

## Adult, Continuing and Non-Formal Education

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### INTRODUCTION

It is indeed a matter of great responsibility to be writing a trend report on a group of topics like Adult Education, Continuing Education and Non-formal Education (NFE). To some it may sound as though they are conceptually one and the same topic, if seen in a global perspective. Indeed, this is true to some extent. If adult education is seen as an activity of educational endeavour outside the ambit of organised and structured school or collegiate activity, then conceptually it is very much a part of non-formal education. Similarly, if continuing education is defined as educational pursuit as a part of lifelong education, it is certainly a part of non-formal education. There seems a lot of overlap and sometimes confusion in the terminologies that we use, and that, too, very often interchangeably. It is, therefore, necessary to have some kind of definition or operational definition in the Indian context because these are understood by educators as three distinct domains. Therefore it would be necessary to clearly understand the three terms in our own perspective.

### Adult Education

It may be mentioned that in India adult education has travelled a long way, at least in programme implementation. In the early fifties it was known as the 'Social Education' programme. Then came a change in the areas

of emphasis and the contents of the programme were given a slant. The changed programme came to be known as 'Fundamental Education', as citizenship education in a nascent democracy became of prime importance. Still further down the line in the time perspective, in the mid-sixties it underwent a metamorphosis to become 'Functional Literacy'. Still further, it assumed the nomenclature of 'Non-formal, (adult) Education' to ultimately revert back to 'Adult Education'. As may be apparent, it is the shift in emphasis on the approach and content of the programme that has necessitated the change in nomenclature. So if we have to go into the historicity of the programme, we will have to look at everything that went under the names of social education, fundamental education, functional literacy, adult education and non-formal (adult) education.

Adult Education has now been defined as the education of those who are illiterate and are in the age-group 15-35 years (though older age-groups are also included but the emphasis is on 15-35 years) in the skills of literacy, functionality and awareness. Here literacy includes the three R's. But it should be clearly understood that the 3 R's are not the sole objective; it also includes learners' awareness of social, economic and political realities, (conscientisation efforts) and the functional use of the skills learnt, including the 3 R's.

The nature of adult education is quite confusing in the sense that adult education denotes two levels of activity: one, educating the



adults, and two, educating the adult educators. While at the first level it is the practice of adult education at the second level it is theory and understanding of the basic concepts of adult learning. In other words it can be labelled as 'adult education as practice' and 'adult education as a discipline'. Those who are engaged in teaching and research in the field of adult education may be easily caught in the status trap because it is still an evolving field. It may be pertinent to point out that it is a discipline in the same sense as medicine or law or engineering. It is very much a subject worthy of academic study. Like medicine, law or engineering it is a discipline which draws its substance from various other disciplines and is related to a set of practices—to a profession. The Adult Education studies are linked to one profession—a profession directly related to serving the human society. The nature of adult education is such that it draws heavily from various disciplines like psychology, sociology, linguistics, philosophy, history, and so on. But at the same time the adult educationists (theoreticians) and the adult educators (practitioners) are not concerned with the whole of psychology or sociology, etc., but with that part of it that may be relevant to the needs of adult education.

Thus one expects different scholars to refer to adult education using different terms and concepts, depending on who they are, the culture they represent, etc. To elucidate, in India, the adult education programme is primarily addressed to the age-group 15-35 years, and yet legally those in the age-bracket of 15-18 years are not adult for they are not eligible to vote. Adults have been variously defined in different cultures. Sometimes the roles performed by an individual in a society may be the criteria of adulthood; sometimes it is the physical conditions (puberty, etc.); and sometimes the age prescribed by law.

As mentioned earlier, the unsystematic nature of adult education terms and concepts is the product of cultural differences and scholars have defined adult education as a

product of culture. Friedman, G. (1972) defined it thus:

Adult education is a process which is part of cultural development, primarily the means of communication between the cultural systems of transmitters (inventors, researchers, creative minds, etc.) and the cultural system of receivers (i.e., the groups for whom adult education is intended).

Education being a macro-term encompasses many components (nursery, kindergarten, primary, secondary, senior secondary, tertiary, etc.), refers to all kinds of learning that take place, whether formal or non-formal (and some would include informal also). In this sequence, adult education can be regarded as a micro-term, since it refers to learning that takes place among the adults. Liveright and Haygood (1972) proposed that:

Adult education is the process whereby persons who no longer (or did not) attend school on a regular and full-time basis undertake sequential and organised activities with the conscious intention of bringing about changes in information, knowledge, understanding or skills, application and attitudes; or for the purpose of identifying and solving personal and community problems.

There are many scholars who tried to define adult education in the context of literate societies. Some of them are M. David, Edmund Bruner, Bryson, Scott Fletcher, Reeves, Fensler and Houle, Ohlinger and Morgan, etc. The Canadian Association of Adult Education also held a similar view as stated above. They all considered a situation where the percentage of literacy was very high, as a result of long experience of universal compulsory education up to the high school level. Under such circumstances only the very minimum number of population in such societies needed a basic literacy programme, while a large percentage was expected to take either remedial or continuing education or training to qualify themselves for jobs, to spend leisure wisely, and to acquire new knowledge and skills in the case of knowledge explosion. Thus the concept of adult education of the Western scholars is only meaningful when it is examined in the background of the participants referred to by



them.

Similarly, in developing countries the situation is no different. Here also, the cultural and educational background determines the nature and content of adult education. High illiteracy rates lay the greatest emphasis on literacy skills as the content of the adult education programme; the problem of free and compulsory primary education, and ignorance and conservatism, lead to the nature and content of the adult education programme in these countries.

The International Directory of Adult Education (UNESCO 1952) states:

Adult education has been associated with the teaching of literacy and such remedial measures as night schools for adults who have missed the opportunity for schooling. The concept of adult education has been broadened considerably so as to cover the activity of a wide range of institutions or agencies and to include a content as wide as life itself.

The most typical definition offered is by the National Institute of Adult Education (England and Wales) in 1970, which is quoted in the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, 15th Edition. It states that:

(It) is any kind of education for the people who are old enough to work, to vote, to fight and to marry and who have completed the cycle of education (if any) commenced in the childhood. They want to make up for limited schooling (or no schooling), to learn the basic skills of trades or professions or to master new working processes. They may turn to it because they want to understand themselves and their world better and to act in the light of their understanding or they may go to the classes for the pleasure they get from developing talents and skills, intellectual, aesthetic, physical or practical. They may not even go to the classes. They may find what they want from books and broadcasts, or take guidance from a tutor they never meet. They may find education without a label by sharing in common pursuits with like-minded people.

