one out of four adults in the developing countries who are unable to read and write, most are women and from poor and remote rural regions. The situation is far more alarming than is generally believed. Wagner (2000:14) argues that if we apply the standards of the industrialized countries (OECD) to measure literacy, then "the number of adult illiterates in developing countries would likely to go up by at least two or three fold".

The World Conference on Education for All (EFA), held in Jomtien (Thailand) in 1990, placed basic education on the development agenda and contributed to building global consensus on critical importance of addressing the basic learning needs of all (children, youth and adults), who were unreached or excluded by the existing system of education. Though in operational terms "basic education" include literacy and non-formal education for out-of-school youth and adults, education of the existing vast population of illiterates has been marginalized by the EFA agenda (Patel 2001).

As it is, universal primary education has remained the key strategy of EFA policies and plans of international agencies and national governments. The decadal review of EFA goals and achievements in Dakar in 2000 reveals that despite significant expansion and improvement of "basic education" worldwide, there has been considerable backlog in meeting the EFA goals (UNESCO 2000). Though there is improvement and increase in net school enrolment rate, over 100 million primary school age children remain out-of-school. Due to poor quality of primary schooling, every year a large population school drop-outs (children and youth) are added to the rapidly growing of numbers of low literates. Thus, lopsided EFA policies have not succeeded in tackling the problem of widespread illiteracy in the developing countries. Unless this educational challenge is recognized and taken up seriously, disadvantaged and marginal populations without basic literacy skills will remain on the periphery of the knowledge-driven global economy.

The Digital Divide in Distance Education

Effective use of ICTs in developing countries still poses a major challenge due to low accessibility and connectivity, and shortage of human and financial resources to sustain technological interventions. ICTs have considerable potential to offer cost-effective alternative to conventional education and promote learner-centred education in flexible ways to a large number of learners in geographically dispersed locations. With the advent of digitalization and the convergence of radio, television and computer, there is an worldwide increasing interest in using ICTs for distance education through computer-mediated instructions and multi-media channels.

To what extent ICTs are used for promoting basic literacy education or open and distance education among unschooled youth and adults? In developing countries, ICT-based distance education and learning is constrained by restricted growth of open and distance education. There is very little evidence of using distance education for basic education and non-formal education (Edirisingha 1999), leave alone an effort to educate illiterates and neo-literates. Radio and television have been used for community-based educational programmes and adult basic education

programmes, but use of computers is mostly limited to support teaching-learning in the schools.

ICTs have considerable potential for transmission of knowledge, information and skills to divergent groups of learners – women, ethnic and linguistic minorities, refugees and others – who have remained illiterate. However, the challenge of integrating new technologies into literacy programmes with limited funding and poor professional support in rural and remote areas is yet to be taken up. Against the background of marginalization of literacy education in the programmes of distance education we examine below the possibilities of ICTs, particularly information technology, for meeting the challenge of making India literate in the twenty-first century.

Promising Initiatives

The condition of widespread illiteracy is one of the major problems facing India to leapfrog in the Information Age. Despite improvement in the literacy rate from 18.3 per cent in 1951 to 65.4 per cent in 2001, making India literate in the twenty-first century is very challenging. India still has 296.21 million illiterates in 2001, which is about 30 per cent of the world's illiterate population. The problem of illiteracy is compounded by educational disparities in terms of gender, region and community and the low enrolment in formal schooling and high drop-out rates among girls from rural areas. During 1991-2001 India's literacy rate has increased only by 13 per cent. At this rate, India will need 20 years or more to attain the literacy rate of 90 per cent.

Since 1988, the National Literacy Mission (NLM) as a technological mission attempted to demonstrate the use of science, technology and management for tackling the enormous task of eradicating illiteracy through large-scale, area-specific, volunteer-based and time-bound Total Literacy Campaigns (TLCs). The NLM has introduced a new tecno-pedagogic approach, known as the Improved Pace and Content of Learning (IPCL), to enhance the quality of learning materials, while shortening the time-span for achieving the NLM norms of functional literacy. The IPCL approach, based on a number of linguistic methodologies (for example, synthetic, analytic and eclectic) was envisaged to enable learners to attain the expected level of literacy as per the NLM norms in about 200 hours over a period of six to eight months.

The NLM also initiated two experimental projects using radio and television for imparting literacy instructions (Patel 2002:6-10). However, the efforts remained

sporadic failing to make any dent in the illiteracy situation. There was no adequate system to support technological interventions in the literacy centres. In the recent years, some fresh experimental projects have attempted to use ICTs for adult literacy education on a small scale.

Computer-based Rural Literacy Project

The Computer-based Rural Literacy Project (CRLP), an innovative project, was undertaken by the Tata Consultancy Services (TCS), India's leading software services company, as part of its social sector initiative. It aims at eradicating ilsliteracy in a faster and cost-effective way by using information technology along with printed literacy material (Noronha, 2000). After initial experiments in Beeramguda village in Medak district (Andhra Pradesh) in 2000, the project was expanded to 80 villages across the state by April 2001. The salient aspects of the project are its technological configurations (hardware and software) for imparting literacy instructions in rural areas and the computer-based pedagogic approach for teaching literacy.

Access to communication infrastructures is a major hurdle in using information technology in rural areas. To overcome the obstacles of operating stand-alone computers in remote areas, the project used the wireless local loop communication technology. This technology is used to effectively build the communication infrastructure for the project without laying physical lines. It also helps in receiving regular feedback from volunteers engaged in teaching literacy to the villagers and in networking remotely placed computers. The computers (486 PCs) with custom-made keyboard in the local language are installed in locations, such as, *gram panchayat* (village level political council) office, that are easily accessible to the villagers. While keeping in mind the low-end computers, the TCS has developed the beta version of the instructional software in the Telugu language for teaching reading skills to illiterate adult learners. To motivate adult learners and ensure increased attention, the project has developed multi-media software that incorporates some aspects of local culture in the design of the user interface (Ananthakrishna 2001). This software has demonstrated the possibility of enabling an illiterate adult to read a newspaper in the local language within 10 weeks.

The literacy module of the project consists of 18 computer-based literacy lessons. It uses the IPCL material produced by the NLM. However, the project has developed a new pedagogic approach for teaching literacy (language) to adults with the help of a computer. In this approach the basic unit of learning is not an alphabet but a syllable. It is based on the premise that reading skills are key to improving people's access to information and knowledge that is available in written form. With

the belief that adults process both pictorial and aural inputs in a contextual and holistic mode before breaking it down into smaller units of information, the project uses the 'word approach' instead of 'alphabet-based' approach to teach literacy. The word approach enables learners to first build the vocabulary of 300-400 commonly used words. Literacy teaching starts with familiar words, which are selected from commonly found themes and situations in a given community.

As Indian languages are phonetic, alphabets and scripts are introduced through the sounds that make up such words. Repeated flashing of symbols and icons in the local language on the computer screen, induces learning. Word games are also used to reinforce recognition of these sounds and letters in different contexts and to construct new words with the composite letters. The pilot project claims that within 8-10 weeks learners can acquire reasonable reading skills to read a local newspaper in the local language.

Duration of each literacy class is flexible, determined by the span of adult learners. Literacy classes in the project are not run by teachers or instructors, but by the volunteers, who teach the learners how to use computers. However, given the limitations of visibility of the display on computer monitors, per computer only about 15 students can be accommodated in a literacy class. One teaching site of the project is expected to enable 300 adults to read functionally in a year.

With the encouraging results of the pilot project in Andhra Pradesh, the TCS intends to expand the project in other states through interested NGOs. It has started the work on the Hindi and Tamil script. The pilot project also provided impetus to the TCS for developing an Indian speech recognition engine that is capable of converting spoken words into written text and vice versa. This would further speed up the learning process.

Commonwealth of Learning Literacy Project

The Commonwealth of Learning's Literacy Project (COLLIT), funded by the British Department of International Development is a three-year pilot project (1999-2002), undertaken in Zambia and India to explore the ways in which ICTs can be used in the local literacy programmes[1] (Commonwealth of Learning 2000). The primary objective of the COLLIT is to demonstrate and evaluate the appropriateness and effectiveness of technology-based community learning centres (TCLCs) through which literacy instructors can provide literacy training to develop learner competencies in reading and numeracy and in the use and operation of ICT appliances. In India, the project aims at promoting literacy efforts of the NLM, by enabling the learners to use ICTs to generate their own literacy material and facilitate interactive learning.

The project is implemented in India by the Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) through its Centre for Extension Education since August 1999 in collaboration with three partners, namely, the State Resource Centres (SRCs) of Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh, and the M.S.Swaminathan Research Foundation (MSSRF) in Tamilnadu that has joined the project since April 2001. Through these partners eight TCLCs are established in rural areas, two by each SRC, and four by the MSSRF. Each TCLC is equipped with two computers (Pentium III/IV), a laser printer, television, VCR, audio cassette player and a still camera. Despite the problems related to communication infrastructure (irregular electricity supply, unavailability of telephone connection at the village-level, etc.), the TCLCs have started functioning. Each centre is run by a team of male and female facilitators (*sahyogi* and *sahyogini*). Early findings on the basis of preliminary MIS and evaluation data and the monthly reports from both the SRCs show encouraging trends in using ICTs for literacy work (Patel 2002).

The COLLIT project has contributed to augmenting the capability of SRCs and building their institutional potential for using ICTs in production of teaching-learning material. With the availability of ICT appliances (computer/printer, scanner, CD writer, handicam, digital camera) at each SRC, and training of staff for using them, each SRC has started modifying relevant printed literacy material into computer-based literacy material (for example, scan of books), and developing project-specific materials (project brochure, posters, training manual, CDs, teaching aids, etc.) for literacy instructors and learners. Access of the Internet in TCLC is constrained by inadequate communication infrastructure and electricity supply. However, some scanned information from Hindi websites is stored in TCLC computers by the SRC-Indore so that learners could have access to them. The TCLC facilitators are local people; some of them had been actively involved in literacy work. The COLLIT project has contributed to building their capabilities for handling ICTs and using them for literacy teaching and community activities.

Availability of television, VCR and audio cassette player at the TCLC have become useful tools to the facilitators to provide continuous education and generate awareness in the community about local developmental issues (for example, reproductive health, HIV/AIDs, watershed development, etc.). Project activities at the TCLC level, are shaped by the project goals of accessibility, interactivity, community mobilization and sustainability. Various strategies have been used to harness the technology to respond to the divergent learning needs of the community. In the initial stage, the project focused on 'demystifying' technology by enabling all learners to operate the computer. Young school-going children and adolescent youth, who acquired computer literacy, voluntarily assist neo-literates in using computers and in reading sessions.

Neo-literate learners have started using the computer for reading the scanned material and practising writing. They have also generated pictorial material with the help of MS-Word, PaintBrush and Clip Art. They could operate television and radio and review existing audio-visual learning material and broadcast programmes. Other technologies, such as digital camera and handycam are also operated by the learners to take pictures and compose their own stories and materials. Access to ICTs has contributed to development of self-confidence among adult learners for literacy learning. Learner-generated material has also enabled learners to practice literacy skills. Thus, acquisition of literacy skills is facilitated and reinforced and through the use of various technologies by learners themselves and by others in preparing teaching-learning material.

In summary, these two experiments of the public and private sectors suggest the potential of using information technology for teaching literacy to illiterate youth and adults. They also show that integrating technology into the pedagogic approach and creating learning environment in literacy classes conducive to technological interventions are essential for technology-mediated literacy learning.

Concluding Remarks

Participation in the knowledge-driven global economy requires educated and skilled human resources. However, widespread illiteracy is a major obstacle for using ICTs for economic development and enhancing people's access to knowledge and information for improving their livelihoods. Developing countries with high illiteracy face a serious challenge of eradicating illiteracy thanks to constraints of financial resources. Information technology offers opportunities for promoting literacy education among the vast population of illiterate youth and adults. The technology is, however, not an end in itself, but it is a means to achieve the broader goals of lifelong learning in the present context of changing requirements of knowledge and skills.

The Indian experiments discussed in the paper suggest the feasibility of using information technology for imparting literacy skills and potential of developing learner-centred, and culture-specific literacy content in the local language. However, the task of producing technology-based literacy curriculum and materials in local language and integrating such technology-based literacy learning with face-to-face instructions are very challenging. Management and sustainability of technological interventions in the literacy class at the community-level require much more investment and resources than traditional literacy programmes. Large-scale applications of information technology for promoting basic literacy education among poor and

marginalized communities will require strategic partnership of all the interested stakeholders from the public, private and NGO sectors.

Information technology is, however, not a panacea to solve the problem of widespread illiteracy in developing countries. But, it can be harnessed to narrow the digital divide by providing learning opportunities to the disadvantaged learners and help them to acquire basic literacy skills and a new set of lifelong learning skills.

Endotes

1. Discussion in this section is based on the work undertaken for the commonwealth of learning project (COLLIT) in which the author is involved as the national evaluator in India. The author wishes to thank Dr. Glen Farrell (Interantional Project manager), Dr. Judith Calder (International Evaluation Consultant), Dr. Anita Dighe (National Project Director) and the Project Resource Centres and Technology-mediated Community Leraning Centres in Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh for their help and support with evaluation.

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INFORMATION EDUCATION AND TRAINING ON INFANT NUTRITION

K.S. Kumari
Usha Chandrasekhar

Training for skill development, a strategy to bring in sustainable development, is acquiring tremendous importance these days. In fact the need for a strong focus on improvement of nutritional status through Information Education and Communication (IEC) has been stressed by many authors (Punhani and Mahajan, 1989 and Saibaba et al, 2002). Although this has already been made an integral component of the developmental initiatives in India, in actual practice this educational exercise remains neglected or has taken the form of minor routine activities with very little concern for the methodology or impact. As a result, the review of such programmes operated by government and non-governmental agencies, during the last several years, has indicated an urgent need for improving their quality and content (Bagchi, 1987; NIPCCD, 1990; Santosh et. al. 1994 and Kushwah, 2002).

Keeping this in view, the present study was contemplated to strengthen this educational intervention using appropriate training inputs. The specific objectives of the study were:

To assess the existing infant feeding practices

To develop a suitable training module to impart information education and training to the mothers on infant nutrition.

To conduct and evaluate the training inputs

Study Materials and Methods

Young mothers numbering 50 who attended a voluntary health programme in Vypin Block of Ernakulam District, Kerala constituted the sample. The general background and the initial level of knowledge, attitudes and practices (KAP) of the sample on factors related to infant nutrition were obtained using a pre-tested proforma. An instructional package on information education and training on infant nutrition was formulated considering the local needs and requirements of the beneficiaries. Educational programme was executed on a continuous basis. The duration of the programme was six weeks including the follow-up measures like home visits, group activities involving learners, such as demonstrations, displays,

recipe contests etc. Play-way methods of learning were given special emphasis in the follow-up programmes as it provides more exciting possibilities for reiteration of messages already communicated (Ramamohan, 1998). Repeated exposures to relevant messages were also ensured by displaying charts and posters permanently at the programme centre.

Impact evaluation of the educational intervention was done after the completion of the project to find out the extent of changes in knowledge, attitudes and behavioural pattern of the sample with respect to infant feeding practices. Specific modifications, if any, in the dietary practices were also studied by means of a diet survey conducted on selected group of sample.

Findings of the Study

General background of the sample: The sample population belonged to economically weaker sections of the community, with a family income of less than 800 rupees per month. They were in the age group of 25 to 35 years and their basic education ranged between fourth to seventh standard. Nuclear family system (64 per cent) was more popular among them than joint family (36 per cent).

Changes in KAP of the beneficiaries: Table no.1 presents the KAP of the beneficiaries before and after the information education. Comparison of initial and final scores secured by the sample indicated significant difference at 1 per cent level, proving effectiveness of the programme to bring about desirable change in KAP on factors related to infant nutrition.

Table No. 1

KAP of Beneficiaries Before and After Information Education and Training

Particulars		n	Mean	S D	CR	Level of significance	
Knowledge:							
	Before IE	50	0.6	0.66	6.04	0.01	
	After IE	50	1.46	0.76			
Attitude:							
	Before IE	50	1.36	0.76	9.8	0.01	
	After IE	50	2.94	0.85			
Practice:							
	Before IE	50	1.54	1.3	9.5	0.01	
	After IE	50	3.74	0.97			

Changing Trends in Dietary Habits

Obvious reduction in food beliefs of the beneficiaries pertaining to infant feeding was noticed after the training (Table no. 2). Here the most welcome change was the reduction in the popularity of commercial infant food items and ready to eat items like biscuit and bread, which were unanimously considered as ideal food by the mothers (100 per cent) prior to the education programme. Items like dal, leafy vegetables, fruit juices once considered as the wrong food for the baby, now became acceptable to them to a large extent.

Table No. 2

Changing Trends in Food Beliefs Before and After Information Education (IE)

No.	Food Beliefs	Prevalence (%)	
		Before IE	After IE
1	Biscuits and bread are ideal weaning food	100	54
2	Bottle feeding with commercial infant food promotes better growth and development	100	60
3	Leafy vegetables induces diarrhoea	96	44
4	Fruits and fruit juices cause acidity and stomach pain	62	10
5	Fish causes allergy and skin problems	70	46
6	Curd and fruit are cold food and should not be given to infants after sunset	56	8
7	Dal causes indigestion and stomach pain	80	20

Weaning Food with Local Resources

Locally available food resources seldom found a place in the infant diet of the target population prior to the training inputs. But a changing trend was noticed in this respect also due to the educational intervention (Table no.3). Frequent use (two to three times a week) of weaning recipes incorporating local resources like leafy vegetables, fruits like banana, papaya and cereal-pulse combinations as well as occasional use (once in a week) of dal or fish along with weaning food, were powerful indicators of positive behavioural change among the mothers. Although certain amount of resistance in the use of local foods was observed in some families, information education promised to be a good means to bring about desired modification in the infant weaning practices.

