CHAPTER-3

3. DEVELOPMENTAL PERSPECTIVE OF ADULT EDUCATION IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

The thrust of recent research in the field of adult education has witnessed a change in its developmental perceptions and understanding of strategies to create a favourable environment for the literacy movement.

In the following sections, attempts have been made to present empirical evidence in respect of the Adult Education system in Asia and the selected countries for this study.

3.1 ADULT EDUCATION IN ASIA

The countries of Eastern and Southern Asia have the highest number of illiterates, estimated to be at about 75 percent of the total world figures. Many countries in Asia undertook literacy campaigns to raise the basic literacy level. Burma, now Myanmar carried out literacy campaigns successfully in 1960s. Nyi (1983) analyzed the national and cultural context of the literacy campaign in Burma. The literacy programme gained momentum during the early 1960s when the government realized the necessity for a literate population to achieve modernization and development. Experiments were conducted till 1968 throughout the country regarding preparation of teaching materials, methods of teaching, production of teaching aids, determination of the optimum period required to become literate and the follow-up measures to prevent relapse into illiteracy, etc. It was found that functional literacy was best promoted in two stages. In the first stage, a person would acquire the ability to read, write and calculate. In the second stage, the neo-literate was to be encouraged to read further materials, which was of interest to him and society. Since Burmese is a monosyllabic language and the Burmese writing system is synthetic, literacy programmes in Burma have been organized since 1969 as mass movements run
at very low cost. It received nation-wide support and also received a UNESCO literacy award in 1971.

Singh, Madhu (2002) has outlined issues pertaining to policies, programmes, and delivery modes of adult education in some of the countries of the Asian region. This issue includes legislation and regulations, financing and programme strategies, mechanism for promoting NGO involvement, ensure gender equality and equivalency programmes.

In South Asian countries illiteracy remains the greatest problem in rural areas and there is wide gender gap in literacy levels. Chatterjee (2004) reviewed the progress made in Education for All (EFA) in the light of Dakar Conference. The study included seven countries namely Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka. The study reviewed critical factors and pathways to progress and pointed out that the problems of the region regarding adult literacy are similar. Illiteracy remains greatest in rural areas and is marginal in urban areas. The study suggested that poverty is the key issue and must be given due consideration while planning. Groups and communities with the lower levels of literacy need to understand the wider benefits of literacy and should become directly involved in literacy campaigns. Across the region, there are relatively neglected areas and groups of population. There is a major gender gap among them as the literacy profile indicates. Much is required to be done to create appropriate learning environments. All the countries under study have clearly articulated policy frameworks in literacy and in education. The objectives of adult learning described in the policy documents in this region focuses on the individual’s intellectual growth, entrepreneurial abilities, socio-economic development and empowerment. Literacy improves the quality of life by addressing and impacting global concerns like poverty, environment, human rights, peace and human values. In almost all the countries the number of NGOs and their participation is increasing. Sri Lanka and Maldives have been successful in substantially reducing literacy. The major challenge of the region
lies in three countries – India, Pakistan and Bangladesh, who need closer attention and support to move on towards the unfinished agenda.

3.2 GEOGRAPHICAL AND HISTORICAL PROFILE OF INDIA

In brief the overview of the geographical and historical background gives insight into the country profile location wise, historical background, territory and population wise, constitution and governments and educational scenarios followed by the historical development of adult education.

India (Republic of India), Capital of India: New Delhi, UN gives a projected Population for 2010 of 1,173.81m.

Geographical Location
Southern Asia, bordering the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal, between Burma and Pakistan.

Historical Background
In 1945 Britain had neither the will nor the resources to maintain the Indian Empire. In 1947 India was divided into India, a predominantly Hindu state led by Jawaharlal (Pandit) Nehru (1889-1964) of the Congress Party, and Pakistan a Muslim state led by Mohammad Ali Jinnah (1876-1964) of the Muslim League. Partition brought enormous upheaval. More than 70m. Hindus and Muslims became refugees as they trekked across the new boundaries. Many thousands were killed in intercommunal violence. The border remained disputed in many places. Tension increased when Gandhi was assassinated by a Hindu fundamentalist (1948). In 1950 India became a republic.