Finally, it seems that the UNESCO definition of 1976 has come to stay in most parts of the world. According to it, adult education:

denotes the entire body of organised educational processes, whatever the content, level and method,

whether formal or otherwise, whether they prolong or replace initial education in schools, colleges and universities as well as in apprenticeship, whereby persons regarded as adults by the society to which they belong, develop their abilities, enrich their knowledge, improve their technical or professional qualifications and bring about changes in their attitude or behaviour in the twofold perspective of full personal development and participation in balanced and independent social, economic and cultural development.

### Continuing Education

Continuing education, as the term indicates, is essentially a follow-up education. Its starting-point, unlike that of adult education, is undefined because it depends on from where one wishes to take off and continue one's education in whatever field one wants. It can be in the nature of post-literacy to post-postgraduation programmes or anything in between. But in most cases it could be highly flexible and unstructured—a point closer to the nature of non-formal education. Continuing education is obviously a component, or let's say an essential strategy, in lifelong education concept.

It may be seen that the concept of Continuing Education, which can be termed, to some extent, as lifelong education, is almost embraced under the definition of 'adult education' as given by UNESCO (1976). However there are subtle differences. For example, that concept of lifelong education has both deliberate and non-deliberate education but in Continuing Education there is only the deliberate component which is involved. It may be either through formal or non-formal means.

Ambasht, N.K. (1986) while presenting a paper for the Programme Area-3, under action plan of 'Education for All' for the SAARC countries, made a distinction between adult education and continuing education thus:

[Adult education] has a basic input of literacy activity, the [Continuing education] takes on from where the formal education and/or adult education leaves a learner. Therefore, the starting points for continuing education may be many—neo-literates, school drop-outs with permanent literacy



skills, secondary school leavers, college and university leavers and those who have completed college/university education.

In the Indian context, the problem of continuing education is more pronounced at three levels, namely, neo-literates (to reinforce the literacy skills to make them permanent), school drop-outs and the secondary school leavers. For the college and university leavers or those who have completed these, there is a necessity of continuing education, though not as acute as to warrant priority over the neo-literates, and school drop-outs with permanent literacy. Women's welfare programmes and their related educational components are also included in this.

There have been myriad efforts with success in preparation and dissemination of post-literacy materials, more specifically under the National Literacy Mission's post-literacy programmes. Seen in the perspective of continuing education, quite a few agencies other than education have been engaged in this activity. Agriculture, health and family welfare departments, cooperatives, banks, etc., have been producing materials for their extension programmes which could also be used for continuing education purposes. Similarly, for the school leavers there is a lot of scope for material preparation in areas like "Do It Yourself", Vocational Education materials and materials for small-scale entrepreneurship programmes. Mention must be made of the systematic work in this regard of the NCERT which produced vocation-based-materials primarily meant for the senior secondary stage but which can be very well used for the continuing education programmes for school leavers.

Further, the Culture Centres established in the different regions of the country also provide a potential avenue to further the cause of continuing education. However, these have not been visualised as continuing education agents and whatever agencies have been responsible for these programmes have viewed them from their own perspective and have not considered them as an activity of continuing education; at least they have not said so.

### Non-Formal Education

Non-formal education, as defined by Ahmad, M. and Coombs, P.H. (1975) as:

Any organised educational activity outside the formal education system—whether operating separately or as an important feature of some broader activity—that is intended to serve identifiable learning clientele and learning objectives.

It may be noticed that this definition embraces all learning activities which is organized and is outside the formal educational system and, therefore, would embrace what is known as adult education, distance education, continuing education, lifelong education including hobby courses, etc. Earlier, Coombs, P.H. (1972) had put Non-formal Education as:

Any organised programme of learning, carried on outside the framework, the rules and logistics of the formal-education system.

This definition also includes any educational activity irrespective of stages of education. Naik (1977) maintains that non-formal education includes all sectors of education outside the formal system. He includes adult education when he mentions four approaches to non-formal education. Paulsten, R.G. (1972) defined non-formal education as:

Structured systematic non-school educational and training activities of relatively short duration in which sponsoring agencies seek concrete behavioural changes in fairly target population.

Adiseshiah, M. S. (1975) characterised non-formal education as:

The out-of school programmes which are learner-centred, whose tools and technologies are centred on the learner, and are as varied, disaggregated and diversified as the learning interest, need and capacity of each individual participant.

Rawat, D.S. (1976) and Majumdar, H.B. (1976) saw non-formal education as a means of universalising elementary education in the Indian perspective. Therefore, the target group, according to them converged to only the 6-14 years age-group population.

Ambasht, N.K. (1986) gave an operational



definition which was the basis of the entire approach of the *National Policy of Education* (1986) of the Government of India. He operationally defined non-formal education as:

Planned and deliberate educational activities or programmes for out-of-school children of the 6-14 years age-group, leading to learning outcomes comparable to that of elementary schools.

He acknowledges that flexibility is the key word of non-formal education.

The state-of-the-art in these three areas having been reviewed above, we shall consider the researches that have been done in these areas during the period under consideration in the subsequent sections.

## REVIEW OF STUDIES

In this section, we shall look at the research scenario in these areas during the period under consideration for this trend report.

### Adult Education

Bhagria, R. (1992) studied the impact of the polyvalent centres of Shramik Vidyapeeths on industrial workers and found that the Shramik Vidyapeeths (SVs) have played a major role in raising the quality of life, improving the thinking process and life-pattern of the industrial workers. She also found that the vocational and technical education through the SVs had benefited both the workers and the management as well and that the workers became more disciplined and wastage was also minimised. Only marginal benefits were noticed in bringing about political awareness. The SVs did a good job in the field of population education, preserving cultural heritage, civic responsibility, socio-economic growth and trade union orientation. It was also noticed that the workers and their families felt motivated to participate in SV programmes; sufficient opportunities for vertical and horizontal mobility existed; and that the SVs are making efforts to make workers self-reliant. The employers were reported to be happy with these programmes as these were found to

be useful in terms of cost benefit, production, quality, resource expertise, formulation and implementation of programmes as per their requirements. The SVs sponsored by Voluntary Agencies showed better performance and were recognised by the state, and loan facilities were available to the beneficiaries for establishing small industrial units.

Bhat, S.S. (1990) studied the growth and development of adult education programmes in India. It is a study that traces the history of adult education from the very ancient period to the contemporary period and goes on to justify the need for establishing a National Council of Adult Education.