Table No. 3

Use of Weaning Recipes Incorporating Local Resources

Weaning Recipes	Frequency of use (%)		
	Very Often (2-3 times)	Occasionally (Once in a week)	Not at all
Aval papaya porridge	56	26	18
Dal mango porridge	16	62	22
Cereal pulse preperation	86	14	-
Cheera dosai	62	18	20
Dalbanana porridge	24	52	24
Dal plantain ada	30	42	28
Tapioca fish mix	6	40	54

Dietary Intake

Mean nutrient intake of infants before and after the information education was compared with the ICMR recommendations of 1989 (Table no. 4).

Table No. 4

Mean Intake of Nutrients by Infant Before and After Information Education (IE) in comparison with RDI

Nutrients	RDI	Before IE % of RDI	After IE % of RDI
Energy (K. Cal)	540	-58	-16
Protein (gm)	10	-33	26
Calcium (mg)	500	-55	8
Iron (mg)	10	-41	-6
Vitmin A (µg)	350	-71	-14

The percentage of deficit in the intake of essential nutrients by infants before the training programme varied from 33 per cent to 71 per cent with the maximum deficit reported in the case of vitamin A intake. Following the intervention, a positive deviation in the intake of protein (+26 per cent) and calcium (+8 per cent) was observed. The deficit in the case of energy, vitamin A and iron intake by the infants was also reduced to a great extent, (–58 per cent to –16 per cent and –71 per cent

to –41 percent and –41 per cent to –6 per cent respectively) indicating a favourable response to educational intervention.

Conclusion

The information education and training on infant nutrition for women conducted in Vypin Block of Ernakulam Distict proved effective. Firstly, it brought about desirable change in KAP of the beneficiaries regarding factors related to infant nutrition. Secondly, it introduced behavioural change in the infant feeding practices of the mothers; reduction in food beliefs and frequent use of weaning foods incorporating local food sources are the indication. And thirdly, it improved the intake of dietary essentials by the infants.

The training module on infant nutrition therefore promises to be an important means for improving the KAP of the target population, i.e. young mothers.

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LITERACY OF THE SCHEDULED TRIBES IN JHARKHAND: PATTERNS AND DISPARITIES, 1991-2001

Vijay Kumar Baraik
Binay Manish R. Lakra

The tribes of India, constitutionally known as the Scheduled Tribes (STs) are often routinely blamed for not responding adequately to the developmental programmes of the government. It is said that they adapt themselves very slowly for development. They are further accused of rigidly clinging to their customs and traditions and not coming forward to participate in the developmental schemes. Contrary to these stereotyped views, a closer observation of developmental ideas, policies and programmes conducted among them would show that they, besides at times suffering from dualism and ambiguities, are often bogged down with half-heartedness. The planners often talk of the need of bringing the tribals into the mainstream of development. But in practice the programmes are invariably inefficient and they reach the tribal societies only on the fringe.

There is the need of scrutiny and evaluation of various developmental programmes. The present study takes up the area of literacy, which has received much attention of the government in recent times, to analyze the developmental policy of the government in respect of the Scheduled Tribes. The region selected is the state of Jharkhand, which is geographically the Chhotanagpur plateau and culturally the homeland of several tribes of India, major ones being the Santhals, Oraons, Mundas, Hos and Kharias, and small ones like the Birhors, Paharias, Lohars, Chik-Baraiks, Mahlis and so on. The period taken is the decade 1991 to 2001. The significance of this period lies in the fact that it immediately follows the launching of the National Literacy Mission (1988), which is the beginning of a new era of concerted effort to eradicate illiteracy through campaign method at the district level. The paper discusses the pattern of literacy and analyzes the trends. The focus of the paper is the status of literacy among the STs vis-à-vis non-ST population in the state. It further examines the question whether the STs have been deprived of literacy, and if so, why.

The study is based on the data of the Census of India, 1991 and 2001. The status of literacy has been analyzed in two kinds of administrative districts for the two census years. In 1991 under undivided Bihar, there were 13 districts in the Jharkhand part of the state. In 2001 the new state of Jharkhand re-organized those districts creating five more districts. The analysis of literacy in two types of the districts should help us see the difference, if any, coming with the change in

administrative spatial units. This may also guide us to examine whether geographical location, i.e. proximity to administrative or urban centre has any role in the situation of literacy in an area.

Spatial Pattern of Literacy, 1991-2001

The literacy rate of the State of Jharkhand rose from 41.39 per cent in 1991 to 54.13 per cent in 2001, which is little above the country's literacy rate of 1991 (51.54 per cent). The literacy growth rate of the state in the decade is 30.79 per cent. Despite good rate of growth, the state percentage of literacy remains quite lower than the national literacy rate, which is 65.38 per cent.

Table No. 1

District-wise Literacy in Jharkhand, 1991-2001 (Based on 13 Districts of 1991)

District	Literacy Rate						Growth in Literacy			Male-Female Disparity		% Decline in Disparity
	1991			2001								
	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	1991	2001	1991-2001
Deoghar	37.92	54.12	19.74	50.53	66.93	32.33	33.27	23.67	63.79	0.453	0.333	26.63
Dhanbad	55.47	69.47	37.88	65.58	78.75	50.46	18.22	13.36	33.2	0.28	0.211	24.63
Dumka	34.02	49.29	17.91	48.31	63.28	32.68	42.03	28.39	82.5	0.455	0.303	33.31
Giridih	35.96	52.89	17.65	45.16	63.07	27.05	25.58	19.26	53.22	0.492	0.384	21.93
Godda	34.02	48.56	18	43.73	58.07	27.98	28.54	19.6	55.46	0.446	0.333	25.35
Gumla	39.67	51.7	27.48	52.35	64.14	40.56	31.98	24.06	47.61	0.29	0.215	25.67
Hazaribagh	38	53.37	21.24	54.11	68.49	39.1	42.41	28.33	84.06	0.415	0.26	37.36
Lohardaga	40.79	54.99	26.11	53.97	67.84	39.88	32.31	23.36	52.71	0.339	0.247	26.99
Palamu	31.1	44.8	16.15	43.62	58.11	28.02	40.27	29.7	73.47	0.458	0.332	27.34
Paschimi Singhbhum	38.92	54.75	22.44	50.7	66.23	34.81	30.26	20.96	55.12	0.403	0.296	26.55
Purbi Singhbhum	59.05	71.18	45.5	69.42	80.08	57.95	17.57	12.51	27.34	0.211	0.158	25.01
Ranchi	51.52	65.12	36.57	65.69	77.76	52.77	27.51	19.4	44.29	0.267	0.186	30.3
Sahibganj	27.03	36.97	16.32	34.73	44.84	24.03	28.47	21.29	47.2	0.369	0.285	22.63
Jharkhand	**41.39**	**55.8**	**25.52**	**54.13**	**67.94**	**39.38**	**30.79**	**21.76**	**54.3**	**0.355**	**0.254**	**28.63**
Coefficient of Variations	24.53	18.31	39.4	19.88	15.16	29.38	26.66	25.14	31.84	24.09	24.56	16.31

Source: *Census of India, 1991 and 2001.*

If one analyzes the spatial distribution pattern of literacy for 13 districts, one finds that there is a polarization of literacy rates in the northern and southern districts. The polarization is, however, in an opposite way. The southern districts including Ranchi, Gumla, Lohardaga, Purbi Singhbhum and Pashchimi Singhbhum with high percentage of ST population are found having relatively higher percentage of literacy (Fig 1). The districts of Santhal Pargana region in the north — Dumka, Deoghar,

Godda and Sahibganj – on the other hand show relatively low percentage of literacy. Among the northern districts, however, the districts of Hazaribagh and Dhanbad have better percentage. Rest of the districts of the state has moderate literacy rates.

Fig. 1
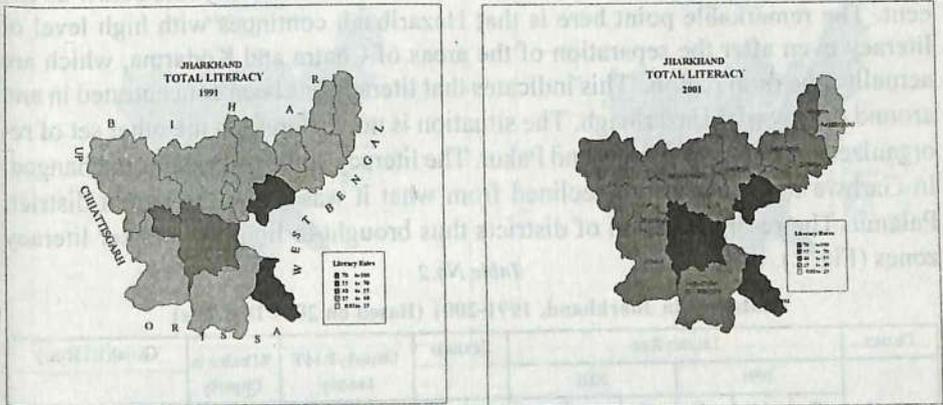
In 1991 majority of the districts had literacy rates between 25and 40 per cent except Ranchi, Lohardaga, Dhanbad and Purbi Singhbhum. Ranchi and Lohardaga had literacy rates between 40 and 55 percent (Table no.1). Dhanbad and Purbi Singhbhum had the rates between 55 and 70 per cent, whereas Purbi Singhbhum had the highest literacy rate.

In 2001, the situation of literacy in Jharkhand improved overall. Only one district i.e. Sahibganj remained in the category of 25-40 per cent literacy rate. The rest of the districts came in the category of 40-55 per cent literacy, except three districts, Purbi Singhbhum, Dhanbad and Ranchi where literacy rates were higher varying between 55 and 70 per cent. Ranchi is a new entrant in the latter category.

District-wise trend of growth between 1991 and 2001 shows that Purbi Singhbhum, Dhanbad and Ranchi have relatively been doing better in the state. The performance of the districts of Hazaribagh, Gumla, Lohardaga and Pashchimi Singhbhum was moderate. The record of the district of Dhanbad was remarkably poor. The northern districts, except Hazaribagh, and especially ones in the Santhal Pargana region had still poorer achievement. Among them Sahibganj again showed poorest performance.

In 2001, five new districts were carved out in the State: Garhwa from Palamu, Chatra and Kodarma from Hazaribagh, Bokaro from Hazaribagh, Giridih and Dhanbad and Pakur from Sahibganj. An overview of the literacy situation in the 18 districts shows that the districts of Purbi Singhbhum, Ranchi, Hazaribagh, Bokaro and Dhanbad have high literacy ranging between 55 and 70 per cent. The other districts, except Garhwa, Sahibganj and Pakur (with 25-40 per cent) have moderate level of literacy rates, i.e. 40-55 per cent. No district has literacy rate below 25 per cent. The remarkable point here is that Hazaribagh continues with high level of literacy even after the separation of the areas of Chatra and Kodarma, which are actually the rural region. This indicates that literacy has been concentrated in and around the town of Hazaribagh. The situation is not different in the other set of re-organized districts, Sahibgang and Pakur. The literacy situation remains unchanged. In Garhwa the literacy rate declined from what it was under the parent district, Palamu. The re-organization of districts thus brought to light the weaker literacy zones (Fig. 2).

Table No.2

Literacy in Jharkhand, 1991-2001 (Based on 2001 Districts)

District	Literacy Rate						Sex ratio		Disparity in M/F Literacy		%Decline in Disparity	Growth in Literacy		
	1991			2001			1991	2001	1991	2001	1991-2001	T	M	F
	T	M	F	T	M	F								
Jharkhand	41.39	55.8	25.52	54.13	67.94	39.38	922	941	0.423	0.3219	23.82	30.78	21.76	54.31
Garhwa	26.06	39.03	11.85	39.39	54.69	22.91	926	935	0.585	0.4638	20.78	51.15	40.12	93.33
Palamu	33.52	47.57	18.21	45.67	59.76	30.5	932	937	0.494	0.3744	24.14	36.25	25.63	67.49
Chatra	27.84	40.45	14.39	43.35	55.67	30.5	952	964	0.515	0.3311	35.65	55.71	37.63	111.95
Hazaribagh	41.21	56.54	24.13	58.05	72.16	43.15	914	950	0.458	0.3121	31.89	40.86	27.63	78.82
Kodarma	38.52	58.12	18.61	52.73	71.57	34.03	986	1001	0.601	0.4342	27.78	36.89	23.14	82.86
Giridih	32.24	49.81	13.91	45.16	63.07	27.05	966	983	0.647	0.4691	27.51	40.07	26.62	94.46
Deoghar	37.92	54.12	19.74	50.53	66.93	32.33	911	914	0.53	0.4164	21.42	33.25	23.67	63.78
Godda	34.02	48.56	18	43.73	58.07	27.98	922	926	0.511	0.4006	21.58	28.54	19.58	55.44
Sahibganj	29.37	39.51	18.27	37.91	48.33	26.78	924	943	0.389	0.3141	19.24	29.08	22.32	46.58
Pakaur	23.96	33.56	13.8	30.54	40.19	20.44	954	958	0.435	0.3442	20.8	27.46	19.76	48.12
Dumka	34.02	49.29	17.91	48.31	63.28	32.68	955	961	0.522	0.3747	28.19	42	28.38	82.47
Dhanbad	54.24	67.82	37	67.49	80.03	52.93	819	874	0.354	0.268	24.33	24.43	18	43.05
Bokaro	51.14	66.48	32.85	62.98	76.99	47.17	865	895	0.404	0.307	23.95	23.15	15.81	43.59
Ranchi	51.52	65.12	36.57	65.69	77.76	52.77	921	938	0.334	0.2492	25.4	27.5	19.41	44.3
Lohardaga	40.79	54.99	26.11	53.97	67.84	39.88	971	976	0.402	0.3141	21.94	32.31	23.37	52.74
Gumla	39.67	51.7	27.48	52.35	64.14	40.56	987	995	0.34	0.2685	21.06	31.96	24.06	47.6
Pashchimi Singhbhum	38.92	54.75	22.44	50.7	66.23	34.81	965	976	0.475	0.371	21.83	30.27	20.97	55.12
Purbi Singhbhum	59.05	71.18	45.5	69.42	80.08	57.95	906	931	0.273	0.214	21.69	17.56	12.5	27.36

Source: *Census of India, 2001*

Fig. 2
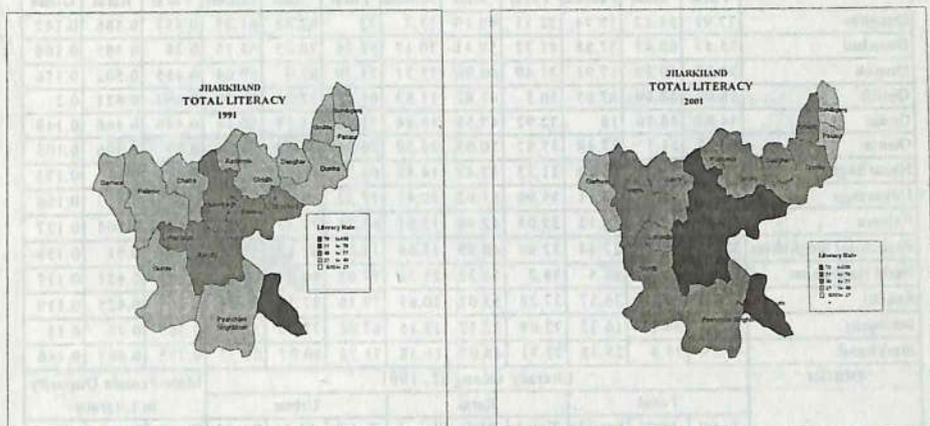
ST and Non-ST Profile

The analysis of data in terms of social groups in case of the year 2001 is not possible since such data are not yet available. Our observation on the literacy level of the STs and non-STs is thus confined to year 1991.

The table no.3 above and fig.3 below shows that there is poor i.e. below 40 per cent literacy among the STs of the northern districts of the State. The northern districts are more deprived than the southern districts. The data further indicates that the STs are more deprived in those districts where their proportions to general population are small. Dhanbad, for instance, has the second highest total literacy, but it has only below 25 per cent literacy of the STs. This and the general poor percentage in the Santhal Pargana region shows deprivation of the STs.

There is a wide gap as literacy between the literacy of the STs (27.5 per cent) and that of the non-STs (46.7 per cent). If seen at the district level, there is no district in the State that has below 25 per cent literacy among its non-ST population. Godda and Sahibganj of the Santhal Pargana region along with Palamu, Hazaribagh and Giridih form poorest region in terms of literacy of the ST (fig.3). In fine, the STs lag far behind the non-STs in the State in the matter of literacy.