Chandel, N.P.S. (1992) made a cost-effectiveness analysis of National Adult Education Programme (NAEP) with special reference to the Seventh Five Year Plan. He found that in 1989-90, the per-learner cost of State Adult Education Programme (SAEP) and Rural Functional Literacy Project (RFLP) were Rs.168.36 and Rs.166.87 respectively; the office records showed a wastage of 8.38% and 9.71%, respectively. Under the effectiveness analysis it found that among the input indicators, 22.25% RFLP and 38.05% SAEP instructors were matriculates; the caste-wise distribution of instructors and learners did not match; 52% SAEP and 46% RFLP learners indicated the adequacy of the seating place; 80% SAEP and 70% RFLP instructors got supply of materials in time and in sufficient quantity. The process indicators revealed that there were poor supervision practices; 40% village leaders were consulted at the time of opening of the centres; 30% village leaders reported that their AE centres were running; and 25% reported an increase in enrolment, etc. The output indicators reveal that the majority of the beneficiaries belong to the SC, ST, OBC and the minorities in both the programmes; 60% of them are female. According to the office records, 91.31% RFLP and 92.24% SAEP were declared successful; SAEP learners achieved significantly higher than RFLP learners; and there was no significant difference between the achievements



of male and female learners. The value of CI was highest for SAEP male learners (162), followed by SAEP female (154.10), RFLP male (145.50) and RFLP female (138.10); SAEP was more cost-effective than the RFLP.

Gupta, P.L. (1988) undertook an evaluation study of adult literacy centres in relation to their programme objectives in Himachal Pradesh and found that the majority of the people attending the adult literacy centres were in the age-group 15-35. The interesting thing discovered was that most of them stayed in the centres for about a month to learn to write their names (their signatures) only. The main causes for the drop-out from the centres were many, such as lack of physical and infrastructural facilities, lack of occupational training courses, inadequate training and supervision of the instructors, etc. The centres ran for ten months only, they did not have post-literacy programmes, and followed the alphabet approach to learning language. At the state level there was no system of monitoring and evaluation of the adult education (AE) programme. There was significant difference between the six districts in literacy, functionality and overall performance as measured by the achievement tests. There was no significant difference found in the performance of learners on the component of awareness. Sex did not play any significant role in the performance in the component of literacy, functionality and awareness.

Chugani, R. (1987) made a study of rural functional literacy project in North Arcot district of Tamil Nadu and found that the reading and writing achievement of Class III students were higher than the Rural Functional Literacy Project (RFLP) participants, but in arithmetic there was no significant difference between the two. Age, caste, and family income of the participants were significantly correlated with their literacy achievement. The age and occupation were not related to the functionality level but caste, marital status, family income were correlated significantly with the functionality level.

Das, M. (1990) studied the socio-economic

problems in the implementation of AE programmes in Assam. He found that besides the poverty, illiteracy, ignorance and unwillingness of the illiterate adults, social customs, religious fanaticism, conservatism and traditionalism and also natural calamities like floods were playing a detrimental role in the expansion of adult education. The attendance in the combined adult education centres was low because males and females hesitate to learn together. But in the case of tea-garden labourers, both male and female, work together freely and therefore, they do not hesitate to learn together. There were two noticeable sections of adult illiterates who were not participating in the AE programmes—those who were well off but lacking motivation and those who were very poor and who would not come to AE centres unless there were some income generating activities. There were defects in instructional strategies and selection of learning activities which were responsible for the slow expansion of the AE programmes. Therefore, a need-based AE programme for the socially and economically deprived would necessitate identification of homogeneous groups, assessment of educational needs in the light of their economic needs and aspirations, formulation of suitable and relevant curricula, etc.

Dhanbal, K.R. (1991) assessed the impact of rural development functional components on adult literates of Sakkotai Block and came to the conclusion that the adult education centres could be effectively used for inducting the problem-solving approach, and the adult education instructor will have to assume the role of the problem-solver for both the learner and for the community problems.

Desai, D.B. et al. (1982) (not documented in earlier surveys) evaluated the National Adult Education Programme in seven districts of Gujarat and found that there were several discrepancies in establishment of the centres. The distribution of the villages with Adult Education Centres (AECs) in terms of concentration of SC and ST population and literacy levels as indicators of local need for adult



education showed that there had not been any deliberate attempt to reach areas with greater needs. They also found that the total number of those made literate in three years was abysmally low, with 56,430 literates as compared to the target of 14,17,772. It was also revealed that the programme beneficiaries were almost all (96%) SC, ST and OBCs. The timings of the centres were suitable to the needs of the learners. The community supported the programme but there was no indication of the active participation of the community in the functioning of the AECs. This study is now dated and is overtaken by the establishment of the NLM and the launching of the TLCs.

Jacob, P.J. (1990) identified certain curricular areas in functional science and constructed certain select models for adult education. He found that the functional science areas are neither adequately covered in the primers of adult learners nor are they relevant to their needs. The emphasis on science subjects was also inadequate. The learners did not have adequate awareness of the health science, home science, agricultural science and veterinary science aspects. The models that he tested were found to result in greater awareness and practical knowledge among the learners. He established that there was a need for revising the adult education curricula with more components of functional science. For this he emphasized the need assessment of the learners and orientation of the learners and he further established that the models he tested were effective.

Kaur, M. (1992) developed three learning packages for the illiterate adults of Punjab: (a) one consisting of two units (i) of alphabets, and (ii) of *matras*; (b) numeracy package consisting of seven units of numbers, place value, simple addition, etc.; and (c) a social science package consisting of three units of social, health and economic problems. The effectiveness of these packages was tested on male and female learners. She found that the packages of literacy, numeracy and social awareness were equally effective on both the groups of learners.

Khatun, S.A. (1991) studied the problems of adult learners of the RFLP centres in the district of Cuttack (Jagatsinghpur Block) and found that 50% drop-out was a regular phenomenon; that the reading and learning materials supplied were inadequate; that the various authorities from different development departments visited the centres from time to time; that the learners were irregular and, therefore, the teaching was not effective; that the centres opened in the evening; that the learners were in the age-group of 15-35 years, that there was a hesitation among the grown-ups to learn with 15-year-olds; that the pressure of economic earning was so great that there was no energy and urge left for attending the centres; and that there was no provision for mass media, like TV or Radio in the centres. There was also no provision of any vocational training in most of the centres; the attendance of the learners was not recorded in these centres; and there was no useful books in the libraries of the centres. She also found that the illiterate women do not get equal status with literate women in the society; that in slum areas there was no provision of a dispensary; that the examinations were not held at the proper time; that most of the classes were held in the club, in the school or some such other places, including the houses of the instructors; and that the majority of learners are SC and ST.