Table No. 3
Literacy and Disparity amomg Social Gropus in Jharkhand, 1991

District	Total Literacy, 1991									Male-Female Disparity in Literacy		
	Total			Rural			Urban					
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Rural	Urban
Deoghar	37.92	54.12	19.74	32.11	49.19	13.2	73	82.52	61.37	0.453	0.586	0.147
Dhanbad	55.47	69.47	37.88	41.32	59.41	20.17	68.26	78.03	55.15	0.28	0.485	0.168
Dumka	34.02	49.29	17.91	31.49	46.96	15.31	71.79	81.9	59.64	0.455	0.502	0.156
Giridih	35.96	52.89	17.65	30.3	47.82	11.83	65.5	77.34	50.79	0.492	0.621	0.2
Godda	34.02	48.56	18	32.92	47.55	16.84	71.75	81.14	60.13	0.446	0.466	0.148
Gumla	39.67	51.7	27.48	37.87	50.05	25.59	76.28	83.19	68.38	0.29	0.306	0.103
Hazaribagh	38	53.37	21.24	31.33	47.41	14.49	66.7	76.64	53.83	0.415	0.53	0.171
Lohardaga	40.79	54.99	26.11	35.96	51.02	20.41	77.32	84.87	69.45	0.339	0.413	0.106
Palamu	31.1	44.8	16.15	29.03	42.98	13.91	65.31	73.32	55.57	0.458	0.504	0.137
Pashchimi Singhbhum	38.92	54.75	22.44	32.46	48.99	15.68	71.69	81.84	59.65	0.403	0.51	0.156
Purbi Singhbhum	59.05	71.18	45.5	38.2	54.32	21.36	77.02	84.89	67.73	0.211	0.421	0.117
Ranchi	51.52	65.12	36.57	37.28	53.02	20.65	79.16	87.36	69.43	0.267	0.425	0.119
Sahibganj	27.03	36.97	16.32	23.68	33.52	13.15	67.98	77.29	57.02	0.369	0.42	0.15
Jharkhand	41.39	55.8	25.52	32.71	48.07	16.38	71.75	80.92	60.33	0.355	0.483	0.146

District	Literacy among ST, 1991									Male-Female Disparity in Literacy		
	Total			Rural			Urban					
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Rural	Urban
Deoghar	19.95	33.63	5.4	19.25	32.77	4.97	48.16	63.17	26.21	0.808	0.833	0.398
Dhanbad	23.88	36.33	10.62	19.05	31.24	6.46	40.55	52.82	26.03	0.548	0.698	0.323
Dumka	22.4	34.84	9.59	22.18	34.63	9.37	49.16	60.39	37.04	0.574	0.582	0.228
Giridih	16.59	26.68	5.75	14.92	24.72	4.44	45.29	59.03	29.28	0.68	0.759	0.32
Godda	20.94	31.76	9.74	20.79	31.56	9.63	49.41	68.64	29.36	0.527	0.529	0.386
Gumla	37.33	47.62	27.07	36.43	46.8	26.1	72.79	79.37	66.02	0.26	0.268	0.098
Hazaribagh	23.65	34.81	11.52	19.48	30.54	7.56	42.18	53.23	29.59	0.494	0.62	0.27
Lohardaga	32.45	44.46	20.08	30.86	43.42	17.76	76.98	79.75	74.96	0.36	0.403	0.044
Palamu	21.45	31.83	10.53	21.17	31.53	10.26	41.26	51.18	29.81	0.494	0.501	0.25
Pashchimi Singhbhum	27.9	42.2	13.62	26.35	40.65	12.18	52.71	65.45	38.25	0.506	0.538	0.25
Purbi Singhbhum	32.14	46.9	16.97	27.85	43.1	12.33	53.3	65.09	40.54	0.456	0.558	0.222
Ranchi	34.61	46.57	22.19	30.44	43.05	17.39	55.71	64.14	46.77	0.337	0.408	0.153
Sahibganj	16.66	24.46	8.61	16.38	24.18	8.32	59.89	63.3	55.92	0.466	0.476	0.07
Jharkhand	27.52	39.28	15.41	25.52	37.34	13.4	52.25	62.48	41.04	0.421	0.459	0.199

District	Literacy among Non-Tribal Population, 1991									Male-Female Disparity in Literacy		
	Total			Rural			Urban					
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Rural	Urban
Deoghar	40.56	57.05	21.92	34.3	51.92	14.65	73.56	82.99	62.08	0.427	0.565	0.144
Dhanbad	58.35	72.25	40.62	44.84	63.56	22.51	69.28	78.91	56.31	0.261	0.467	0.164
Dumka	42.44	59.55	24.06	38.95	56.7	20.14	73.12	83.1	61.05	0.405	0.465	0.152
Giridih	38.65	56.53	19.31	32.75	51.54	13	66.38	78.11	51.76	0.478	0.613	0.197
Godda	38.5	54.08	20.95	37.21	52.99	19.5	72.86	81.71	61.82	0.423	0.45	0.139
Gumla	45.38	61.39	28.49	41.67	58.5	24.21	78.35	85.3	69.92	0.345	0.399	0.105
Hazaribagh	39.37	55.15	22.18	32.47	49.06	15.15	68.99	78.69	56.28	0.407	0.525	0.163
Lohardaga	51.7	68.71	34.04	44.26	63.56	24.67	77.39	85.69	68.08	0.316	0.427	0.118
Palamu	33.23	47.61	17.42	30.87	45.61	14.78	66.46	74.34	56.84	0.448	0.504	0.134
Pashchimi Singhbhum	51.71	68.68	33.17	41.83	61.41	21.2	76.2	85.64	64.88	0.327	0.478	0.139
Purbi Singhbhum	69.54	80.15	57.31	48.7	65.43	30.77	79.32	86.72	70.49	0.156	0.344	0.109
Ranchi	64.39	78.59	48.1	45.53	64.77	24.68	85.4	93.14	75.93	0.224	0.436	0.108
Sahibganj	33.86	44.92	21.59	29.11	40.24	16.86	68.27	77.78	57.06	0.33	0.392	0.152
Jharkhand	46.7	61.86	29.59	36.24	53.21	17.88	73.76	82.7	62.47	0.331	0.489	0.14

Source: *Census of India, 1991*

Fig. 3
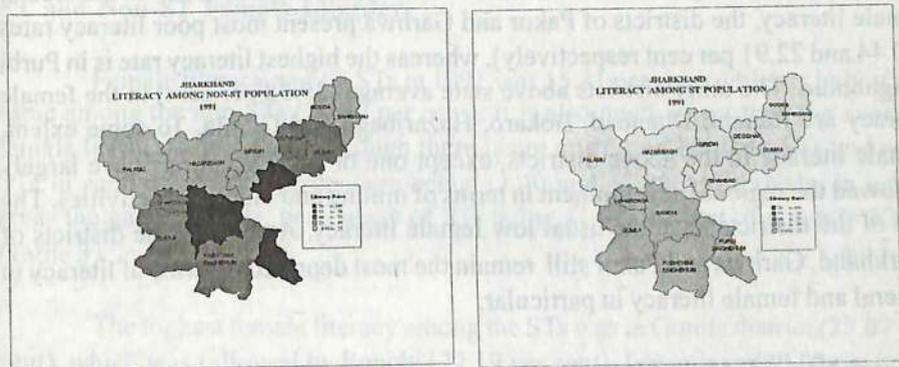
Male-Female Interface

In 1991, of all the 13 districts, Sahibganj had a lowest male literacy rate falling in the category of 25-40 per cent. Ranchi and Dhanbad districts had 55-70 per cent male literacy, Purbi Singhbhum over 70 per cent and rest of the districts had the rate of 40-55 per cent. In 2001, Sahibganj also moved up into the category of 40-55 per cent male literacy, though it continued to be the lowest. Purbi Singhbhum, Ranchi and Dhanbad fell in the category of 70-100 per cent male literacy and rest of the districts had the rates between 55 and 70 per cent.

As far as the female literacy is concerned, in 1991 Ranchi, Lohardaga, Gumla and Dhanbad had the percentage of literacy rates between 25 and 40. The other districts, except Purbi Singhbhum, had far lower rates. Interestingly, a district like Dhanbad with high literacy was among the districts with low female literacy rate. The highest female literacy rate was found in Purbi Singhbhum district. The district has two distinctive advantages: firstly, it is an industrial district with large industrial town of Jamshedpur, and secondly, it has a high tribal population where discrimination against females is less pronounced. The remaining districts, particularly the districts of Santhal Pargana region and other northern districts had very poor female literacy rates below 25 per cent (Table no.1).

In 2001, of 18 districts the highest male literacy ranging between 70 and 100 per cent was found in Purbi Singhbhum, Ranchi, Hazaribagh, Kodarma, Bokaro and

Dhanbad. The lowest male literacy around 40 per cent (below the state average of 67.94 per cent) was found in Pakur, Sahibganj and Garhwa. In rest of the districts the percentage was between 55 and 70. The male literacy in 2001, it is to be noted, has followed developments in in terms of industry, mining and so on. In the area of female literacy, the districts of Pakur and Garhwa present most poor literacy rates (20.44 and 22.91 per cent respectively), whereas the highest literacy rate is in Purbi Singhbhum. The other districts above state average (39.38 per cent) in the female literacy are Ranchi. Dhanbad, Bokaro, Hazaribagh and Gumla. To some extent, female literacy in the above districts, except one or two exceptions have largely followed the regional development in terms of mining and industrial activities. The rest of the districts have the usual low female literacy. Among all the districts of Jharkhand, Garhwa and Pakur still remain the most deprived in terms of literacy in general and female literacy in particular.

ST and Non-ST Male Literacy

In the census of 1991, there was a wide gap in male literacy rate between STs (39.28 per cent) and non-STs (61.86 per cent). Within this there has been a wide gap in rural-urban male literacy among ST and non-ST populations. The male literacy among ST and non-ST populations was 37.34 and 53.21 per cent in rural areas and 62.48 and 82.70 per cent in urban areas respectively. The highest male literacy among ST population was found in Gumla district (47.62 per cent), followed by Purbi Singhbhum (46.90 per cent), Ranchi (46.57 per cent), Lohardaga (44.46 per cent) and Pashchimi Singhbhum (42.20 per cent). These districts had the percentage above the state average (39.28 per cent). The rest of the districts, mainly northern ones, i.e. of the State, including the districts of Santhal Pargana region witnessed literacy much below the State average. Sahibganj and Giridih had the lowest.

In rural areas, the male literacy among the ST populations had the same pattern. The district of Gumla with 46.80 per cent was at the top. Lohardaga, Purbi Singhbhum, Ranchi and Pashchimi Singhbhum followed it. Here also Giridih (24.72 per cent) and Sahibganj (24.18 per cent) had the lowest literacy rates. In urban areas, all the districts of the State, barring a few, recorded a high male literacy among STs. The districts having moderate male literacy were Palamu, Dhanbad and Hazaribagh.

Among the non-STs, male literacy broadly followed the regional development pattern. Palamu (47.61 per cent) and Sahibganj (44.92 per cent) were the districts with moderate literacy. In rural areas, male literacy among them was highest in the

southern districts whereas in urban areas it was very high in all the districts and within the state average (82.70 per cent).

ST and Non-ST Female Literacy

Female literacy among STs in 1991 was 15.41 per cent, which is half of the same among the non-STs (29.59 per cent). It is also much lower than the average female literacy of the State. Though there is not much gulf between STs and non-STs in rural areas with percentage being 13.40 and 17.88 respectively, in urban areas the gap was wide, percentage of STs being 41.04 and that of non-STs 62.47 (Table 3).

The highest female literacy among the STs was in Gumla district (27.07 per cent), which was followed by Ranchi (22.19 per cent), Lohardaga (20.08 per cent) and Purbi Singhbhum (16.97 per cent). A point notable here is that female literacy rate among STs in the districts with high percentage of tribal population is higher than in districts with less tribal population. Dhanbad, for instance, is a district with a high female literacy, but the ST female literacy is only 10.62 per cent. Exception in this respect are the districts of Santhal Pargana region, where despite fairly good concentration of tribal population, female literacy remains low. The case of Dhanbad above represents the urban area. But the overall pattern in the rural areas remains the same. The district of Gumla with high ST female literacy rate, for instance, has a rural tribal population of 95.47 per cent. As for the overall urban female literacy of STs, the rates were divergent. The districts with very high literacy rates were Lohardaga (74.96 per cent), Gumla (66.02 per cent) and Sahibganj (55.92 per cent). The moderate urban literacy rate was found in Ranchi and Purbi Singhbhum district. Rest of the districts had low rates below the state average i.e. 41.04 per cent.

Among the non-ST population, female literacy has a better picture in the southern region compared to the northern one. Gumla is a district, where there is hardly any gap between the ST and non-ST rates. This exemplifies a rare case of equitable access to education to all. In industrial and developed districts opposite is the situation and female literacy suffers from general social bias. Female literacy is among the most positive indicators of development of a society. Therefore, the gaps found between STs and non-STs shown above are of great significance from the point of view of tribal development in Jharkhand.

Decadal Growth Rate

From Table no. 1 it is evident that the districts with relatively high literacy rates have low growth rates. The examples are Purbi Singhbhum and Dhanbad, which have below 25 per cent decadal growth in literacy (Table 1). All other districts have growth rates between 25 to 50 per cent. In case of male literacy, all districts have below 25 per cent literacy rates except Palamu, Hazaribagh and Dumka where the growth has been between 25-50 per cent. There is, however, a marked growth in female literacy; Hazaribagh and Dumka districts experienced 75 –100 per cent growth, while Palamu, Lohardaga, Giridih, Deoghar and Godda, have recorded growth between 50 to 75 per cent; next to it, the districts Gumla, Ranchi, Purbi Singhbhum, Deoghar and Godda have the growth rate ranging from 25 to 50 per cent. There was no district below 25 per cent growth in female literacy. The overall growth rate in the last decade 1991-2001 has been 30.79 per cent. Within this growth rate in male literacy has been 21.76 per cent only. The growth rate of female literacy has been significant (54.30 per cent), which may be because of low base level at the beginning of the decade.

An analysis of growth rate of the 18 districts reveals some intricate facts within the region. The literacy growth rate in Garhwa, Palamu, Hazaribagh, Chatra and Kodarma are above the state average (30.78 per cent), while it was lower in Sahibganj, Palamu, Dhanbad and Bokaro. The creation of new districts arrested the growth rate in Palamu and Hazaribagh, though their literacy rates are above the state average. The districts that led the growth rate are Chatra and Garhwa, whereas the lowest witnessed was in Purbi Singhbhum. The literacy growth among the females has been far high compared to the male growth rate.

Dimensions of Disparity

Regional disparity: There is huge disparity between different districts in the level of literacy (see Table no.1). In 1991, the highest literacy was 59.05 per cent in Purbi Singhbhum and lowest 27.03 per cent in Sahibganj. In 2001, the highest and lowest literacy are 69.42 and 34.74 per cent for the same districts respectively. The gap thus increases from 32.01 per cent in 1991 to 34.69 per cent in 2001.

The inter-district disparity has declined in the last decade as the coefficient of variations for literacy in the total, male and female population has decreased from 24.5, 18.3 and 39.4 to 19.9, 15.2 and 29.4 respectively (see Table no.1). It indicates improvement in the districts with moderate records but not in the district with poor and lowest literacy rate like Sahibganj.

Gender disparity: Disparity in gender has been measured by disparity indices classified by a common scale for both the census years to see its comparative pattern and trend. In 1991 disparity was larger than in 2001 (Table no.1). The districts with high disparity between male and female literacy are Palamu, Hazaribagh, Giridih, Godda, Dumka, Deoghar and Pashchimi Singhbhum. Moderate disparity is observed in Gumla, Lohardaga, Dhanbad and Sahibganj, and low disparity is found in Ranchi and Purbi Singhbhum.

In 2001 there has been significant drop in disparity. High disparity is seen only in Giridih district. The districts with moderate disparity are Palamu, Santhal Pargana and Pashchimi Singhbhum. Further, low disparity is found in the districts with relatively higher literacy rates like Gumla, Lohardaga, Ranchi, Purbi Singhbhum, Hazaribagh and Dhanbad. Low disparity can also be observed in some districts with high tribal population.

There has been decline in the male-female disparity rate ranging between 21.9 to 37.4 per cent. Heavy decline (32.3 to 37.4 per cent) was witnessed in Hazaribagh and Dumka. Palamu and Ranchi come in the category of moderate decline in disparity (27.1 to 32.3 per cent) and remaining districts have low level of decline in disparity (21.9 to 2.71 per cent).

ST-non-ST disparity: The disparity is wider among the ST and non-ST females than among the males and it is more clearly seen in the districts with industrial and mining activities. The Santhal Pargana region also shows high disparity (Table no.3). In rural areas the same pattern is observed, though it is wider in case of females. In urban areas the situation is overall reverse in both male and female literacy. The gap is small in male literacy compared to the literacy of females. It implies that in the tribal majority districts, the STs have been grossly neglected in rural areas. On the other hand, good response of STs in urban areas demolishes the common view that they do not opt for the ways of development.

Gender Disparity within STs and Non-STs: Male-female disparity among the STs is much wider than among the non-ST population. Among the STs, very high disparity is found in the northern part of Jharkhand in the districts of Palamu, Hazaribagh, Giridih, Dhanbad, Deoghar, Dumka and Godda. In the southern part, Pashchimi Singhbhum has high disparity. Gumla, however, has the lowest level of disparity followed by Lohardaga and Ranchi in the State. A common pattern discerned is that districts with relatively high tribal populations have low disparity.

Though disparity is not as high among non-STs as among the STs, the pattern of disparity among them in the northern districts is not different. The non-

STs have lowest level of disparity in Purbi Singhbhum district followed by Ranchi and Dhanbad. A notable point here is that STs are commonly more deprived and within that ST females are still more deprived in industrial districts like Dhanbad and Purbi Singhbhum; opposite is the case with non-ST females. In rural areas the pattern is not very different among STs in districts like Purbi Singhbhum, Ranchi and Lohardaga. Even among the non-STs the situation in terms of gap between male and female literacy is comparable.