Pushpakumari, B. (1992) studied the role of income-generating activities in motivating the women learners of the AECs of Kerala. She reached the conclusion that income-generating activities, if provided, did not play a decisive role in motivating the women learners of the AECs of Kerala. She further pointed out that there were certain psychological, sociological, economic and religio-cultural factors related to motivation of women learners; the women learners of the urban areas were better motivated than the rural women, irrespective of whether income-generating activities were provided, at the centre or not.

Malhotra, K. (1991) made a study of the learning needs for adult education among rural and tribal youth in Bihar and proposed a



programme of response. She found that literacy, numeracy, social awareness and vocational skills were the needs of the rural and tribal youths alike. Irrespective of the SES, age and sex, literacy and numeracy learning were common to all but social awareness and vocational skill were patterned by age and sex. One significant finding that stood out was that the tribal youth felt the need of the medium of instruction being the mother tongue whereas the rural youth had accepted the existing medium of instruction. The need perceptions of females were identical, irrespective of the fact whether they were tribal or rural.

Manavalane, R. (1990) evaluated the adult education programme implemented by the Annamalai University in the Keerapalayan Panchayat Union of Chidambaram Taluk and concluded that the participation of the SC learners was more in AE programmes than others; those in the age-group of 15-24 years were participating more, and their reading skills were better than their writing skills.

Mohanty, N. (1988) evaluated the functional literacy programme in the Puri district of Orissa. She found that more emphasis was laid on literacy than on functionality; actual skill development in functionality was observed in only 40%; local people did not cooperate in management of the centres; infrastructural inadequacies were the main bottlenecks; irregular classes were also reported to be the reason for its tardy success; the motivating reasons were reported to be learning to sign one's name, maintaining accounts, and writing letters.

Mohan, S.N. and Usha, M.N. (1992) undertook an evaluation of the TLCs in Bijapur and Dakshina Kannada districts of Karnataka. The study revealed that there were ideological differences and personal rivalries among the members of different committees that were hindering the progress though the organisational set-up was conducive to the programme. The content of the primers was found to be comprehensive and gender issues were given priority and yet the latter lacked perspective. The

motivating strategies like Jathas and street plays, etc., are effective though their impact waned if not sustained throughout. The multiplier-effect strategy was diluted due to the percolation effect. The teaching-learning process was well planned and there were very few drop-outs. The achievement of literacy skill at levels I and II were very high, but at level III it was around 89% in Dakshina Kannada and 56% in Bijapur. Monitoring and supervision needed further phasing and meticulous planning to make the programme more effective. The study concluded that there was a need for relaxing the time-frame of such campaigns in view of the varying literacy levels and the socio-economic and cultural demands of the situation. It recommended strengthening the post-literacy programmes.

Murthy, D.S. (1988) studied the factors responsible for the effective implementation of NAEP in Andhra Pradesh. He found that the door-to-door contact by the instructors helped to increase the enrolment; learners favoured the instructors who were regular; the discussion - followed-by-demonstration method found favour with the learners; the content, though satisfactory, needed more information about culture, business, commerce, marketing and small scale and cottage industries; instructors with matriculation qualification were more successful; instructors who joined for earning livelihood were more committed; the programmes were more successful where DRDA, Banks and elders, etc., showed interest; mass campaigning helped in creating literacy awareness.

Padmini, N. (1992) studied the 'Arivoli Iyakkam' (Mass Literacy Programme) in selected areas of the Pondichery region and found that 68% were illiterates; 32% were drop-outs from primary schools; 80% adult learners were reported to gain appreciable literacy level; only 14.67% participants put the items learned into practice; literacy ranked first, followed by awareness and functionality in that order; the attitude of learners towards the Ariyoli Iyakkam was positive. It was suggested that the thrust



now should be on post-literacy campaign since total literacy has been achieved.

Pathak, S.N. (1991) made a study entitled, 'Adult education and socio-economic development in Azamgarh district', and came to the conclusion that the NAEP lost its effectiveness due to non-supply of learning materials in time, lack of proper publicity, facility, motivation, supervision, lack of sound knowledge of NAEP among the trainers, inadequate infrastructure, lack of departmental coordination, little honorarium, low achievement in functionality and awareness. He also found that 81.4% participants could not learn copying language or writing of letters or applications.

Rajan, R. (1992) critically studied the mass programme of functional literacy in Tamil Nadu, and found that the volunteers were inspired by MPFL—the motivation, the encouragement, special meetings, guest lectures, special certificates, etc.—and most of them joined because of their interest in the programme. The majority of the programme officers and programme coordinators were trained; 69.8% programme officers held a positive opinion about the literacy kit. The learner's expectations from the programme were that it would enable them to read the bus numbers, posters, name boards and the newspapers as also enable them to write letters and applications. 96.13% volunteers were satisfied with the MPFL, and 68.50% said that their studies were not hampered with this programme. The strength of the programme were the interest and commitment of the principals, volunteers and the programme officers.

Rao, G. (1992) studied the impact of the adult education programme on the social uplift of women in the rural areas of Madhya Pradesh and noticed an overall improvement in all the fields, viz., social, economic, hygiene, etc., in women in the experimental group due to the adult education programme. Changes was noticed in the maintenance of the kitchen, in general cleanliness and in the development of civic sense. The experimental-group women became aware of the legal rights of women and the social welfare programmes initiated by the government and also

realised the importance of education and started educating their children. Attitudinal changes towards living conditions were also noticed. The experimental group had developed a positive attitude towards the adult education programme, developed self-confidence and started solving social problems of the community.

Reddy, D.J. (1991) studied certain factors related to persisters and drop-outs of adult education centres and found, among many other things, that marriage had a negative effect on persistency.

Reddy, M.C.R. (1988) studied spatial variations of literacy in Andhra Pradesh and found that there was a wide disparity in the literacy rates of different districts of Andhra Pradesh. Out of 41 predictor variables used in the study, 29 that accounted for the variation in literacy rates were identified. He grouped these different variables under 10 categories to build different predictor models of literacy, out of which nine explained the variance in the literacy rate after having been subjected to multiple regression analysis.