A comprehensive index of disparity in literacy between the STs and non-STs in various districts of Jharkhand, calculated on the basis of the formula suggested by Kundu and Rao[1] is given below:

Table No.4

Disparities in Literacy between ST and Non-ST Population, 1991

District	Disparity in Literacy among Non-Tribal and Tribal Population								
	Total			Rural			Urban		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Deoghar	0.322	0.245	0.621	0.265	0.215	0.482	0.201	0.137	0.391
Dhanbad	0.404	0.316	0.597	0.386	0.325	0.555	0.249	0.192	0.351
Dumka	0.292	0.249	0.413	0.258	0.23	0.345	0.19	0.157	0.233
Giridih	0.381	0.342	0.539	0.355	0.334	0.479	0.182	0.139	0.262
Godda	0.278	0.246	0.346	0.267	0.24	0.319	0.186	0.094	0.339
Gumla	0.099	0.126	0.035	0.072	0.112	-0.02	0.049	0.049	0.041
Hazaribagh	0.235	0.215	0.297	0.235	0.221	0.314	0.23	0.188	0.295
Lohardaga	0.217	0.206	0.243	0.171	0.182	0.156	0.019	0.049	-0.026
Palamu	0.204	0.189	0.231	0.177	0.175	0.171	0.223	0.179	0.296
Pashchimi Singhbhum	0.283	0.228	0.4	0.215	0.195	0.254	0.178	0.135	0.246
Purbi Singhbhum	0.352	0.251	0.544	0.257	0.198	0.41	0.191	0.143	0.257
Ranchi	0.286	0.245	0.351	0.189	0.194	0.165	0.204	0.182	0.228
Sahibganj	0.322	0.279	0.412	0.263	0.235	0.319	0.073	0.107	0.024
Jharkhand	0.244	0.213	0.297	0.166	0.169	0.138	0.167	0.14	0.198

Source: *Census of India, 1991*

Correlates of Literacy

The patterns, growth and disparity of literacy in Jharkhand have been tested with some independent variables to see their possible relationship with those trends. These correlates include educational facilities, infrastructure and amenities, agricultural development, industrial development, urbanization and composition of population.

Table No.5

Indicators of Educational Infrastructure in Jharkhand in Rural Areas (1991)

Districts	% of Villages with Educational Institutions	Number of		
		Primary School	Middle School	High School
		Per Lakh Population		
Deoghar	39.49	109.04	17.08	3.84
Dhanbad	72.77	96.8	18.79	4.83
Dumka	42.03	52.68	9.18	2.99
Giridih	55.88	88.65	15.2	4.09
Godda	61.79	118.8	21.37	7.4
Gumla	76.96	111.83	25.96	8.8
Hazaribagh	55.04	80.98	14.51	3.65
Lohardaga	69.12	92.56	25.28	6.22
Palamu	65.46	94.22	22.97	5.65
Pashchimi Singhbhum	72.52	134.17	21.85	5.51
Purbi Singhbhum	60.09	130.77	23.72	8.12
Ranchi	71.2	96.6	22.92	6.27
Sahibganj	56.22	115.58	17.91	4.97

Source: *Census of India, 1991.*

As far as the correlation of educational facilities is concerned, the availability of educational institutions, middle and high schools seem to have positive effect on the literacy of the STs (total and rural). Availability of middle and high schools has reasonably positive relationship with female literacy among the rural non-ST population. These indicators significantly minimize the disparities also. There is, however, no significant relationship of the availability of primary school in villages with literacy (see Table no.5).

Table No. 6

Indicators of Amenities and Facilities in Rural Jharkhand, 1991

Districts	Percentage of Villages with						Number of Post		
	safe drinking water	Post and Tele Facility	Comm. Facility	Approach to Pucca Road	Approach to Katcha Road	Power Supply	Post & Telegraph Office	Telephone Connection	Post Office
							Per Lakh Population		
Deoghar	65.53	5.46	10.66	10.14	97.72	20.24	1.36	0.99	15.22
Dhanbad	15.75	12.12	32.19	37.81	96.5	39.64	0.84	1.15	11.89
Dumka	75.53	8.86	18.58	11.51	95.95	5.73	0.36	0.64	11.46
Giridih	55.07	9.28	19.2	15.29	90.23	23.21	0.74	0.96	13.13
Godda	11.33	10.38	9.63	17.01	84.3	17.89	0.72	1.91	19.22
Gumla	82.4	15	14.07	14.79	98.28	9.55	0.45	0.73	18.43
Hazaribagh	53.52	8.76	18.22	15.41	83.1	23.6	0.73	0.9	11.8
Lohardaga	82.49	13.88	13.6	17.28	99.72	40.79	0.78	1.56	18.28
Palamu	68.98	10.41	25.14	21.97	77.88	26.91	1.34	0.99	13.28
Pashchimi Singhbhum	82.16	6.62	12.12	11.29	98.38	16.4	0.53	0.53	11.82
Purbi Singhbhum	67.26	8.76	13.58	12.31	98.03	26.33	0.52	0.92	17.43
Ranchi	85.42	11.73	13.49	10.94	97.11	22.52	0.54	0.61	15.44
Sahibganj	31.34	6.57	10.69	10.98	97.42	11.89	0.5	1.33	12.52

Source: *Census of India, 1991.*

In so far as rural infrastructure and amenities are concerned, villages with drinking water facility have a significant positive correlation. This correlation may look queer to many. But it should be noted that safe drinking water is proxy to good health, which in turn contributes to school attendance. The correlate has negative association with disparity in the rural areas both among ST and non-ST population. Similarly, some of the indicators of communication like availability of post and telegraph offices (indirect indicators of development and interaction with outside villages) have positive relationship with literacy among STs. Surprisingly, the indicators of transport and electricity reflect the negative relation with literacy among the STs. However, these indicators work positively among the non-STs. There are some instances of negative relationship of the indicators of transport with male-female disparity (see Table no.6).

Table No. 7

Share of Scheduled Tribe Population and Urbanization in Jharkhand, 1991

District	Total	Rural	Urban
Deoghar	12.8	14.4	2.2
Dhanbad	8.4	13.4	3.7
Dumka	41.6	43.9	5.5
Giridih	12.2	13.7	4.2
Godda	25.1	25.7	4.7
Gumla	70.8	72.4	37
Hazaribagh	8.8	8.8	8.8
Lohardaga	56.4	61.3	16.5
Palamu	18.1	18.9	4.5
Pashchimi Singhbhum	54.7	61.2	19.9
Purbi Singhbhum	28.9	51	9.1
Ranchi	43.6	54.7	21.1
Sahibganj	39	41.8	3.4
Jharkhand	27.7	32.6	9.5

Source: *Census of India, 1991*

The ST status is an indicator of deprivation. As a community, the STs are deprived in many ways. The census data reveals that the concentration of ST population in an area helps in their literacy. Thus, in other words, higher the concentration or percentage of tribal population in a district, be it rural or urban, higher the literacy· rate. The concentration of STs means less the deprivation because of homogeneity between the providers and the receivers. Another significant point is that the gender disparity among the non-ST population in the districts with higher tribal concentration is less prominent.

Conclusion

The State of Jharkhand has been among the most underdeveloped regions of India. The central reason behind its underdevelopment has been its being deprived in many respects. A prominently seen indicator of deprivation and underdevelopment is large scale illiteracy of the population of Jharkhand. Within that, an important segment of it, the STs have been far more deprived. Within the STs there is dispatiy of literacy in terms of region and sex. This work has given a brief account of of the status of literacy in these lines. It has also attempted to identify factors that have been affecting the literacy in the State in general, of the STs in particular. The picture of disparity shown above is a pointer of the challenge ahead before the new

State. Since literacy of the people is an important first step on the path of development, the State should take urgent and holistic measures to remove illiteracy of the STs, who for reasons of deprivation of various kinds, have been hesitant participants in the develpopment process. The provisions of decentralized management of school education in the 73rd Amendment of Constitution (1992) and Panchayati Raj (Extension of Scheduled Areas) Act, 1996 promise a new initiative in this direction.

Endnotes

1. Named 'modified disparity index', it is as follows: $D = \log (X_i / X_i) + \log (200-X_i)/(200-X_i)$; in this D = Disparity Index and X_i represents the underpriviliged category among the two; for example, females will will be X_i if taken with males and ST will be X_i if considered with Non-ST.

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EDUCATIONAL PROFILE OF KAMAR TRIBE

Ranjan Kumar Biswas
A.K. Kapoor

Education is an important and indispensable social activity. Without this, no person can understand the world around him. The poor people usually suffer from material and social deprivation, which makes them weak and vulnerable to various problems (Shah, 1999). Education tries to develop skills, understanding and confidence in the people. Through education a person is oriented in developmental activities. The trend of educational development is actually an indicator of the status of socio-economic development of a society. Keeping this in view, the government has initiated a number of educational schemes from time to time in the interest of the tribal population, which is among the backward-most social groups of India. How far the tribals benefit from those schemes remains a question. The present paper studies the level of education among the Kamar tribes of former Madhya Pradesh. It deals with male-female ratio of literacy among them and compares the literacy rate of the Kamars with those of other tribes as well as of non-tribes of Madhya Pradesh and India. It further discusses the tribals' attitude to education towards understanding their educational problems.

Methods and Procedures

The educational data for the present study have been collected from the Gariaband Sub-division and its adjoining three villages, namely, Pentora, Kesodar and Bamni. The Gariaband Sub-division is a multi-ethnic socity as far as population composition is concerned. Kamars are however numerically a dominant tribe of this area. The purpose of selecting Kamar tribe for the present study was that a reasonable sample can be drawn from the villages wholly inhabited by them ; this would help in statistical analysis with minimum sample error. Secondly, Kamars are one of the primitive tribes of erstwhile Madhya Pradesh, on whom hardly a work of this nature has been done; we are virtually left with an uncharted field as far as changes in their social, cultural and educational aspects are concerned.

The data for the study was collected through interview of the Kamars, for which they were canvassed. Certain basic tools were developed for collecting the data. A planned interview schedule consisting of both open-ended and close-ended questions were prepared for this purpose. Before finalising the questionnaire and schedule, the questions were pre-tested in the field and certain modifications were carried out. Case study, observation and genealogical survey methods were the

other important sources of information on the Kamars. Supplementary literature and census reports supplied other related information on the Kamars, very much required by the present study.

The Kamar Tribe

In India, there are at present 623 tribal groups (including sub-groups). They inhabit remote hilly and plain forest regions (Sachcidananda. & Prasad, 1996). According to the Census of 1991, the tribes comprise 8.08 per cent of total Indian population. Among these tribal groups, 74 tribes have been categorized as primitive tribes in terms of their small size, pre-agricultural stage of economy, high degree of isolation, low level of literacy etc. The Kamar, an important primitive tirbe (among seven primitive tribes) of erstwhile Madhya Pradesh is concentrated in five districts, viz. Raipur, Bastar, Raigarh, Surguja and Bilaspur, presently under the new State of Chhattisgarh. Large number of Kamar population inhabiting the hilly and forest villages in Gariaband Sub-division in the south-eastern part of Raipur district, where the present study was conducted.

Kamars are economically backward and most of them are landless. Economically they subsist on casual labour and fuel selling. Due to the shortage of forest resources and multi-stages forest preservation policies of the government the Kamars are forced to abandon their traditional hunting and gathering practices. In the olden days, the staple food of the Kamars was 'madia', a variety of coarse millet. But due to changing environment, nowadays their diets are rice, wheat, kodo, kutki, maize and varieties of both vegetable and non-vegetable items. Their traditional dress for males is 'patuka' a small size of dhoti and for females is 'lugda', a small size-saree which loosely covers the upper and lower parts of the body. But nowadays the Kamars also wear modern dresses. Kamars generally prefer nuclear family, but there are some cases of joint family also. They have both endogamous and exogamous clans.

Their social organization is based on seven clans or 'gots', which regulate exogamous marriage alliances. Generally monogamy is practised, but polygamy is also permissible. In special cases, the remarriage and widow remarriage are also allowed. The Kamar family is patrilineal. After the death of father, only sons are eligible to inherit the father's properties. The Kamars propitiate a few gods and goddesses like 'anya', a female deity for sufficient paddy production, 'duludeo' for safety, etc. The 'baiga' among the Kamars is primarily a religious head, but he is also respected as traditional political head of the community. He settles disputes among the members of the community on all social, political, economic and religious

conflicts. Under modern political system, elected panch (pradhan) and sarpanch (upapradhan) look after developmental activities (Dube, 1951; Srivastava, 1990; Singh, 1994).

Dimensions of Kamar Literacy Rate

The term 'literacy rate' denotes the number of persons (in one hundred), who are able to read and write with some understanding in a population in a specified time. In the present study, Kamar literacy rates have been calculated in respect of the total population. The age of the population was 5 years and above. Male and female literacy rates have been estimated separately. The literacy rate of the total population of Kamars was found to be 16.0 per cent of which 23.9 per cent and 9.1 per cent were for males and females respectively (Table no.1).In case of the age group of 5 years and above, the rate was found to be 16.7 per cent with 25.0 per cent for males and 9.4 per cent for females.

Table No. 1

Literacy Rate Among Kamars

Category	Literacy Rate (As percent of total population)	Literacy Rate (As percent of total population 5 years and above)
Male	23.9	25
Female	9.1	9.4
Person	16	16.7

Educational level of the Kamars has been found to be limited to middle school level. According to present study, of the total number of literates, 60.9 per cent of the Kamars were educated at the lower primary education level, 30.4 per cent at the upper primary level and only 8.7 per cent at the middle level.

Table No. 2

Literacy Rate – by Educational Level Among Kamar

Level of Education	Male (Percentage)	Female (Percentage)	Total (Percentage)
Lower Primary	9	5	14
	-39.1	-21.8	-60.9
Upper Primary	5	2	7
	-21.8	-8.7	-30.4
Middle School	2	0	2
	-8.7	0	-8.7
Total	16	7	23
	-69.6	-30.4	-100

In order to comprehend the differentials in male and female rates, the above data were further computed after classifying them by five year age cohorts, to obtain the age-specific literacy rates. Table no.3 shows that the maximum literacy rates were recorded in the age groups of 5-9 years (4.9 per cent), 15-19 years (3.5 per cent) and 0-4 years, 10-14 years and 20-24 years (2.1 per cent each). Only 0.7 per cent literacy rate each was found in the age groups of 50-54 years and 60 years and above. The maximum male literacy rate (3.5 per cent) was seen in the age group 5-9 years, followed by 2.1 per cent in the age group 10-14 years and 1.4 per cent each in the age group of 0-4 years and 15-19 years respectively. Likewise, the maximum female literacy rates (2.1 per cent) was found in the age group of 15 to 19 years, followed by 1.4 per cent in the age group 5-9 years and 0.7 per cent each in the 0-4 years and 60 years and above.

Table No. 3

Literacy Rate – by Age and Sex Among Kamar

Age Group in Years	Illiterate Population			Literate Population			Grand Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)
0-4	9	12	21	2	1	3	11	13	24
	-6.3	-8.3	-14.6	-1.4	-0.7	-2.1	-7.6	-9	-16.6
9-May	3	11	14	5	2	7	8	13	21
	-2.1	-7.7	-9.8	-3.5	-1.4	-4.9	-5.6	-9	-14.6
14-Oct	2	5	7	3	0	3	5	5	10
	-1.4	-3.5	-4.9	-2.1	0	-2.1	-3.5	-3.5	-6.9
15-19	3	7	10	2	3	5	5	10	15
	-2.1	-4.9	-7	-1.4	-2.1	-3.5	-3.5	-6.9	-10.4
20-24	7	7	14	3	0	3	10	7	17
	-4.9	-4.9	-9.8	-2.1	0	-2.1	-6.9	-4.9	-11.8
25-29	8	6	14	0	0	0	8	6	14
	-5.6	-4.2	-9.8	0	0	0	-5.5	-4.2	-9.7
30-34	2	3	5	0	0	0	2	3	5
	-1.4	-2.1	-3.5	0	0	0	-1.4	-2.1	-3.5
35-39	2	3	5	0	0	0	2	3	5
	-1.4	-2.1	-3.5	0	0	0	-1.4	-2.1	-3.5
40-44	3	5	8	0	0	0	3	5	8
	-2.1	-3.5	-5.6	0	0	0	-2.1	-3.5	-5.6
45-49	6	4	10	0	0	0	6	4	10
	-4.2	-2.8	-7	0	0	0	-4.2	-2.8	-6.9
50-54	2	4	6	1	0	1	3	4	7
	-1.4	-2.8	-4.2	-0.7	0	-0.7	-2.1	-2.8	-4.9
55-59	3	2	5	0	0	0	3	2	5
	-2.1	-1.4	-3.5	0	0	0	-2.1	-1.4	-3.5
60+	1	1	2	0	1	1	1	2	3
	-0.7	-0.7	-1.4	0	-0.7	-0.7	-0.7	-1.4	-2.1
Total	51	70	121	16	7	23	67	77	144
	-35.4	-48.6	-84	-11.1	-4.9	-16	-46.5	-53.5	-100

Source: *Census of India, 1991.*

Literacy rate is usually considered as the indicator of socio-economic status of a social group. Due to inhabitation in interior area, primitiveness and poverty, literacy rate of Kamars in 1991 has been found to be low (23.9 per cent) when compared to the other tribal groups like Gonds (26.4 per cent), Abujhumarias (26.9

per cent), Jogia Tharus (29.4 per cent), Bhutias (35.4 per cent) and Taraos (48.9 per cent). Yet, the literacy rate of the Kamars has been comparatively higher (23.9 per cent) than that of Donguria Tharu (18.2 per cent), Sherpa (9.5 per cent) and Yanadi (8.3 per cent) tribal groups. Table no.4 shows the tribal literacy rate and general literacy rate in Madhya Pradesh as well as in India. It is found that tribal literacy rate is lower than the literacy rate of the general people. It is clear that tribal literacy rate as well as general literacy rate have increased between 1981 and 1991. In 1881 the Kamar literacy rate has been found to be lower (16.0 per cent) than the overall tribal literacy rate as well as the general literacy rate of both erstwhile Madhya Pradesh Pradesh and India.