Reddy, S.P.V. (1991) studied the job satisfaction of adult education supervisors in Andhra Pradesh. He found that the variables of age, sex, qualifications, marital status, salary, experience, deputation/direct recruitment did not make any significant difference among teachers. The difference was significant when classified on the basis of forward castes, backward castes and SC/ST. There was also significant difference between backward castes and the SC/ST. The attitude of the supervisors towards adult education differed significantly on the basis of above classification. Among many other findings which were important, regression analysis showed that when all the independent variables were considered together they explained 15.23% variance in the job satisfaction of the adult education supervisors.

Reddy, P.A. (1990) studied the socio-psychological factors relating to adult education instructor effectiveness and found that women function more effectively than men as instructors of adult education; age did not come



in their way; there was a direct correlation between achievement motivation and the effectiveness; same was true with higher educational achievements among the instructors; older instructors with positive attitude towards adult education were more effective; exposure to mass media leads to greater effectiveness.

Reddy, P.A. (1992) made a study of the determinants of adult education instructor effectiveness and came to conclusion that men and women instructors did not differ; younger instructors were more effective on learner rating; the other castes, backward castes and SC/ST had significant difference in terms of effectiveness, again on learner rating; similarly, the effectiveness of instructors had a direct relationship to their education according to the learner rating, etc.

Ramadevi, B. (1990) made a comparative study of the organisation and conduct of various agencies involved in the adult education programmes in Kerala and found that the majority of instructors were females and in the age-range of 21-25 years with less than a year to two year's experience. The Centre of Adult and Continuing Education was working better in terms of teaching methods and bringing back the drop-outs. In the Centre for Adult Education and Extension, all the instructors had Master's degree while 14.7% had Ph.D. The agencies were found not to be very different as far as the organisation of the programmes were concerned. CAEE and KANFED have published materials which are used by others, while CAEE has conducted some evaluation studies also. The four agencies studied have some common characteristics in terms of learning materials and choice of centres, but the CAEE was found to be more effective than the rest.

Sachchidananda et al. (1991) evaluated the Project on Radio Education for Adult Literacy (PREAL) in Hiropatti of Madhubani District and found that the women learners came from the backward and Scheduled Castes families; they liked learning through radio; the average attendance on usual days varied between 9 to

12, but on the PREAL days it increased to 12-15; some trends of change initiated through PREAL was observed, such as the emergence of self-confidence and assertiveness among the women; the appreciation for education was more; there was a more positive orientation towards personal hygiene and cleanliness of the household than before. The conclusions of this study were only one-third of the beneficiaries continued till the end and thus got full benefit of the programme; the learners got attracted to the PREAL due to its novelty factor which wore off in a couple of months time; the programme shortcomings were also revealed in this study, e.g., short duration and less frequent broadcasts; the radio lessons were in Hindi and the content had unfamiliar Hindi words in the primer, which made it incomprehensible to the Maithili-speaking learners. This confusion in the minds of the learners made them stay away from the programme. There were also the logistical problems like delay in repairs, shortage of lighting arrangements, etc., which hampered the programme. It was, therefore, suggested that corrective steps on in the light of above findings should be taken and close supervision ensured.

Sachchidananda (1992) evaluated SAMU (Saksharata Muzaffarpur). He found that the school-teachers and the students had played a crucial role in the environment building survey, and monitoring and coordination of the SAMU programme. Students had run a large number of centres themselves. The concept of earning while learning did not prove effective, because income-generating activities could not be provided in all literacy classes; the Monitoring Information system (MIS) did not work effectively; there was no means of knowing if the MLLs were achieved; it was suggested that it might be worthwhile to have a uniform test to assess the learners achievement in 3 R's, awareness and skills. SAMU's progress was adversely affected by administrative red-tapism and it was necessary to give it a support to enable it to emerge as a really good voluntary agency. It was also noted that the programme lacked support from the government, and the



political will needed to be demonstrated more conspicuously. The functionality and awareness components of the programme had suffered at the cost of the 3 R's. On the positive side it was noted that SAMU had successfully involved the women, particularly from the backward communities, for teaching, learning and participation in cultural programmes. The researcher saw the possibility of greater cooperation from the people if its management was toned up and the loopholes were plugged. There was need of more dedicated and whole-time workers and trainers to tighten the programme. He suggested that in the light of shortage of trained manpower it was advisable to take up areas in smaller segments like blocks and consolidate rather than spread to larger areas.

Saldhana, D. et al. (1991) conducted a study entitled, "Institutions of higher education and extension: the case of adult education", and found that the extension programmes have not been integrated with higher education adequately, and it remains as a secondary function; the extension programmes had very limited impact on adult literacy. However, the community-oriented extension programmes linked to the curriculum were found to be more successful.

Saldhana, D. (1992a) studied the literacy campaign in Wardha district and found that the men performed marginally better than women in literacy; workers of the urban sectors performed better; women with no jobs performed better than women with jobs; instructors of the same sex influenced learning, especially of men learners; school students, teachers and unemployed youth got more involved in the teaching process; and the campaign created a pro-literacy atmosphere that was favourable to formal primary education.

Saldhana, D. (1992b) presented a consolidated report on the TLC in Sindhudurg District and came to the conclusion that learner variables, e.g., female sex, higher age and the Buddhist community influenced literacy rates negatively; female instructors have negative

influence on male learners; school-teachers and young enthusiastic people make good teachers; the Village Literacy Committee plays a major role in TLC and that it made a positive impact on the literacy rate.

Seetharamu, A.S. et al. (1991) studied the adult education programme in Karnataka State. They found that the performance of the AECs in terms of clientele attendance was: in SAEP, 80%; and in RFLP, 55%; the lack in motivation was found to be responsible for gaps in performance and the learners were forcibly enrolled; lack of effective monitoring was found to be the major reason for many dysfunctionalities like enrolment of the learners, appointment of instructors, supply of learning materials, training of functionaries, provision of physical facilities, etc. There were certain bright spots in the functioning of the AECs and the JSNs. To name a few: the class affinity between the personnel and the clientele; consideration shown to sex and caste in opening the centres, the practice of holding periodical tests and giving home assignments (?); remedial programme for slow learners; etc. In comparison to the districts having multi-political-party panchayats, the district having a single-party panchayat was found to work more efficiently in this particular programme. The MPFL run by the UGC was also found to be full of promise and potential.