Table No. 4

Comparative Tribal Literacy Rate and General Literacy rate in Madhya Pradesh and India

| Cenus | Literacy Rate in Madhya pradesh | | | | | |
| | Tribal Literacy Rate | | | General Literacy Rate | | |
Year	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1981	17.7	3.6	10.7	39.4	15.6	27.8
1991	32.2	10.7	21.5	58.4	28.9	44.2
Literacy Rate in India						
1981	24.5	8	16.4	56.5	29.9	43.7
1991	40.7	18.2	29.6	64.1	39.3	52.2

Reasons Behind Low Literacy

The following are found to be the reasons behind low literacy of the Kamars: (1) Most of the Kamars are facing acute financial problems and they are forced to withhold their children from school. From early age the Kamar children are involved in collection of food from their surroundings. (2) There are a number of religious and social taboos, which discourage them to join the school. Over and above this the higher caste Hindus mislead them explaining harmful aspects of education. (3) The illiterate Kamars believe that for special protection and care their children should stay at home. (4) The Kamar parents generally work for livelihood and they expect their children of school going age to look after the infants of the family. (5) The school timings which suit other children of the locality do not suit the Kamar children. (6) The Kamars being illiterate do not realize the importance of their children's education. (7) The schools in the Kamar region are sparsely distributed; school not being in one's village disinterests many Kamars to send their children to school. (8)

The problem of communication with others discourages many Kamars to send their children to school (Verga & Lanning, 1998; Steiner, 1999). (9) The outsider teachers are not liked by Kamar parents and children. (10) The textbooks that are meant for general students do not suit the Kamar children. those books are found drab and dull by them since they are not related to the socio-cultural life of the Kamars. (11) Most of the education policies for the Kamars suffer from adhocism and are of piecemeal nature; a sustained policy has been lacking. (12) The Kamar children face enormous language difficulty in the school, since they know only their dialect. (13) No serious adult education programme has been undertaken among the Kamars.

Conclusion

The present study concludes that Kamars are an isolated tribal group and their literacy rate is very low. Poor economic condition, illiteracy of parents, religious and social taboos, children being involved in livelihood, lack of school in every village, odd school timing, non-cooperative outsider-teachers, prescription of text book, non-tribal languages as the medium of instruction are some of the leading reasons that stand on the way of their education. The educational development of the tribals should form part of an integrated tribal development policy. The priority should be economic improvement of the tribals. When they are in better financial position, they are most likely to understand the importance of school education. Beside this, the provision of school in every village, free lunch and uniform, books in tribal languages and based on tribal culture, availability of teachers from the tribal community, suitable school timing, strong adult education policy and so forth will go a long way to enhance literacy rate of the tribals.

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STATUS OF LITERACY IN KARNATAKA

Chandrashekar E.

Education is a major input in the economic development of a nation. There is a enough evidence to show the contribution of education to economic growth, health status of citizen, etc. The right to education has been recognised as one of the most important human right. An UNICEF report talks of "a world where, increasingly, to be illiterate is to be excluded" (Radhakrishanan and Akila 1993). The declaration of the Nairobi world conference of the International Community of Education Association aptly recognised the human dimensions of education. The declaration says "we stand firm in the belief that education is not only learning how to read, write, add or subtract, though these are important elements of educational process. More importantly, education must support the task of making people – children, youth, adults – aware of their identity, of the problems, needs and aspirations and their resources. Education must also be catalyst and a channel for the initiative and creative resolve of the people to solve their problems and dismantle the apparatus and structures that hinder progress."

The economic benefits of investment in education are manifold. The World Bank's World Development Report 1991 has emphasised the "high returns" on investment in education. The following statements from the report sums up both social and economic benefits of educating people: "By improving people's ability to acquire and use information, education deepens an understanding of themselves and the world, enriches their minds by broadening their experiences and improves the choices they make as consumers, producers and citizens. Education strengthens their ability to meet their wants and those of their family by increasing their productivity and their potential to achieve a higher standard of living. By improving people's confidence and their ability to create and innovate, it multiples their opportunities for personal and social achievements. When schools open their doors wider to girls and women, the benefits from education multiply... countries which achieved near universal primary education for boys in 1965 but in which enrolment rates for girls lagged far behind have about twice the infant mortality and fertility rates."

The role of education becomes much more important in the wake of liberalisation, privatisation and globalisation. Under these conditions, only the well – read and healthy can awail of the available opportunities. Higher literacy levels played a major role in the success of "Asian Tigers".

Recognising the importance of education, universalisation of elementary education and elimination of adult illiteracy has been accepted as the basic objectives

of the education policy of India. During the seventh and eighth five year plans, primary education was given priority following the direction of the National Policy on Education 1986 (revised in 1992). District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) and the nutrition support to primary education (mid-day meals) were introduced during the eighth plan. The goal of the ninth plan is to make the nation fully literate by the year 2005 (Anonymous 1997). Launching of the National Literacy Mission (NLM) in 1988 was a breakthrough for the promotion of adult literacy. Imparting functional literacy to the illiterates in the age group of 15-35 by mobilising mass scale human resources, materials and administration is the objective of this programme. A mass campaign approach to literacy was adopted in 1989. For those who attained the literacy level, post-literacy and continuing education facilities have been included in the NLM.

As identified by the Government of Karnataka, the state has eighty lakh non-literates in the 9-35 age group. Total Literacy Campaign (TLC) was launched in 1990 in order to cover these non-literates. Initially it was launched in Dakshnia Kannada and Bijapur districts. By the end of 1935, 19 districts and 78.5 per cent illiterates were covered, though the target was to cover all the eighty lakh non-literates. The progress of TLC was not uniform. According to the reports of State Resource Centre, the achievement rates range between 80 and 16 per cent. While 89 per cent achievement could be observed in Dakshina Kannada, only 16 per cent achievement could be observed in Mysore district. Lack of positive moral support from the intellectuals and elected members of panchayti raj bodies, lack of coordination among the staff of Zilla Shiksha Smaities (ZSS) due to the delays are some of the reasons for the unequal achievements.

The present study makes an attempt to look at the status of literacy in Karnataka during the past five decades. The data are collected from the publications of the Directorate of Economics and Statistics. Census of India and various publications of the State Resource Centre. The position in Karnataka is compared with the other three southern states, namely, Kerala, Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh.

Literacy in Karnataka

Literacy in Karnataka has increased from a mere 20.31 per cent in 1951 to 67.04 per cent by 2001. In the case of male population it increased from 30.35 per cent to 76.29 per cent during the same period. Female literacy increased from 10.27 per cent to 57.45 per cent. However, 50 years of efforts could bring only 67 per cent of the population to a literate status which means 33 per cent of the people are still illiterate.

A district-wise analysis will be able to give an idea of the districts with a higher concentration of literacy. This analysis shows that the literacy rates within

the state varies from 83 per cent to 49 per cent according to the 2001 census. While Bangalore is the district with the highest literacy rate, Raichur has the lowest literacy rate in Karnataka.

Table No. 1

District wise literacy rate in Karnataka

District	% of Literates to Total Population			
	1971	1981	1991	2001
Bangalore (Urban)	42.72	51.3	76.27	83.91
Bangalore (Rural)	*	*	50.17	65
Chitradurga	31.45	38.3	55.48	64.88
Kolar	27.06	33.6	50.45	63.14
Shimoga	36.61	44.4	61.53	74.86
Tumkur	29.36	36.9	54.48	67.19
Belgaum	30.73	36.6	53	64.42
Bijapur	27.48	32	55.13	57.46
Dharwad	38.51	42.4	58.68	71.87
Uttara Kannada	40.65	48.3	66.73	76.59
Bellary	25.12	30.6	45.5	58.04
Bidar	20.02	26.4	45.11	61.98
Gulbarga	18.74	24.9	38.54	50.65
Raichur	20.2	24.7	35.96	49.54
Chikmagalur	34.93	43.5	61.05	72.63
Dakshina Kannada	43.45	53.5	75.86	83.47
Hassan	30.56	37.5	56.85	68.75
Kodagu	44.3	50.1	68.35	78.17
Mandya	22.51	30.4	48.15	61.21
Mysore	25.62	31.3	47.32	63.69
Bagalkot	*	*	52.2	57.81
Koppal	*	*	38.23	55.02
Gadaga	*	*	55.88	66.27
Haveri	*	*	56.1	68.09
Davanagere	*	*	55.96	67.67
Udupi	*	*	74.47	79.87
Chamarajanagar	*	*	38.19	51.26

Source: *Karnataka at a Glance, Directorate of Economics and Statistics*

Notes:

1. Data not available
2. Literacy rates for 1971 is effectively literacy rates based on census figures excluding the population below 4 years.
3. Literacy rates for 1981 and 1991 are based on census figure excluding population below 6 years.

Table No. 2

Male literacy rate in Karnataka

District	% of Male Literates to Total Population			
	1971	1981	1991	2001
Bangalore	59.03	74.83	82.94	82.94
Bangalore	*	55.5	61.51	74.43
Chitradurga	48.71	58.77	66.88	74.69
Kolar	42.08	53.04	62.69	73.14
Shimoga	53.46	64.28	71.24	82.32
Tumkur	45.95	57.99	66.49	76.88
Belgaum	49.8	58.7	66.65	75.89
Bijapur	47.41	55.62	69.69	68.1
Dharwad	59.92	66.2	71.37	81.04
Uttara Kannada	57.67	68.91	76.39	84.48
Bellary	41.09	50.93	58.71	69.59
Bidar	36.9	46.85	58.97	73.29
Gulbarga	34.17	44.54	52.08	62.52
Raichur	36.45	43.99	49.53	62.02
Chikmagalur	50.91	62.5	70.56	80.68
Dakshina	61.51	74	84.4	89.74
Hassan	47.93	58.2	68.57	78.29
Kodagu	57.62	66.38	75.35	83.8
Mandya	36.91	48.46	59.18	70.71
Mysore	38.26	46.91	56.23	71.3
Bagalkot	*	*	67.07	71.31
Koppal	*	*	53.47	69.15
Gadaga	*	*	71.63	79.55
Haveri	*	*	68.05	77.94
Davanagere	*	*	66.82	76.44
Udupi	*	*	83.58	96.59
Chamarajanagar	*	*	47.31	59.25

Source: *Karnataka at a Glance, Directorate of Economics and Statistics*

Notes:

1. Data not available
2. Literacy rates for 1971 is effectively literacy rates based on census figures excluding the population below 4 years.
3. Literacy rates for 1981 and 1991 are based on census figure excluding population below 6 years.

Table No. 3

Female literacy rate in Karnataka

District	% of Female Literates to Total Population			
	1971	1981	1991	2001
Bangalore (Urban)	38.7	56.4	68.81	78.98
Bangalore (Rural)	*	31.27	38.51	55.12
Chitradurga	23.62	37.72	43.36	54.62
Kolar	19.96	26.93	37.75	52.81
Shimoga	31.67	41.41	51.42	64.24
Tumkur	21.29	29.94	41.93	57.18
Belgaum	21.5	28.96	38.69	52.53
Bijapur	16.84	22.43	40.06	46.19
Dharwad	29.4	36.23	45.2	62.2
Uttara Kannada	36.49	46.55	56.77	68.48
Bellary	17.04	23.43	31.97	46.1
Bidar	10.44	17.11	30.53	50.01
Gulbarga	10.19	15.99	24.49	38.4
Raichur	10.99	16.14	22.15	36.84
Chikmagalur	29.74	40.47	51.31	64.47
Dakshina Kannada	40.5	52.99	67.96	77.39
Hassan	23.15	31.57	44.9	59.32
Kodagu	43.88	51	61.22	72.53
Mandya	15.3	23.82	36.7	51.62
Mysore	20.56	27.35	37.95	55.81
Bagalkot	*	*	37.13	44.1
Koppal	*	*	22.78	40.76
Gadaga	*	*	39.68	52.58
Haveri	*	*	43.28	57.6
Davanagere	*	*	44.41	58.45
Udupi	*	*	66.64	74.02
Chamarajanagar	*	*	28.6	43.02

Source: *Karnataka at a Glance, Directorate of Economics and Statistics*

Notes:

1. Data not available
2. Literacy rates for 1971 is effectively literacy rates based on census figures excluding the population below 4 years.
3. Literacy rates for 1981 and 1991 are based on census figure excluding population below 6 years.

Strategies for Rapid Growth

Following strategies may be adopted for rapid growth of literacy in Karnataka in the current decade:

Government should pronounce its commitment for literacy and instruct its officials and functionaries accordingly at all levels to sincerely implement it.

There should be regular and honest review of progress of implementation at all levels.

Professionals and experts be associated for effective implementation of literacy programme.

Panchyati Raj institutions be actively involved in implementation and monitoring of the programme.

For motivating people from minority communities to come forward and associate themselves with expansion of literacy, it is essential to attract social activists, philanthropists and educated women from among the minority and activists.

Active involvement of retired personnel as well as teachers through their organizations will help in widening the base of volunteers and activists.

Electronic and print media have to be utilised for creating literacy friendly environment and breaking communication barriers.

Above mentioned strategies will attract people's representatives to literacy programme, motivate persons to develop stake in literacy, penetrate more effectively among minorities and females and attract local leaders, NGOs, and retired persons towards furtherance of the cause of literacy.

It is evident from the details given in preceding pages that Karnataka State has achieved good success in the area of literacy during the last decade (1991-2000), but still a lot needs to be done for making the state a fully literate state of Indian Union.

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LITERACY MOVEMENTS FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Ashwani Sharma

India is a vast country with a population of one billion. Its land size is quite large i.e. 3,287,263 sq. km. According to the Census of India, 2001, it has 65.38 per cent literacy rate. Out of this 75.85 per cent are males and 54.16 per cent are females. At the time of independence India inherited a system of education, which was characterized by large scale inter and intra-regional imbalances. A small section of the society availed of education, whereas majority of the people were left out. At the time of the independence the country's male literacy rate was merely 14 per cent and female 1 per cent. Illiteracy of the masses was called a shame and sin by the father of nation, Mahatma Gandhi, and there had been nationalistic efforts even before independence to eradicate illiteracy. But despite that cent per cent literacy of the Indian people has been elusive.

Soon after independence the Indian leadership realized that no development -- scientific, technological, economic, agricultural, rural, or overall social -- was possible unless illiteracy was eradicated. The need for a literate population and universal education for all children was recognized as a crucial input for nation building and was put on the national agenda in the constitution and in the Five Year Plans.

A growing realization of the urgency by the nation to make its population literate and sensitize the existing illiterate millions about the process of progress and change led the successive governments to launch various adult education programmes, such as 'Social Education' (1952), 'Farmers Functional Literacy Programme' (1968), 'Functional Literacy for Women' (1975), Non-formal Education for Youth (1975), and the National Adult Education Programme (NAEP) (1978) and so forth. All these programmes, except NAEP, were not so well coordinated. Hence they could not produce the desired results. Even the NAEP was too scattered and the element of accountability was missing. There was more emphasis on supply side and less attention on the demand side, which ultimately made the Government of India wash off its hands from the Programme in a few years time. The need of a new programme was felt to achieve total literacy in the country within a time frame. This resulted in the launching of the National Literacy Mission (NLM) in 1988.

National Literacy Mission

After reviewing the various adult education programmes of the 1960s and 1970s, the Government of India decided to opt for the NLM to achieve cent per

cent literacy. The focus was on literacy in the rural areas; within this special concern was for women and weaker sections belonging to Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe categories. The attempt was to overhaul the earlier adult literacy programmes. It gave a fresh boost to the literacy drive. The mission reflected a political commitment of the nation to achieve total literacy. The Mission was comprehensive and it adopted two-pronged strategy:

Universalisation of elementary education for children in the age group of 6-14 years.

Literacy programmes for adults in the age group of 15-35 years. This age group was considered to be the most productive group which could contribute to the national development programmes.

The NLM emphasized on re-orientation of the adult education functionaries and improved and standardized the learning materials on reading, writing and arithmetic skills. It also stressed upon the institutionalization of post-literacy and continuing education programmes through *Jan Chetna Kendras*, which would have library, reading room, evening classes, discussion centres and most importantly, information on welfare schemes. All these facilities were missing in the earlier programmes. That is why many neo-literate learners soon relapsed into illiteracy. The NLM is committed to avoid this drawback and aims at equipping all illiterate adults with functional literacy and achieving total literacy by 2005. The functional literacy implies:

Self-reliance in literacy and numeracy skills;

Awareness of the causes of one's deprivation and moving towards their amelioration through organization and participation in the process of development;

Acquisition of skills to improve one's economic status and achieve general well being;

Imbibing values of national integration, conservation of environment, women's equality, observance of small family norms, right age of marriage, ensuring scientific temper etc.

Total Literacy Campaigns

Keeping in view the above objectives, the NLM adopted a campaign mode of which the features are: massive and total area approach, involvement of the entire community, development of a large number of volunteers, cooperation of volunteers and bureaucrats, very high commitment and productivity. The feasibility of launching the Total Literacy Campaign (TLC) was first tested in districts which already had high rate of literacy and where the socio-cultural climate was highly supportive of universal literacy. Ernakulam in Kerala was one such district. The experiment there made the government confident of undertaking total literacy campaign on a nationwide basis. Kottayam in Ernakulam, thus, became the first town to be literate through campaign mode in 1990. The Kottayam success was followed by a similar campaign in the whole of Kerala state and all people in the age group of 6-60 became literate. The success of Kerala greatly encouraged the Government of India to embark upon a country-wide programme without delay. The government charted the massive programme in a phased manner.

The TLCs yielded tremendous results. From census data it is seen that the percentage of literacy in the country rose from 52.20 in 1991 to 65.38 in 2001. The increase in one decade is thus 13.18 per cent.