Sharma, B. (1990) studied the role of adult education in the socio-economic development of the weaker sections in the rural areas of Uttar Pradesh (a case study of rural areas of Allahabad District). He found that the adults did not attend classes for the full duration; there was no proper motivation and everything was left to the instructor; lack of involvement of development departments in the programme was conspicuously absent; learning materials were not available; women were not attracted to learning literacy skills because their domestic responsibilities came in the way of sustained interest; and the number of drop-outs at the centres was fairly large.

Sharma, R.D. (1989) published a paper on the theoretical approach to adult learning. He



has attempted to present the major contribution of various psychological theories of learning to the study of human learning.

Tantray, G.N. (1990) undertook an appraisal of adult education in Jammu & Kashmir and found that there was no survey undertaken for deciding the location of the AECs, and mostly they were opened on public pressure; instructors were identified from the local community but from amongst respectable(!) families who had some kind of clout with the Project Officers. These instructors were mostly youngsters having studied up to high school and took this work as employment rather than voluntary work. Although most of the instructors were trained, yet the quality of their training in terms of content, method and duration left much to be desired. The centres were in the houses of the instructors with little arrangement for lighting, etc. The learners came to learn the 3 R's and were in the age-group of 15-20 years, instead of 15-35 years. The teaching-learning materials were not provided in time. The role of the development department, though extremely important, was totally absent. The supervision was very poor and monitoring had been reduced to filling the proformae. Most of the learners could read the alphabets hesitatingly and could write them, though not correctly, and some could scribble their names, again incorrectly. Awareness had been found to exist but functionality was totally absent.

Thakre, P.G. (1991) studied the adult education programme launched by Nagpur University and assessed its impact on the target group. His conclusions were that the colleges in rural areas responded well and were involved with active participation in the programme but the momentum was gradually decreasing; the rise in the adult education programme was due to euphoria generated by the liberalism in releasing grants in the beginning and timely response given by the principals, professors-in-charge and the students; the decline of the programmes was due to the decline in the availability of financial resources, absence of the incharges and bifurcation of Nagpur University

into two—Nagpur and Amravati Universities; the whole programme was considered as an appendix to the main functioning of the colleges and it did not attract the common masses; the programme was considered as an economic activity by the functionaries; absence of proper evaluation and non-existent accountability of individual and institutions were conspicuous. The impact assessment revealed that there was no significant impact; the criteria for selection of supervisors and instructors were disregarded; no valid evaluation of learners achievement was adopted; the remuneration to functionaries was too meagre to sustain interest; the learners maintained a distance from the instructors and did not share their learning problems, and there was a scarcity of learning materials, etc.

Sivapalan, U.T.R. (1991) enquired into the workers' education programme in Kerala with view to suggesting improvements. He found that 'trade unionism' was closely linked to the workers' education programme and influenced the scheme very much; facilities for the unit-level classes in industries were not up to the mark; reading materials and related literature were not sufficient; rural workers and rural industries took the scheme more seriously; topics dealt within the unit-level class were generally limited to trade unionism, industry and labour legislations; the 'worker-teachers' were dissatisfied with lack of rewards, incentives, recognition, etc., and modern methods and techniques were not used in the programme.

Upasani, N.K. (1988) studied rural enrichment/education project featuring development of alternating models and strategies for self-learning for the rural youths on topics relevant to their life. He found that all the students who were involved in bookbinding and making exercise books were confident of making the exercise books on their own; all of them (who were from Classes VII, VIII, and IX) showed significant improvement in English vocabulary, pronunciation and spelling. He also developed a model for self-study for rural youths based on the experience of the study, which was found successful.



Verma, K.K. et al. (1992) evaluated PREAL through holistic study in the village Gomti in Vaishali district of Bihar and found that the PREAL had not significantly contributed to creating social awareness among the learners. There were many adverse factors for such a poor impact of PREAL, such as: faulty procedure of selection of instructors; selection of learners(?) without proper survey of illiterate persons in the village; inadequate training of the instructors; lack of proper supervision; delayed and inadequate supply of teaching-learning materials and other logistic support; lack of motivation among learners; and failure of other government programmes in the area. Based on these findings they have offered suggestions to remedy the situation.

Verghese, U.S. (1989) evaluated the teaching-learning materials in Malayalam used in the adult education centres in Kerala and concluded that different agencies working in the area are producing and using different primers for the adult education programme. There were 24 primers, four workbooks, three guides and two handbooks, out of which 'janabodhana sahayi' was the most used, and only four workbooks and two handbooks could pass the test of the criteria laid down for teaching-learning materials. These teaching-learning materials were not evaluated periodically and the workbooks and guide books were not prepared in relation to the contents in any particular primer.

### Continuing Education

The researches in the area of continuing education are too small in number to give any indication of the trend. In fact, there are only three studies, and those too lie partly in the area of adult education.

Muthuchamy, I. (1991) studied the role performance of adult/continuing education *preraks* in RFLP of Tamil Nadu. This study could be in the gray area of both adult education and continuing education as *preraks* are not classified as adult learners though they are

working for adult education. He found that the *preraks*'s role performance was high as organiser of cultural and recreational programmes, recorder of educational activities and as supervisor. Their performance was low on the roles of organisation of literacy and post-literacy activities, teaching of literacy, dissemination of functional information, generation of awareness, mobilisation of resources, professional devotion and guidance.

Passi, B.K. et. al. (1983) had developed a proposal for the creation of a department/centre of adult/continuing education and extension work but it hardly merits any analysis as it concerns itself with establishing a department, and that perhaps could perhaps give some indication of the growing trend in the field of adult and continuing education.

Rani, R. (1992) studied the involvement of the Avinashlingam deemed university in adult/continuing education programmes and found that the animators were able to make an impact on the adult learners specifically in the area of the 3 R's. This, however, has little to do with continuing education on the parameters laid down in the beginning of this chapter.

### Non-formal Education

The efforts in the area of Non-formal Education largely emanate from the scheme of Non-formal Education as implemented by the Government of India through the state governments and the voluntary agencies and autonomous institutions. The researches carried out in the universities and elsewhere revolve round the scheme, or development of materials for the implementation of the scheme. Very few works, independent of the governmental concerns, have emanated.

Arora, S.R. (1989) studied the administrative structure of the Non-formal Education Scheme and its supervision and monitoring. She makes an appraisal of the administrative aspects in the backdrop of the Programme of Action for the Implementation of the National Policy of Education (1986).