This is an extraordinary spurt against the sluggish previous decadal trend since independence, as shown below:

Table No. 1

Decadal Growth of Literacy 1951-2001

Year	Literacy Percentage	Decadal Growth
1951	18.3	
1961	28.3	10
1971	34.4	6.1
1981	43.5	9.1
1991	52.2	8.7
2001	65.49	13.49

Source: *Census of India (Series 1), 2001*

The most important aspect of the literacy campaigns is the rise in female literacy between 1991 and 2001, which rose by 14.87 per cent, whereas male literacy rate during the same period rose by 11.72 per cent only as is shown in table below:

Table 2

Male/Female Literacy rate 1981-2001 (in percentage)

Census year	Total literacy	Male literacy	Female literacy	M/F gap in literacy rate
1981	43.57	56.38	29.76	26.62
1991	52.2	64.13	39.29	24.84
2001	65.38	75.85	54.16	21.7

N.B. The literacy rate excludes Assam when the 1981 census could not be conducted. 1991 literacy rate excludes J&K where the 1991 census could not be conducted due to disturbed conditions

Source: *Census of India, 1981, 1991, 2001.*

As can be seen in Table no.2, female literacy rate grew phenomenally compared to male literacy rate (9.5 per cent as against 7.8) per cent. Another noticeable point is more rapid growth of literacy in rural areas during 1991-2001 compared to previous decades.

The literacy campaigns in India are not restricted to imparting basic literacy skills to the learners. Beyond basic literacy there are post-literacy and continuing education programmes, which help the learners to upgrade and strengthen their basic literacy skills. All these are done with the help of a group of volunteers, who are appointed at the district level. The volunteers commonly known as trainers – mostly teachers and students drawn from schools and colleges – teach the illiterates. To orient them for the latter programmes training courses are organized, which focus on the following issues:

Importance of literacy

Adult psychology

Teaching of primers

Organizational aspects like documentation, filing reports, timing and venue of classes

Continuous evaluation of the learning outcomes of the learners as per NLM norms

Convergence with development programme

Development of communication skills

Imparting vocational skills

Many a time programmes in pilot phases are also organized. The objective of such programmes is to make the functionaries aware of the different aspects of the campaign. These programmes are participatory in nature where discussion takes place on various common issues, especially concerning rural development. The interaction and exchange of ideas afforded to the trainees in the training programme help them as volunteers deal with the issues of rural India effectively.

A Step Towards Development

The focus of literacy campaigns in India is to transform the Indian society with a view to overall national development. In the whole programme of literacy campaign, a crucial place of interaction and information is the literacy centre. Activities related to education and development take place at the centre under the supervision of the trained volunteer teacher. The training of volunteers is planned in such a way that the volunteers use the literacy centre as a platform for overall development of the locality concerned. Training courses are also organized for the officials of the developmental departments to enlighten them on the objectives of the literacy campaign. This has helped the literacy campaigns to be well coordinated with various developmental programme of rural India. The literacy campaigns are, therefore, not only creating a learning society, they are also linked with development and change in the society. Some of the indications of development and change effected by the literacy campaigns could be seen in the areas of health, sanitation, food, housing and agriculture.

Programmes in these areas have been the highlights of the post-literacy campaigns in the Kotkpura Block (comprising 84 villages) of Punjab, which the present author has observed closely. This programme is presently being run by a group of 12 people without any official assistance. They have created logistics to

promote self-learning among the neo-literates. They are running post-literacy centres where people assemble and discuss their individual and local problems with a view to find solution. The literacy workers have been playing an important role in the whole programme. Before the start of the programme, in one of these villages there were two communities, who had hatred for each other. Tension between them had been brewing for the last 50 years, which froze all developmental activities. Thanks to the initiative and intervention of the literacy workers, one day they decided to thrash out the differences, live together and work together for each other's development. The literacy centre has therefore not only contributed to the economic well being of the neo-literates, it has also helped in social harmony among them.

Literacy campaign has generated a need of vocational guidance of the neo-literates. The adult learners want to learn vocational skills to enhance their income. Due to lack of awareness they have been often unable to approach right persons and right places. The study circles established in these centres now cater to this need of the learners. With the help of volunteer teachers, arrangements are made for vocational training for the learners in carpet weaving, caning of chairs, tailoring, purse making, leather bag making and so on. There has been great enthusiasm among the learners to learn these trades. Finding the courses most advantageous, the learners are keen for the continuity of the courses; they are now even ready to pay fee for them. As a result of these trainings, now one can find small industrial units in the house of almost every adult learner. Marketing facilities being provided to them sustains their ventures.

Libraries have also been established in the Kotkura Block project. In those libraries magazines, journals and newspapers suited to the neo-literate learners are kept. There are also literature on various developmental matters. The literature and other information available in the libraries afford the learners to discuss various schemes among themselves and contact the concerned departments for assistance. Special reference may be made of a small booklet prepared by the agriculture department, which gives detailed information regarding variety of seeds, fertilizers, insecticides and the provision of government help. This booklet has been in great demand among the neo-literates.

Likewise, a social forestry project is underway in Hoshiarpur district of Punjab where continuing education project is being run by the district administration. Under the literacy campaign the importance of trees and the results of deforestation in the environment are explained to the learners. This instantly appealed to the adult learners. In the initial stages the district administration encouraged them by supplying the saplings, but thereafter people have developed their own nurseries. They have

themselves turned into suppliers of saplings from those nurseries. Since Hoshiarpur is situated at the foothills of Shivaliks, lot of soil erosion occurs due to heavy rains and flow of seasonal rivulets turning the land unfit for agriculture. Awareness has developed among the people in general and adult learners in particular on the significance of forestation as an answer to soil erosion. Now the learners regularly invite experts from the forest department to the literacy centre for interaction, where discussions are held on aspects of aforestation.

The literacy campaigns in India are also focusing to a large extent on the literacy and upliftment of women, who for ages have been suppressed in numerous ways. The programme for them under the literacy campaigns have certainly enhanced their status. The women have now a better social recognition. Now they decide the size of their families, decide about the education of their children and are more aware about certain deadly diseases and their cure. The women are also now better organized. They have started earning and supplementing to the income of their families. The literacy rate has risen from 39.3 per cent in 1991 to 54 per cent in 2001 and has thus empowered the women.

The literacy campaigns in India, in fine, have certainly changed the society. Efforts were made to link literacy with overall development in those areas, where there was high rate of illiteracy and high density of population. People in general and adult learners in particular are now better aware of developmental matters, organized and self-reliant in many respects. The beneficiaries now feel safe – economically, politically and socially.

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IMPROVING QUALITY OF LIFE OF THE PEOPLE THROUGH LITERACY PROGRAMMES

Arun Kumar Bahuguna

Literacy, which is defined as the ability to read and write with understanding, increased slowly before Independence in India, but thereafter it increase at a faster pace. Literacy, and more so female literacy, is still low in India. However, the figures suggest that there has been considerable increase in the literacy rate and the gap between the male and female rates is narrowing. Literacy percentage is the most important measure for the achievement of progress of a nation.

Table No. 1

Status of Literacy in India 1901-2001

Year of Census	Literacy Percentage		
	Male	Female	Total
1901	9.8	0.6	5.4
1911	10.6	1.1	5.9
1921	12.2	1.8	7.2
1931	15.6	2.9	9.5
1941	24.9	7.3	16.1
1951	24.9	7.9	16.7
1961	34.4	13	24
1971	39.5	18.7	29.5
1981	46.9	24.8	36.2
1991	63.9	39.4	52.1
2001	75.85	54.16	65.38

In India, according to the analysis of data figure, progress has been made in the field of literacy at all levels. Literacy has now reached 65.38 percent, which includes 75.85 males and 54.16 per cent females.

Adult educators have accepted for at least the past century that the skills of literacy are not ends in themselves, but need to serve the same purpose and practice that is important to their users. Literacy and livelihood are closely related to each other. The attempts to tie them closely and even derive from them livelihoods began at least three decades ago with UNESCO's pioneering attempt to integrate literacy

and livelihoods in its experimental World Literacy Programme, after the Tehran Conference in 1965.

The revised recommendations concerning the International Standardization of Education Statistics (UNESCO 1978) considers "a person literate who can with understanding both Read and Write a Short Simple Statement on his Everyday Life".

The Literacy Programme is a part of the Adult Education Programme, which is based on the needs, interests and problems of the target group, which alone can serve the basic concept of Adult Education. The programme is flexible because of the diversity in the target groups, but it does not have unplanned implementation. The goal of this whole activity is only to link adult education to the lives, occupation and consciousness of the target group is conformity with their nation, time, period and circumstances. The concept and programmes of Adult Education have developed a great deal since India achieved Independence in 1947. The need for adult education is being increasingly recognized, particularly in the area of development. After Independence, a new beginning was made for the balanced and multi-dimensional development of the nation, and sufficient stress was laid on community development in order to achieve the desired objectives.

The National Adult Education Programme (N.A.E.P.) was launched all over the country on 2nd October, 1978. The policy statement on Adult Education was given a final shape within a period of two years (1977-79). The policy statement on adult education states that: (a) Illiteracy is a serious impediment to an individual's growth and to the country's socio-economic progress; (b) Education is not coterminous with schooling, but takes place is most work and life situations; (c) Learning, working and living are inseparable and each acquires a meaning only when correlated with the other; (d) The means by which people are involved in the process of development are at least as important as the ends, and, (e) The illiterate and the poor can rise to their own liberation through literacy, dialogue and action. The NAEP had three components: Literacy, Awareness, and Functionality.

The programme envisaged involvement of schools, colleges, universities and N.G.O.'s. The Adult Education Programme was included as an essential component of the minimum needs programmes in the VI Five Year Plan, and was also included in the 20 Point Programme of the Prime Minister.

In 1988, five Technology Missions were started and the National Literacy Mission (NLM) was one of them. The N.L.M. was established on May 5, 1988 with an objective to impart Functional Literacy to Non-literates in 15-35 age group to

achieve this objective, and NLM has implemented the Total Literacy Campaigns (TLC).

NLM acts as the nodal agency working for the eradication of illiteracy. When Ernakulum district (Kerla) achieved the distinction of becoming the first fully literate State in the country, we understood the concept of TLC. It is the first phase of a major societal campaign which is systematically followed up by a second phase having the Post Literacy Programme (PLP) as its component. The target was to impart functional Literacy to 8 crore illiterate adults in the age group 15-35 by the year 1990 and the remaining 5 crore illiterates were ascertained to be made literate by the year 1995. Various Government, Non-government, University, ZSS, SRC and other agencies have participated to achieve this target.

Main Elements of Total Literacy Campaign are: Area based, time bound, cost-effective, outcome oriented and volunteer based. Post Literacy and Continuing Education is very important to sustain the acquired literacy and to enhance it further.

Objectives of PLP

The beneficiaries of PLP will not only be neo-literates of TLC but also all literates with limited learning abilities and Non-Formal and Formal Education dropouts. To formulate post literacy programmes for those neo-literates who could not achieve the prescribed basic norms of literacy (Reading, writing and arithmetic) and now wish to reach these norms; to impart competence in language, mathematics etc., and to achieve these norms. The National Literacy Mission (NLM) recognizes that in the areas completing (PLP) Post Literacy Programmes there should be diverse kinds of Constituting Education. To achieve the goals of learning in society, NLM decided to implementing the Continuing Education Programmes. According to the UNESCO report, learning society is one in which all agencies of society are educational providers, not just those whose primary responsibility is education. During the second meeting of Asia Pacific Programme of Education for All (APPEAL) in 1990 in Bangkok, it was decided to divide Continuing Education into the six categories: 1. Post Literacy Programme, 2. Equivalency Programme, 3. Quality of Life Improvement Proramme, 4. Income Generating Programme, 5. Individual Interest Promotion Programme, 6. Future Oriented Continuing Education Programme.

Literacy and Quality of Life

Illiteracy may not be ignorance, but it is certainly a disadvantage at the present moment. Without Literacy we cannot improve the level of living, the socio-

economic level, the political system, life styles, the process of development, human resource development and, ultimately, the quality of lives of the people. Literacy is an enabler of the processes of international ideologies, conceptualization of future social possibilities and developing solidarity with others. Literacy assists is understanding systems and structures, and is the control and utilization of strategies and tactics of organization. The Neo-literate may be lightly knowledgeable and impressively skilled, but there is a limit to further progress and to the acquisition of more modern knowledge and skills. Therefore, literacy will be needed; will be essential for living, learning, working and participating in futures. Literacy will improve knowledge, attitudes and skills; politicize; provide pride in self, and in one's cultural identity, and prepare people for self generated change. The campaign strategy is also an excellent mechanism for collaboration between, and among, communities.

Literacy and Empowerment

Literacy must target the larger context of empowering the powerless. At another level, the dialectical relationship between literacy and its social, economic political and cultural context should be understood. Literacy is a tool of empowerment and constitutes the best alternations. Literacy is the essential skill in the empowering process and, thereby, in the developmental process. Literacy may infact be an advantage for the Non-literate as protection against incorporation by the outside exploitative systems. Literacy efforts empower the poor and deprived group of the population.

In the functional literacy programme, literacy is integrated with the occupation of an adult so as to develop his skills as a producer. Functional literacy can help in training the participants with the necessary knowledge and skill so that they can act more efficiently. Adult Education through functional literacy will help to increase the productive capacity of an illiterate adult through work oriented literacy training.

Literacy and Income Generation Programmes

Income generating programmes are one of the four target-specific functional programmes visualized by NLM as a part of Continuing Education. These are those Vocational and Technical Education Programmes which help participants to acquire or upgrade vocational skills and enable them to conduct income-generating activities. These can be a wide variety of income generating programmes delivered in a variety of contexts taking into account the local needs and interest of the learners. In the regions which have completed TLCs, and PLCs, there is a large demand for those

Continuing Education Programme (CEP) which focus on equipping the people with knowledge, skills and values so that they are able to use these for improving their capacity to generate income. Achievement of literacy also resulted in raising the aspirations of people to improve their living conditions.

Literacy and Human Resource Development

Literacy is considered as an agent of change and is vital for people to go ahead and progress. Human resource development is accepted as an essential component of all developmental activities. For this purpose, education becomes the capital input. It is a powerful tool for social, economic and political change, national integration, economic growth and population control. The strength of any organization is its people. If people are attended to properly recognizing their talents, developing their capabilities and utilizing them appropriately, they are likely to be dynamic and grow fast.

Human development is the process of enlarging people's choices, by expanding human functioning and capabilities. It represents a process as well as an end. At all levels of development the three essential capabilities for people are to lead a long and healthy life, to be knowledgeable, and to have access to the resources needed for a decent standard of living.

Literacy and Livelihood

Poor countries need growth to generate the resources to finance the eradication of poverty and the realization of human rights. Poverty eradication is a major human rights challenge of the twenty-first century leading to a decent standard of living, adequate nutrition, health care and education. Vocational educators have long accepted that without a sufficient mastery of reading, writing and elementary mathematics learners cannot take more than limited advantage of possibilities to enhance their knowledge skills and capacities. Literacy training is strongly linked to improvement in several domains including agricultural production and other revenue generating skills, as well as enhanced managerial skills among members of agricultural cooperatives. 'Livelihood' itself means access to the knowledge, skills and methods used to produce or obtain the food, water, clothing and shelter necessary for survival and well being, whether the economy is substance or a mixture of both. 'Livelihood' seems more appropriate than either "employment" or "income generating activities". A livelihood can include more than one set of knowledge skills and methods. Occupational training, income generating activities and, through Continuing Education, vocational courses along with literacy programme are necessary for livelihood.

Literacy promotes sustainable livelihoods and development. "The six main principles of the sustainable livelihoods approach are that it must be, People Centred, holistic, dynamic, building on strengths, sustainable, generating micro-macro links which are linked to a frame work, which provides a conceptual tool for understanding the context in which people live". (DFID, Kathmandu Conference, December 2002).

Literacy and Urban Development

The literacy campaign aims not just to enable people to read and write, but acquaint them with their rights and duties, and to improve their quality of living standards. Literacy programme stresses, especially, on benefiting the poor and backward classes. It also includes the civil obligations by virtue of which the individual sustains his successful participation in the society.

Rapid population growth and illiteracy are among the crucial problems faced by many developing countries including India. There are many problems in an urban setting due to over population. These are: illiteracy, poverty, diseases, problems of sanitation, unemployment and malnutrition. As a result of rapid growth of the population, rapid industrialisation and urbanization is spreading fast all over the world today. Literacy and adult education programmes can play a vital role in tackling the problems of the urban people and those who are living in deprived condition, the lower income group, women groups, those belonging to deprived sections, or are socio-economically backward. Adult Education has to play specific roles in urban and industrial development.

In the urban sector there are various categories of the target group in the adult literacy programme which are: urban poor, deprived workers, handicapped and disabled, unemployed, aged, drug addicts, prisoners. There are different activities of the literacy programme to create an awareness among the above mentioned groups: literacy, functional literacy, legal literacy, health education, skill development, income generation, self employment, population awareness. These activities envisage an awareness on the part of adult learners so that they are competent to take concrete action to solve their problems because 'literacy' is the ability of a person.

The programmes of basic literacy, T.L.C., P.L.P. and Continuing Education are to improve the economic condition of the people of the weaker section, especially among the urban deprived community. They acquire necessary knowledge and skills, which are necessary for the solution of their problems. These literacy activities help the beneficiaries to participate effectively in the process of development, and to bring about attitudinal changes in their outlook. The programme of literacy would

also help provide them with knowledge regarding other developmental activities and the necessary skills to equip them with the latest information. Thus, literacy is the fundamental base to improve quality of life of the people and sustainable livelihoods. These are various factors to improve sustainable livelihoods. 'Literacy' is the strongest factor of them all.

At last, it is suggested in this article that literacy and income generating activities and livelihood are integrated. So it is needed to strengthen them so that the literacy programmes serve the rural as well as deprived urban areas. There should be closer linkages between national, state and district level structures concerned with literacy.

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EMERGENT SCENARIO OF CONTINUING EDUCATION IN INDIA

V. Reghu

Continuing education programme is necessary in India to strengthen the developmental and democratic processes. Basic literacy programmes have paved the way for post-literacy programmes and continuing education programmes in our country. Continuing education needs redefinition, revitalization and certain clarifications. National Literacy Mission (NLM) has defined continuing education (CE) and listed a variety of programmes and activities. Many conventional universities and open universities have also non-conventional courses which they call CE programmes. These do not match with the former in terms of contents and quality.

According to International Dictionary of Education (1979) continuing education is defined as "extension of education, part-time or full time for young people and adults beyond the school-leaving age; concept of some form of structural educational processes throughout an individual's life."

In the Indian context CE programmes have come to be seen primarily as continuation of different levels of "literacy programmes" launched in the country. The National Policy on Education (1986) wanted the programme of adult and continuing education to be implemented through the following modalities:

Establishment of centres in rural areas for CE;

Worker's education through the employers, trade unions and government agencies;

Post-secondary education institutions;

Wider promotion of books, libraries and reading rooms;

Use of radio, TV and films for mass and group learning;

Creation of learners' groups and organizations;

Programmes of distance learning;

Providing assistance in self-learning; and

Organizing need and interest based vocational training programmes.

Many of the programmes and activities mentioned above have not been implemented in full earnest. But it is a fact that drastic changes have taken place in the field of literacy in the country through the programmes of NLM in the last one decade.

The Growth of Literacy

The census figures of India of 2001 shows that literacy in the country rose from 52.21 per cent in 1991 to 65.38 per cent in 2001. According to the NLM estimate by 2005, the percentage is going to be 71.

Literacy in India 1991-2005

Year	Age Group	Population (in millions)	Literates (in millions)	Literacy Rates
1991	7+	688.16	359.28	52.21%
2001	7+	866.89	566.7	65.38%
2005 Estimates	7+	936	665	71.00%
2005 Target	7+	936	702	75.00%

It is expected that by 2005 India will achieve 75 per cent literacy. When compared with the northern part of the country, south has better record to show. Phenomenal rise in literacy necessitates steps to be taken to meet the learning needs of the literate population and others through effective CE programmes.

With a view to drive this need further, some of the salient features of the Census (2001) related to literacy are given below:

The literacy rate in the country has increased to 65.38 per cent, which reflects an overall increase of 13.18 per cent, the fastest decadal growth ever. This is the highest rate since Independence.

The male literacy rate has increased to 75.85 per cent (increase of 11.72 per cent) and the female literacy to 54.16 per cent; the latter has increased at a much faster rate of 14.87 per cent.

The male-female literacy gap has reduced from 24.84 per cent in 1991 to 21.70 per cent in 2001. Mizoram has the smallest gap (4.56 per cent) followed by Kerala (7.45 per cent) and Meghalaya (8.27 per cent).

All States and Union Territories without exception have shown increase in literacy rates during 1991-2001.

In the previous decades, there has been a continuous increase in the number of illiterates, despite the increase in the literacy rates, but now for the first time the total number of illiterates has come down by 31 million. The number of literate persons has increased to 562.01 million in 2001 thus adding an additional 203.61 million literates in the country.

All-India Status of literacy, 2001

On the basis of literacy rate, State/UTs can be grouped as under:

States/UTs with high profile, i.e., literacy rate 80 per cent and above – Kerala (90.92), Mizoram (88.49), Lakshadweep (87.52), Goa (82.32), Delhi (81.82), Chandigarh (81.76), Pondicherry (81.49), Andaman and Nicobar Islands (81.18) and Daman and Diu (81.09).

States/UTs with medium level, i.e., literacy rate above national average (65.4 per cent) but below (80 per cent) – Maharashtra (77.27), Himachal Pradesh (77.13), Tripura (73.66), Tamil Nadu (73.47), Uttaranchal (72.28), Gujarat (69.97), Punjab (69.75), Sikkim (69.68), West Bengal (69.22), Manipur (68.87), Haryana (68.59), Nagaland (67.11) and Karnataka (67.04).

States/UTs of low profile, i.e., literacy rate below national average (65.4 per cent) – Chattisgarh (65.18), Assam (64.28), Madhya Pradesh (64.11), Orissa (63.61), Meghalaya (63.31), Andhra Pradesh (31.11), Rajasthan (61.03), Dadra and Nagar Haveli (60.03), Uttar Pradesh (57.36), Arunachal Pradesh (54.74), Jammu & Kashmir (54.4), Jharkhand (54.13) and Bihar (47.53).

The South Records Better

When compared with North India the literacy situation in South India is comparatively better. The literacy situation of various Southern States and UTs are shown in percentage below.

Percentage of Literacy in States/UTs in South India in 2001

States/UTs	Total	Male	Female	Difference	Rural	Urban	Difference (R&U)
Kerala	90.92	94.2	87.86	6.34	90.05	93.38	3.33
Tamilnadu	73.47	82.33	64.55	17.78	66.66	82.07	15.41
Andhra Pradesh	61.11	70.85	51.17	19.68	55.33	76.39	21.06
Karnataka	67.04	76.29	57.45	18.84	59.68	81.05	21.37
Goa	82.32	88.88	75.51	13.37	79.65	85.03	5.38
Lakshadweep	87.52	93.15	81.56	11.59	79.65	85.03	5.38
Pondicherry	81.49	88.89	74.13	14.76	74.28	85.05	10.77
Andaman & Nicobar Islands	81.18	86.07	75.29	10.78	78.55	86.48	7.93
India	65.38	75.85	54.16	21.69	59.34	80.33	20.99

Andhra Pradesh is the only State of the South where the literacy figures are below the national average. Involvement of NGOs, participation of local self-government, infrastructure facilities for the literacy programme, favourable government policies, support of the media (print and electronic), conducive environment and political will of the government are some of the factors which strengthen literacy and CE programmes in the country. The existing gap in urban-rural literacy is also an important factor.

The urban-rural difference in Kerala is the lowest (3.33), whereas in Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka it is more than 21. Appropriate programmes are to be planned in future to reduce the difference.

Inadequacy of Continuing Education Programme

According to the latest data of the Directorate of Adult Education, Government of India, the number of districts covered by the NLM was 563 out of a total of 599, which makes 94 per cent. The number of districts under TLC is 174 or 29.05 per cent of the total number of districts. The districts under the PLP are 188, i.e. 31.39 per cent and the districts under the CEP are 201, which forms the percentage of 33.56. These statistics show that there remains much to be done in respect of PLP and CEP.

The concept of Post Literacy and Continuing Education has had a gradual change in the Indian situation. According to *Learning To Be*, the famous UNESCO report of 1972, "a learning society is one in which all agencies in the society are educational providers, and not just those whose primary responsibility is to provide education, in brief in a learning society all citizens are engaged in learning."

The Asia-Pacific Programme of Education for All (APPEAL) (1980) visualized a programme of human development through education. It is defined continuing education as a "broad-based concept, which includes all the learning opportunities all people want or need outside of basic literacy and primary education." APPEAL categorized the following six types of Continuing Education:

1.   Post Literacy Programmes (PLPs)

2.   Equivalency Programmes (EPs)

3.   Quality of Life Improvement Programmes (QLIPs)

4.   Income Generating Programmes (IGPs)

5.   Individual Interest Promotion Programmes (IIPPs)

6.   Future Oriented Continuing Programmes (FOPs)

Post literacy is a type of Continuing Education which maintains and enhances the basic literacy skills of the learner, and enables him to function effectively in the society. In the Indian context Post Literacy Programmes are seen as a foundation programme to strengthen the learners for the next phase of learning whereas EPs, IGPs, IIPPs and QLIPs are taken as target specific functional programmes. Field experiences show that IGPs have been common in the continuing education phase and EPs were organized on experimental basis in several States.

Need-based Continuing Education

The ongoing programmes need further modifications according to the needs of the States/UTs. It has been found that the famous Ernakulam experiment cannot always be duplicated in other districts of the country because of its distinctiveness in many respects. We have to develop specific programmes of CE according to the local needs and based on past experiences. Some of the areas which may be taken into account while planning CE are given below:

Programme for women: Women constitute nearly half the population, and their education influences the basic development of the society. In an andocentric society, special attention needs to be given to the education of women. Most of the women's education programmes are planned, managed and monitored by men, who ignore the specific needs and interest of women. Women in Kerala were meek participant in such programmes earlier. However, later they came out to frame programmes according their taste and needs. As a result they gradually occupied the position of functionaries. Now many women are among the decision makers of continuing education programmes in the state. The programmes need to concentrate on skill development, and economic development of women.

Information on technological changes: Innovations and changes in technology should be incorporated in CE programmes, wherever possible and necessary. We have institutions like engineering colleges, polytechnics, Indian Institutes of Technology and so forth, which deal with technological advances and relate them to societal needs. There is scope of collaboration with such institutions at state, regional and district levels. The programmes however need to be carefully planned. Application of science and technology sometimes becomes a threat to our environment. A good programme can, instead of causing damage, educate the masses on the issue of environment.

Open learning infrastructure: The concept of equivalency programme should be enlarged for the benefit of the neo-literates. The system of open school and open university are to be incorporated in the present CE programmes aiming at further educational development of the learners. New areas of learning, and skill development using appropriate technology need to be attended to while developing the programmes. In this attention to specific needs of the learners with a view to their economic and social development of the learners is important.

Employment of local self-governments and NGOs: People's participation is one of the indicators of success of CE programmes. This can be ensured through active participation of local self-governments and NGOs. These agencies play an important role in identifying local needs, mobilizing local human and material resources, and in motivating people. The scope of involvement of these agencies is great, especially in view of nation-building at the grassroot level.

Necessity of Political Will: The success of any massive programme depends on the political will of the government concerned. There are institutions and agencies to conduct the programmes. But the concrete policies of the political parties favouring, encouraging and strengthening the programme are rare. When political parties

formulate their policies, they should pay special attention to the educational programme of the country with special reference to mass programmes, like TLC/PLP/CEP etc. Such interest will enlarge and strengthen the concept of democracy and people's participation in the national life.

Institutionalisation of effort: The basic literacy programme, especially TLC are undertaken in a "campaign mode", whereas the CE is conducted in an institutional mode. There is need of coordination between the two. Post-literacy programmes have been envisaged to fill up the gap. But, unfortunately the need of coordination has not received the attention it deserves. The organizational aspects, identification of learners and their learning needs, training of functionaries, production and distribution of learning materials, monitoring and evaluation of programme are the issues that remain neglected. It cast shadow over the success of the CE programmes. More attention and care are necessary in the organization and management of CE programmes in the country.

Development of learning materials: In the case of TLC and PLP the objectives are limited, whereas in the case of CE the range, coverage, contents and method are more varied. It underlines to the policy makers and planners the need of being more sensitive and careful in designing and implementing the CE programmes.

We cannot limit the programmes to one or two areas. We have to identify the needs of the people, aiming at their economic, social and educational development. At the same time we cannot ignore our national values. Apart from variety of subjects and areas, we need materials in various languages, especially in local languages and in various media, particularly, print and electronic. Apart from materials for the learners, literature on awareness of people at large as well as for managers, coordinators and functionaries are necessary for the CE programmes to be successful.

Sustainability of programmes: CE programmes should not end up with launching them. Ways and means should be found to sustain them. This is an area, which needs attention of universities and other organisations and agencies involved in educational research. They should study the strength and weaknesses of the programmes and direct the ways of sustainability.

Conclusion

The CE programmes in the Indian context is an important third stage of adult education following literacy and post-literacy programmes. The learners are

well sensitized for learning further. Therefore, utmost care should be taken by adult education planners to devise strategy, subjects, materials, methods and media of teaching.

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*   Essay is the address at the Southern Regional Conference on Adult & Continuing Education, organized by the Kerala State Branch of the Indian Adult Education Association at Trivandrum on 10 and 11 May 2003.

NOTES

ADULT EDUCATION THROUGH UNIVERSITY SYSTEM OF INDIA: A BRIEF COMMENT

Naseem Akthar
D.M. Bheem Rao

Research and teaching have been the main functions of higher education system in India. In 1977, University Grants Commission in a landmark policy decided 'extension' as the third dimension of university function, equal in status to teaching and research. The function of extension was to benefit both the community and the higher education system itself. Today 103 universities in the country are involved in this nationwide programme through departments and centres set-up and funded by the UGC. The institutions have been involved in general programmes like literacy, post-literacy, continuing education and issue-based extension programmes such as science for people, environmental education, population, education, legal literacy and technology transfer. In these programmes, both students and teachers have been involved. Adult literacy has been one of the major programmes taken up by universities and colleges. Over the last three decades the adult education programme has undergone several changes both conceptually and operationally. Sequentially, it has been:

Old schemes of adult and continuing education

National Adult Education Programme (NAEP) and Extension

Scheme of adult and continuing education and extension

Adult education under point 16 of the new 20-point programme of the Government of India.

Adult and continuing education extension and field outreach activities

University Departments' Mission

It should be noted that in the higher education system, the adult education centres or departments were started with the dual purposes of imparting the skill of adult literacy and conducting continuing education. In fact, the continuum of literacy to continuing education was recognized by the university sector way back in the

1970s, when the Government of India was about to begin its own continuing education programme. At this stage most of the university departments were named "Centres/ Departments of Adult and Continuing Education and Extension Work". As indicated in the name they included adult literacy, continuing education and extension work in their agenda.

The Departments of Adult and Continuing Education and Extension (ACEE) have been working with a two-fold mission. On the one hand, they continuously cater to the educational needs of the adult learners; on the other, they sensitize college and university students and teachers on the urgency of adult education in the society. The idea is to extend the resources of the university to the people and gain knowledge from the local community. The departments are committed to providing access to education to all sections of the people through relevant courses in the non-formal stream. Further, they have the aim of enlivening the interest of the students on social issues while endeavouring to improve the quality of life of the community.

The Concept of Continuing Education

Continuing education can be understood in several ways. Firstly, it may mean an education that never stops; for instance a neo-literate may move from adult literacy to post-literacy to continuing education; at the upper level it may mean students opting for courses which are continuing and not terminal with passing out from school. Secondly, it may indicate an education that has started again after stopping; people may discontinue education at some stage due to compelling reasons and may wish to return to education at a later stage. Thirdly, it may mean education that happens again and again, the need of such education arises as science and technology advances continuously; any professionals such as doctors, nurses, teachers farmers and so on need to learn new skills continuously.

Here mention must be made of the oft-repeated concept of "learning society". This term connotes a society which provides continuous learning opportunities to all sections of the people. It is an inclusive concept which engulfs all the three meaning of continuing education mentioned above and provides educational possibilities for all. The idea of learning society was first advanced by UNESCO in its famous report entitled *Learning To Be* (1972). According to this report a learning society is one in which all the agencies of a society are educational providers rather than just those whose primary responsibility is education. As for the community of learners, all members of the society are engaged in learning taking full advantage of the opportunities provided by such environmentally charged learning society.

NLM's Idea of Continuing Education

National Literacy Mission (NML) has accepted the UNESCO's (1987) definition of continuing education which says that continuing education is a "broad concept which includes all of the learning opportunities all people want or need outside of basic literacy education and primary education. Therefore, continuing education is for literate youth and adults; it is responsive to their needs and wants; it includes experiences provided by all educational sub-sectors and it can be understood in terms of opportunity to engage oneself in life-time learning.

The scheme of continuing education is also taken as a 'stage' in one's educational journey of the learner. It is, in other words, a milestone in educational attainment; for instance, a non-literate person passes through the phases of basic literacy and post-literacy to reach the stage of continuing education. The NLM further looks continuing education as 'programmes', which are contextual and in response to the requirements of the learners.

NLM's programme of continuing education mainly consists of a continuing education centre (CEC) for every village of a population of about 2000 to 2500 and a Nodal Continuing Education Centre (NCEC) for every 10 to 15 CECs. The CECs have to perform the following role:

Teaching-learning centre for neo-literates to stop them relapsing into illiteracy

Library and reading room

Venue for group discussion

Venue for vocational training programmes and skill upgradation

Venue for extension facility for development by various departments

Promoting sports and adventure activities

Venue for recreational and cultural activities

A window for information on various subjects

Community centre of the village

Apart from establishment of CESs, the continuing education programme conducted at the district level is also expected to run programmes on equivalency, income generation, life enrichment, promotion of individual interests and so forth.

SUSTAINING LITERACY SKILL AMONG NEO-LITERATES THROUGH LIBRARY

Hemanta Khandai

The primary objective of providing reading material through library to neo-literates is to reinforce the skill of literacy in the learners so as to enable them making its social use. It is easy to make some one literate, but to sustain literacy is challenging. It is here the provision of library for neo-literates become important.

Library as such has an important role to play in any programme of adult education, be it literacy, post-literacy or continuing education. The UNESCO Institute of Education (UIE), Hamburg while conducting country case studies on post-literacy and continuing education, discovered that many developing countries like Tanzania, Nigeria and India have assigned libraries an important place in the learning strategies. This is because a new urgency of literacy was felt at the national and international levels.

Library as Information Centre

Libraries can contribute significantly to the creation of a positive atmosphere for learning. Libraries can display visuals showing the difficulties an adult illiterate suffers for want of literacy. Evidence of such handicaps can be depicted from the day-to-day community life of the people. Such materials can be attractively produced with the help of local artists, school teachers and students. Such materials can be not only in print but also in audio-visual medium. Occasionally various information relating to agriculture, culture, animal husbandry, forestry, government development scheme, legal literacy, population, pollution, religion and mythology etc. can be displayed in exhibitions that the libraries should organize from time to time.

Library complex of a locality may reserve a room for neo-literates' education through visuals. When children and adults visit the library, they may be shown films and slides on topics related to health, citizenship etc. Such shows can be a regular feature of the library.

Library as Centre for Literacy Classes

Librarians themselves should play a leading role in organizing adult literacy centre on the premises of the library. If the librarian himself is not in a position to do

so, he can very well facilitate other literacy or post-literacy volunteers to run such centre in the library.

There is often provision of a library at the district or even lower level. But those libraries are not in good shape. They need to be reinvigorated in the interests of the adult neo-literate learners. The involvement of libraries in adult education would actually make the libraries more dynamic and they would secure community support for themselves.