Das, T. (1989) while studying the effectiveness of the Non-formal Education in the district of Puri in Orissa, found that there was overcrowding in the centres; in the same breath he says that only few students are coming to the centres regularly! He also laments that there was no uniformity in teaching hours in the different centres! (should there be uniformity?).

Dasgupta, P. (1990) again rests her study of the NFE Curriculum and Instructional Materials—their implications for instructional programmes—on the NFE Scheme being implemented by the state governments. She concludes that the different state governments have either adopted or developed NFE curricula based on the formal schools' curricula although there is an evidence of efforts being made to evolve problem-based integrated or partially integrated NFE curricula in different states. The approaches in development of instructional materials are divergent though not exactly innovative in the sense that these were earlier tried out under various experiments carried out under the formal primary education. Dasgupta found that there was need for more systematisation of the evaluation of the NFE children.

Grewal, J.K. (1991) while studying both adult education and non-formal education programmes in females, came to the conclusion that in the matters of non-formal education the motivating factors were related to age, marital status, caste and income; almost every participant was satisfied with the content and timings of the programme; about three-fourths of the participants were regular; age did not affect the rate of attendance but caste did, and it was significantly and directly related to income; non-attendance in the centres was attributed to the role of the learners in improving the family income. (Compare this with the satisfaction with the timings of the centre, and the genesis of NFE in the fact that the learner would be free to follow his/her economic activity and education would be so adjusted that the centres function according to the needs of the learners.)

Jha, M.K. (1992) evaluated the Non-formal Education Programme in Bihar which is a study of fifty primary-level centres and ten middle-level centres. He came to the conclusion that the honorarium of the instructors was highly unsatisfactory; the training was poor; and learning materials were inadequate and irregular, and thus the programme was ineffective in the state.

Mishra, R. and Mishra, S. (1990) studied the training inputs for non-formal education instructors whereby they tested a module and came to a conclusion that there was considerable transformation in the attitude and capabilities of the instructors after training. This may sound a paradox as this as well as the previous study of Jha, M.K. (1992) both were done in Bihar. But the latter restricts itself to the Nav Bharat Jagriti Kendra—a voluntary agency in the district of Hazaribagh—the agency which sponsored this study. They also indicate in this case that the instructors' performance in the field was encouraging and that they were making use of the training inputs to a large extent. Also, they found that the success of the trainees seemed to depend on the organisational climate, their personality dispositions and societal forces. They suggested that the instructors selected should have proper(!) aptitude and capabilities; training should be on the residential-camp approach(?) and should be conducted in a rural setting; it should be based on 'active and constructive participation of the trainers and the trainees alike'. They also suggested that constant monitoring should be an essential component of the training.

Mohanty, A. (1991) studied the reactions of the facilitators to the learning materials developed for non-formal education developed in Orissa. He found that while the format of the instructional materials was satisfactory, the time indicated in each capsule for the average learner was not appropriate, (Mohanty is considering the materials developed under Comprehensive Access to Primary Education Project.) The capsules do not contain all the relevant information regarding the authors, publishers,



etc., (Is it necessary at the primary stage?) He found that the content of these materials was very effective for urban, rural and tribal learners, although a few urban facilitators have pointed out the inadequacy of specific instructional objectives while still others have found it a little too difficult for the learners. The specific instructions to facilitators have been conspicuously missing. The language used was not within the understanding level of these learners and the presentation of vocabulary items had not been done properly with illustrations; the contents of the capsules were not found to be properly graded according to the difficulty level; also, the contents had not been hierarchically arranged from known to unknown. Mohanty's study brings out the inadequacies of the materials from the point of language textbook writing techniques and it should be a reminder to those who write these materials that these aspects need to be considered, except of course, that in the case of the modular approach each module is independent of the other yet is sequential in nature as in programmed learning approach. Mohanty was, however, convinced by his study that the only way to eradicate illiteracy was non-formal education. It may however be pointed out that Mohanty had seen NFE as a tool of eradicating illiteracy rather than as an alternative approach to primary education.

Natarajan, P. (1990) studied the role of non-formal programmes of education in promotion of literacy. It may be noticed that in the topic itself there was conceptual confusion as non-formal programmes (not education programmes!) as means of promoting literacy only. The objectives of the study were to assess the contribution of primary education to the enhancement of literacy and also of the non-formal programmes to the same end. It is matter of concern that Natarajan sees the entire primary stage as a literacy programme! Conceptual clarity is totally lacking in this kind of research and it throws a very poor light on the seriousness of the research. However—with whatever limitations—he came out with findings

like there was increase in enrolment in some areas while in some other there was no increase. He concluded that drop-out and stagnation are the major problems of primary education and adult education. (Compare with the objectives!) In spite of this, the achievement is said to be encouraging.

Nayak, A. (1990) studied the entry-level characteristics, learning needs and occupational interests of non-formal learners and found that the non-formal learners in the age-group of 9-14 years generally came from the weaker sections of the society. On the basis of culture-free intelligence test scales and achievement tests prepared by the NCERT, with slight modification made by him, he came to the conclusion that their level of intelligence and achievement was not equal, but varied. He also concluded that the learning needs and occupational interests were also not equal(?). The factors affecting learning needs were habitation, family background, achievement, intelligence level, hereditary/ parental occupation, socio-economic condition, etc. Nayak found the sex of the learner played a certain role in determining the learning needs and occupation. The reasons for drop-out were related to many factors, such as lack of parental interest, poor economic condition, behaviour of the teacher, etc. Among the reasons for not attending schools were found to be poor economic condition, lack of schooling facilities in nearby places, physical handicap of the learners, etc. He also identified eight learning needs: social recognition, economic development, better citizenship, vocational efficiency, cultural development, utilisation of leisure, successful family life, and understanding and manipulating environment. (I think Nayak means the motivational factors rather than learning needs). He goes on to identify 15 occupational areas for the non-formal learners: service, agriculture, business, technical and industrial worker, animal farming, weaving, pottery, clay modeling and sculpture, blacksmithy, fishery, goldsmithy, laundering, daily-wage earning, and household work. One can see that almost all the



conventional occupations have been listed. There are many questions that remain either vague or unanswered.

Shakuntala, S.N. (1987) made a critical study of NFE for drop-outs and non-enrolled children of Karnataka State in the age-group 9-14 years. Although it was done previously to the period under report, her work was not included in the Fourth Survey. She found that the NFE centres were not located in a manner so as to be accessible to the majority of out of school-children; the community participation was minimum; the centres lacked several infrastructural facilities. It was not clear what the expectations of desirable infrastructure were? If it was the same as the primary school, then the NFE has no provision for that. The NFE scheme envisages a certain infrastructure and that has to be the yardstick for measuring the sufficiency or otherwise. She attributed the non-participation of the girls in the NFE programme to the fact that the lady instructors were not there. She found that only 5.8% children from the NFE joined formal schools to continue their studies. She concluded that there was a need for expansion of the NFE centres in the immediate vicinity of the out of school-children.

Sharma, H.L. (1988) identified various approaches/practices of NFE in voluntary organisations. He found that all voluntary agencies laid down that the objective of NFE, as they understood it, was to provide primary education to the children who were not attending formal schools; the teaching-learning materials used by them in the NFE programmes were the same as developed by the SCERTs of their respective states; the training programmes for NFE instructors and supervisors are organised by SCERTs of the respective states; these training programmes were of a general nature and needed in-depth study; and, finally, the voluntary agencies had their own procedure for pupil evaluation. One can hardly come out with any specific inference for programme improvement from this study!

Shukla, N.N. (1988) studied the role of NFE in social change in Gwalior District. He

concluded that: (a) the students in non-formal education developed socially with a little difference in the Scheduled Castes and higher castes students; (b) they developed democratic values and scientific attitudes; and (c) they had a desire to join the mainstream, specially the girls and the Scheduled Castes students. This study based its conclusions on a number hypotheses tested for significance by relevant statistical methods.

Shukla, N. (1992) undertook the preparation of tools and techniques for evaluating NFE children's achievement and reached the conclusion that instruction in the NFE centres had largely been based on developing the academic and national aspects of a child's personality; the vocational and social aspects had not been duly emphasised. There was a need for development of tools for evaluation of achievements in every field.

Sood, N. (1987) undertook an evaluation of the non-formal pre-school education component in the Mangolpuri ICDS block and concluded that although no definite picture could be drawn about the directionality of the better performing *anganwadi* within the ICDS groups, yet there was sufficient evidence to say that the ICDS group as a whole performed better than the non-ICDS group on all aspects of a development included in the study. Exposure to ICDS enhanced the overall developmental status of the pre-schoolers; children graduating from *anganwadis* perform better in schools; and exposure to ICDS raised the level of mothers' awareness about the value of pre-school education and the health/nutrition needs of their children.

Kumari, V.P. (1991) made a critical analysis of the difficulty levels of writing Telugu alphabets as perceived by teachers and learners in the formal, the non-formal and the adult education institutions. She categorised the alphabets into three groups as 'very difficult', 'difficult' and 'easy', based on the difficulty level of writing them (presumably the lexical difficulty) and she tested the significance of difference for each of the letters for each pair of subgroups.



Venkataiah, N. and Naidu, J.K. (1990) compared the drop-outs and non-starters on achievements and found that there was significant difference in academic achievements of the drop-outs and non-starters at the NFE centres, with the former having better achievement; there was significant difference between the academic achievements of drop-outs divided on the basis of the length of their primary schooling. No significant difference was found in the academic achievement scores between (a) drop-outs with three years and two years of formal schooling; and (b) drop-outs with two years and one year of formal primary schooling, but there was significant difference between the drop-outs with three years and one year of formal schooling in their academic achievement. It is not clear whether the gap between dropping out and restarting was kept in view.

Yadav, M.S. et al. (1990) made a rapid appraisal of the NFE-CAPE Programme in Rajasthan. They found that with over 10,000 centres working in the state with about 3 lakh learners, the attempt to decentralise the administration was a significant step. The involvement of the voluntary agencies was praiseworthy but their potential was not fully exploited for the cause. The State Institute of Educational Research and Training had the necessary expertise for training NFE personnel but it was found that they had insufficient resources in comparison to the enormity of task. They also found that training was crucial to the entire effort of NFE. CAPE material was found to be effective. At the same time it was found that the NFE curriculum fell short of the Minimum Learning Outcomes (at that time). Girls were found to prefer NFE to formal schooling. NFE was found to have a potential to cater to the needs of out-of-school children, and serious efforts were required in planning and execution to maintain the quality of education.

### **FUTURE RESEARCH NEEDS**

An analysis of the researches carried out in the

area of Adult Education shows that out of 41 researches reported, as many as 16 are either evaluative in nature or are impact studies; 23 are applied researches; and one is developmental, and one, fundamental in nature. In the area of Continuing Education, there are only three studies of which two are applied researches, and one, a developmental study. It may, however, be stated here that even these three studies are overlapping with Adult Education and do not strictly fall in the area of Continuing Education according to our theoretical perspective set forth earlier in this chapter. Of the 20 studies in the area of Non-formal Education covered in this chapter, 13 are applied, five evaluation/impact studies, and two, developmental studies.

The one research in adult education classified as fundamental research may give us some kind of wrong notion of the attempt in this direction. In fact, this is a research article and not a full study and has some inclination towards fundamental thoughts, not exactly clarifying any theoretical concept or making any conceptual contribution. It would be seen from the foregoing review of the researches done in the period under review that applied and evaluation aspects have been rather more researched areas in the field of adult, continuing and non-formal education. Our first section has amply brought out that there is still scope for concept stabilisation in the three fields. To reiterate, it should be once again pointed out that the Continuing Education and Adult Education have overlapping fields, and there is a need for theory building so that a clear line of demarcation between the two is established. A similar situation exists on the international scene when adult and non-formal education are considered. However, with Ambasht's working definition in the Indian context referred above in this chapter, some concretisation has taken place in concept clarification.

Whereas it is a welcome sign that the abundance of applied and impact/evaluation studies are undertaken in a developing society, it is also necessary that fundamental researches do find place in the scheme of researches in



order to build up the body-politic of the knowledge. At least in these areas there is an emerging need to carry out researches of fundamental nature, and our future researchers should give a certain amount of attention to this field. It is not denied that there is need for applied and evaluation studies. They are absolutely necessary for any developing society. For instance, there is an urgent need for more researches on the impact of the National Literacy Mission (NLM) on the literacy rate, awareness build-up and functionality components of the programme by researchers so that programme improvement may be undertaken if necessary.

The area of Continuing Education is still a very green area. The impact of institutions like open universities, open schools, directorates of correspondence education, are some of the fields in which one could take up researches. Studies of achievement through these institutions and through the traditional system could throw light on the relative efficacies!

In the area of Non-formal education too, developmental as well as impact studies are of prime importance because the field is growing and the massive programme is chasing the elusive target of universal elementary education.

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