Some Ponits of Consideration

The primary function of a library for the adult learner is to serve as a centre for information on various aspects of life such as science, culture, politics, health and so on that concern them.

However certain steps must be taken to make a library good in the interst of the neo-literate adults. They are as follows:

The aim and objective of libraries should be re-defined to include adult literacy programme.

It should be possible to use literacy funds for some of the activities related to adult education.

All librarians should receive orientation in adult education programmes.

The adult education departments and state resources centres should provide materials on adult education to all libraries.

All adult education committees should include library personnel as members at all levels.

Training of librarians for maintaining library as per the requirements of neo-literate learners.

Library should have special concern for the literacy of neo-literates. For that following actions are suggested:

To provide library services to new learners

To create community awareness about the problem of illiteracy.

To provide materials to the adult learners and literacy workers

To cooperate with other agencies

To coordinate all the literacy services available to the community

The library is undoubtedly a crucial agency for sustaining literacy among the neo-literates. It should contain appropriate reading materials and serve as an infrastructure for literacy classes and other supportive systems. To sustain the interest of neo-literate readers the question before the library system is the quantity, quality and subjects of the reading materials. If the libraries take care of these aspects they can play a vital role in the post-literacy and continuing education programmes.

CONTINUING EDUCATION THROUGH DISTANCE LEARNING SYSTEM IN UTTARANCHAL

Arun Misra
S.S. Rawat

The formal and traditional system of education has been playing an elitist role through ages. It has been perpetuating the disparities and imbalanced growth in the society. It has been realized that this system can not make universalization of education a success due to its inadequacy. This system is full of restrictions like age, admission, qualification, duration of course, curriculum, place of study etc. On the contrary, open education is free from such type of restrictions. Realising the importance of open education, various systems and innovative approaches related to it like non-formal education, correspondence courses, open university/open school, off campus courses have been started and popularized.

Though face-to-face non-formal education is not new to us, correspondence and distance learning system has added another dimension to the facilities under it. It is also called home study or postal tuition which is popularly called distance learning or distance education. Distance education or learning is primarily a self-learning method. The student has to depend more on his own initiative and motivation than any thing else. Distance education is quite innovative, flexible and less expensive. The learner is to make progress according to his own capacity. Nothing is imposed from outside and everything is achieved by himself. That is why, this system is psychologically as well as sociologically sound and effective. Since millions of people all over the world are able to fulfil their academic aspirations and satisfy unfulfilled desires of knowledge through this system, it is also called democratic. Now that distance learning has been able to equalise educational opportunities among the people irrespective of their status and conditions, it is assuming socialistic dimensions.

Being hilly region, Garhwal Himalaya has different socio-economic and geographical conditions. Formal and traditional systems of education can not alone fulfil the educational needs of the people due to many other factors including problems of transport and communication. Most of the region is undeveloped, the society is tradition bound, closed and dogmatic and where education in formal and non-formal shape is a commodity being provided only to those who are located just on the communication and transport line.

The past experience of Garhwal Himalaya has shown that the non-formal education in its traditional form was functioning to provide programmes for adult continuing education. The distance learning system was applicable only for school

and collegiate levels. Yet there are lot of opportunities to organise programme of adult and continuing education through distance learning system particularly when the advance information technology has emerged, such experiences should be encouraged. Thus in this remote and boarder hill area distance education can serve the people not only in getting formal education but also in the development of continuing and life long education to the local people. It is important that distance education should not be confined to merely help students in securing degrees and diploma rather it must provide programme to less educated, socially and economically weaker section of the society. The Kothari Commission has rightly felt that important programmes can be taken up in the fields of industry, commerce and agriculture to help the workers to improve their competence and increase productivity. This is very relevant to Garhwal Himalaya specially for the effective organization of continuing education. Continuing education is a life long process of learning.

The objective of Continuing Education are to:

Create an environment conducive to literacy and learning society.

Provide facilities for retention of literacy skills and continuing education to enable the learners to continue their learning beyond basic literacy.

Create scope for application of functional literacy for improvement in living conditions and quality of life of the people.

Disseminate information on developmental programmes/schemes by establishing direct linkages between continuing education and developmental programmes.

Create awareness on the issue of national concerns such as national integration, health and hygiene, improvement and conservation of environment, women empowerment, observance of small family norms etc.

Improve economic conditions and general well-being of community by organising short duration training programmes and courses and providing vocational skills, and

Organize cultural and recreational activities with effective community participation.

Distance education makes study accessible to adult students who are gainfully

employed or house wives and have a number of social responsibilities and commitments and little opportunity to take part in classes. Remote and sparsely inhabited area like hills of Uttaranchal can be offered wide school and university facilities through distance education. In this region use of information technology and correspondence courses can serve the purpose of continuing education through distance learning system. Over the past three decades there have been truly a spectacular developments in the field of information technology, such as television, cable TV, computers, internet etc. Information technology in its present form is based on connectivity. Today it is not an uphill task to establish an effective and meaningful information network in these hilly areas of Uttaranchal. The print and non-print media of Distance Education may easily reach to the interior of region and in less expense. Radio, television, cable TV and computer can help significantly in promoting continuing education in these areas through distance learning system. Besides electronic media, correspondence courses can be conducted by regional university and institutions to provide relevant knowledge and skills to local community. These activities can be successfully carried out with the help of an effective management system, well-designed networking of trained functionaries and well-co-ordinated structure of local bodies.

State government, State Resource Centre, university, radio, television and other media persons including regional academicians/artists can help in developing curriculum, course materials and aids for continuing education programmes through open distance learning system. For making the programme need based and result oriented in hilly area of Uttaranchal, following programmes should be given priority in continuing education programme.

Retentive of literacy skills and continuing education to neo-literatess

Universalization of primary education

Health, hygiene and family welfare

Problem of girl-child

Women empowerment

Panchayat Raj

Problem of elders

Role of self-help group

Capacity building of voluntary agencies

Disaster management

Conservation and improvement of environment

Legal literacy

Entrepreneurship development and career guidance

Fruit and food preservation

Agriculture and horticulture development

Hence continuing education related to all the aspects of life may efficiently be taught through distance mode of system. Print materials may be helpful to literates and semi-literates where as non-print media are helpful for illiterates and neo-literate population. Distance education has great significance for the emerging learning society in generally and educationally undeveloped and developing society of hilly region in particular. It can provide equality of educational opportunity and ensure continuing education. Thus in real sense continuing education through distance learning system may bring the dream of "Education for All" a great success in Garhwal Himalaya.

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PRIORITY AREAS FOR POST-LITERACY CAMPAIGN

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For improving literacy rate in adults in India adult education programmes have been launched for a long time before independence. But the facilities provided for post-literacy and continuing education programmes were inadequate, haphazard, ill-planned and ill organised. This greatly led the neo-literates to relapse into illiteracy. To rectify this defect, as specially pointed out in National Policy on Education, Programme of Action and National Literacy Mission, (NLM) Jana Sikshana Nilayams (JSNs) were and its 1986started to institutionalise, systematise, organise the continuing education and post-literacy programmes on permanent basis. These JSNs besides providing facilities for maintenance and furtherance of newly learnt literacy skills have to serve as focal points for providing developmental information, recreational activities, continuing education programmes, libraries with reading room facilities, organising churcha mandals, short duration training programmes, income generating vocational programmes etc. After the success of Ernakulam experiment to eradicate illiteracy in a campaign mode, the programme movement was turned into the path of Total Literacy Campaign (TLC) and Post Literacy Campaign (PLC).

In the TLC period teaching of literacy is main aspect. In the PLC period retention and practicing of newly learnt skills are the main aspects. In early NLM phase, there were only limited number of JSNJ. But in PLCs Jana Chaitanya Kendras (JCKs) and Jana Vikas Kendras (JVKs) are covered vast area. Now the JCKs and JVKs names rechanged as CECs (Continuing Education Centres). So in the CECs the masses should be kept informed of the national goals, concerns, developmental programmes so as to fully help them to participate and get maximum benefits from this programmes. They must also be helped to develop the coping skills and vocational skills to understand the conditions under which they live and the ways and means to improve their socio-economic conditions. To meet this end, JCK or JVKs should use a variety of media for creating, conserving and diffusing the knowledge to the community around and also the strategies and techniques for the improvement of the beneficiaries.

One of the media that can be profitably employed for updating and upgrading the knowledge of the masses of JCK or JVK, is through printed materials like booklets, pamphlets, leaflets, magazines, journals, newsletters, wall papers, periodicals etc. on issues relating to national goal, concerns and developmental programmes.

Preparation and publication of printed materials may be taken up by various agencies SRCs, SCERTs, development departments, voluntary agencies, private printers, educational institutions etc. with a view to provide them to the libraries at JCK or JVKs and also forming the issues on which discussion can be had at the *charcha mandals*.

Areas and Topics

An attempt is made in this paper to identify the areas of concern and also the specific topics on which printed media have to be developed. The issues and topics on which materials have to be prepared are listed below:

Agriculture: High yielding varieties of seeds, medium irrigational methods, agricultural crops – pests and control, welding, methods of harvesting, usage of dusters and sprayers, marketing of grains, crop rotation system, soil conservation, soil testing, agricultural loans and subsidies and credit facilities, cultivation of vegetables, methods of grafting, kitchen gardening.

Animal Husbandry: Milk dairy, animals, artificial insemination, sheep rearing, goat keeping, poultry, piggery, vaccination to cattles, buffalo sheds and their cleanliness, goat sheds and their cleanliness, milk chilling centres.

Health and Hygiene: Personal hygiene, hygiene at home, environmental cleanliness, cleanliness of water, mosquito, control, maintenance of gutters, septic lavatories, construction of cannals, communicable diseases, dental care, child care and immunization, care for pregnant women, physical education, first-aid, importance of yoga, cholera, tuberculosis, malaria, typhoid, eye-care, encephalitis, tetanus, leprosy, small-pox, filariasis, poliomyelitis, whooping cough, skin diseases, heart diseases, cancer, allergy preventive measures, effect of frequent use of medicines on health, influence of drugs on health, prevention from poisoning, influence of alcohol on health.

Nutrition: Importance of food-food groups – need for nutritious foods, importance of balanced diet, vitamins-importance, types, deficiency diseases and remedial measures, mineral nutrient requirements of an individual in order to maintain good health, cooking methods and their values, method of cooking vegetables – advantages and disadvantages, importance of greens in the diet, importance of groundnuts in the diet, effect of cooking on nutrients, diet for infants – importance of breast feeding, diet for pre-school children, diet for pregnant women, food and hygiene, nutritional deficiency diseases, low-cost highly nutritious diet, diets for the elderly, obesity, food

adulteration, effect of social and cultural beliefs on our nutritional status, diet for industrial workers, importance of kitchen garden, storage of foodgrains, diet for the people suffering from heart diseases, peptic ulcer, diabetes, constipation and jaundice.

Elements of legal knowledge: Land reforms act, land registrations, tenancy act, property act for women, bonded labour act, child marriage act, anti-dowry act, anti-sati act, age of marriage act, minimum wages act, industrial dispute act, factories act, Supreme Court, High Court, district court, mobile court, women's equality.

Environmental education: Air pollution, noise pollution, water pollution, deforestation, afforestation, environmental conservation.

Political knowledge: Fundamental rights, duties of a citizen, adult franchise, citizenship, Centre-State relations, functions of Parliament, functions of State Assembly, political history - past events, policies and aims of different political parties, election of President and Prime Minister, functions of local self-government, national integration, international understanding, social reformers.

Population education: Consequences of overpopulation, small family norm, status of women, trends of population growth, sex education.

Social evils: Dowry, untouchability, drinking, drug addiction, gambling, child marriages, prohibition, social welfare programmes for weaker sections.

Puranas and literature: Ramayana, Bharatam, Bhagavatham, Khuran, Bible, great religious leaders and their preachings, great poets.

Income generating courses: Tailoring, embroidery, knitting, weaving, readymade garments, carpet weaving, khadi spinning, fibre making, hand printing, bed making, palm leaf, mat making, bamboo basket making, pickle making, food processing, bakery, vegetable growing, fish net making, goat rearing, poultry, dairy, duckery, bee keeping, piggery, fishery, brush making, book binding, hand-made paper making, handle making, leather works, plastic polythene works, agarbatti making, match boxes making, stone cutting, pottery, leaf plate making, chalk making, paper bag making, envelop making, basket making, soap making, fruit and vegetable/fish preservation, decoration pieces/ toys etc, wood works, motor winding, pump set repair, maintenance of agricultural implements, radio repair, masonry, footwear making, courses for artisans, sericulture.

Before an attempt is made to prepare the materials for PLC it is necessary to identify the needs, interests, problems of the beneficiaries of the JCK and JVKs

in the locality concerned. Further, it is necessary to keep in mind the principles of developing such materials like size, shape, colour, get up of the materials and relevance, up-to-date news presentation, clearity and reading is of the content. So, material preparation is very important for Post-Literacy Campaign and Continuing Education Programmes to practice newly learnt literacy skills.

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BOOK REVIEW

V. Sukumaran Nair ed., *Emerging Facets of Education – A felicitation volume in honour of Dr. K. Sivadasan Pillai,* Literacy Forum, Kerala, 2003, pp.464, price Rs. 750. (Distributor: Shri. D. Venugopal, Secretary, Leela Sadanam, Nadoorkolla, Amaravila, P.O., Neyyattinkara, Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala.)

The Literacy Forum, Kerala has published the book under review in honour of Dr. K. Sivadasan Pillai, a renowned educationist of Kerala. The book consists of 51 articles written by eminent scholars (national as well as international) touching upon different aspects of theory and practice of education. The articles have been grouped in seven major areas viz.: history of education, philosophy and psychology of education, teacher-education, adult and non-formal education, media and technology, aesthetics and general issues. In the opening section, A. Sallahuddin Kunju, Padama Ramachandran, Vellayani Arjanun, Muralikrishna, K.G. Balakrishna Pillai, Nooranand Gopalkrishnan, B. Remadevi and Bernd Pflug have described the life and works of Dr. Pillai. They have highlighted Pillai's qualities of head and heart and his achievements in his long distinguished academic career.

Padama Ramachandran, former Vice-Chancellor, M.S. University, Baroda, in her article, "Educational Visionaries Whose Thoughts Have Universal Appeal" comments on the ideas of Paulo Friere, well-known adult educator and practitioner. She includes in her treatise the ideas of of United States Senator, J. William Fulbright who has contributed to peace, friendship and harmony between nations through his scheme of international students exchange programme. Other educational leaders, whose ideas the author discusses are Maria Montessori who campaigned for women's social and political rights and devised a pedagogy for children, Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi, Swami Vivekananda, Rabindra Nath Tagore and Aurobindo Ghosh.

James. A. Darper, Emeritus Professor, Ontario Institute of Studies in Education, Canada in his article "Action with Meaning", talks about values in education and tries to answer interesting questions such as why one teaching method is preferred over another, why learning material developed with the involvement of students is better than the traditional textbooks and so on.

Another distinguished Western educationist, W. John Morgan, Director of Centre for Comparative Education, United Kingdom writes on lifelong learning and employment training in Europe and United Kingdom. He identifies certain internal barriers in the field of education and points out certain priority areas of research in

European education in relation to economy and labour market.

From among the Indian experts on adult education the book carries an essay by S.Y.Shah, Director, Group of Adult Education, Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi in his article, "Research in Adult Education: Prospects and Issues" finds research in adult education most neglected leaving it a weak area in Indian adult education. He underlines the need for increasing policy support, better role of government and non-government organizations, university sector and state resource centres to encourage research in the field. Shah concludes by suggesting certain priorities and strategies of research. In another article on research entitled "Research in Adult Literacy in India", C.J. Daswani, former Consultant, UNESCO, New Delhi summarizes the research studies conducted in the field in the last one decade or so. He adduces reasons for the current dismal status of research in adult literacy and identifies some critical areas which need special attention.

V. Reghu, Assistant Director, Centre for Adult and Continuing Education and Extension, University of Kerala in his article, "Adults and Continuing Education Programme in Kerala" presents a history of adult education programme in Kerala since Independence -- a topic that especially interested Professor Pillai. It describes the parts played by the Ernakulam Total Literacy Programme, programme for functional literacy, Jan Sikshan Sansthan and so on.

The book contains other interesting articles by known names in the field. The book, containing essays on almost all aspects of adult education, will cater to the needs of students, teachers, research scholars and the general pubic interested in the field.

Prem Chand

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3.	*Turning Experiences into Learning—Cases in Adult Education* Rajani R Shirur & C Villi (1997)	60.00	7.00
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The Indian Adult Education founded in 1939, aims at improving the quality of life through education visualized as a continuous and lifelong process. It directs its efforts towards accelerating adult education as a process a programme and a movement.

The Association co-ordinates activities of various agencies -- Governmental and voluntary national and international -- engaged in similar pursuits. It organises conferences and seminars and undertakes surveys and research projects; it endeavours to update and sharpen the awareness of its members by bringing to them from all over the world expert views on and experiences in, adult education. In pursuit of the policy, the Association has instituted the *Nehru Literacy Award* and *Tagore Literacy Award* for outstanding contribution to the promotion of Adult Education and women's Literacy in the country respectively. It has also instituted the Dr. Zakir Husain Memorial Lecture, which is delivered every year by an educationist of eminence.

The Association has brought out many publications on themes relating to adult education, including Hindi editions of several UNESCO publications. It brings out the *Indian Journal of Adult Education, Proudh Shiksha, Jago Aur Jagao and IAEA Newsletter.*

The Association acts as the Indian arm of the International Council for Adult Education, International Federation of Workers Education Association and the Asian-South Pacific Bureau of Adult Education. It's membership is open to all individuals and institutions who believe in the aims and objectives of the Association.

It's headquarters are located in the Shafiq Memorial at 17-B, Indraprastha Estate, New Delhi - 110 002