After the fall of the Soviet Union (1991), India gradually abandoned state ownership and some elements of protectionism. Privatization has been accompanied by an economic revolution that has seen the development of high tech industries. At the same time, India has become a nuclear power, exploding its first nuclear device in 1975. Along with Pakistan, India has yet to sign the Comprehensive Nuclear Test Ban Treaty.
**Territory and Population**

India is bounded in the northwest by Pakistan, north by China (Tibet), Nepal and Bhutan, east by Myanmar and southeast, south and southwest by the Indian Ocean. The far eastern states and territories are almost separated from the rest by Bangladesh. The area (excluding the Pakistan and China occupied parts of Jammu and Kashmir) is 3,166,414 sq. km. A Sino Indian agreement of 7 Sept. 1993 settled frontier disputes dating from the war of 1962. Population (excluding occupied Jammu and Kashmir), 2001 census population: 1,027,015,247 (495,738,169 females), giving a density of 324 persons per sq. km. There are also 20m, Indians UK and South Africa. 72.2% of the population was rural in 2001 (Goa being the most urban state, 49.8% and Himachal Pradesh the most rural at 90.2%. More than 45% of Indains are under 20.

The UN gives a projected population for 2010 of 1,173.81m.

By 2050 India is expected to have a population of 1.53bn and is projected to have overtaken China as the world’s most populous country.

**Constitution and Government**

The Constitution was passed by the Constituent Assembly on 26 Nov. 1949 and came into force on 26 Jan. 1950. It has since been amended 86 times.

India is a republic and comprises a Union of 28 States and seven Union Territories. Each State is administered by a Governor appointed by the President for a term of five years while each Union Territory is administered by the President through a Lieut-Governor or an administrator appointed by him. The head of the Union (head of state) is the president in whom all executive power is vested, to be exercised on the advice of ministers responsible to Parliament. The President, who must be an Indian citizen at least 35 years old and eligible for election to the House of the People, is elected by an electoral college of all the elected members of Parliament and of the state legislative assemblies, holds office for five years and is eligible for re-election. There is also a Vice-President who is ex officio chairman of the Council of States.
The Constitution provides that the official language of the Union shall be Hindi in the Devangari script. Hindi is spoken by over 30% of the population. It was originally provided that English should continue to be used for all official purposes until 1965. But the Official Languages Act 1963 provides that after the expiry of this period of 5 years from the coming into force of the Constitution, English might continue to be used, in addition to Hindi, for all official purposes of the Union for which it was being used immediately before that day and for the transaction of business in Parliament. According to the Official Language (Use for official purposes of the Union) Rules 1976 an employee may record in Hindi or in English without being required to furnish a translation thereof in the other language and no employee possessing a working knowledge of Hindi may ask for an English translation of any document in Hindi except in the case of legal or technical documents.

There are 18 languages are included in the Eight Schedule to the Constitution (with 2003 estimate a speakers), Assamese (16.6m), Bengali (88.6m), Gujarati (51.7m), Hindi (429.1m), Kannada (41.7m), Kashmiri (1.1m), Konkani (2.2m), Malayalam (38.6m), Manipuri (1.6m), Marathi (79.5m), Nepali (2.7m), Oriya (35.7), Punjabi (29.8m), Sanskrit (fewer than 1m), Sindhi (2.7m), Tamil (67.4m), Telugu (84.0m), Urdu (55.3m).

An overview, India’s economic growth rate has risen, poverty has declined from 36% of the population in 1993-94 to 26% by the end of the decade and social indicators have improved. In the 1990s India was among the fastest growing economies and foreign investment rose from almost nothing to US$2bn per year. The economy has expanded by an average of 6% per annum since the early 1990s, although 2001 and 2002 saw growth of less than 5%. Agriculture accounts for 25% of GDP in 2002, industry 25% and services 50%. The service sector is the least regulated. A large educated English speaking labour force has helped economic development and the country is an exporter of IT and software workers. India has developed a diversified industrial base and a relatively large and sophisticated financial sector. Its IT sector has experienced rapid growth.
with revenues estimated at 58bn in 2000. Software exports were worth US$3bn in 2001, compared to total merchandise exports of US$43bn.

India has one of the fastest-growing economies in Asia. Real GDP growth for 1998 was 5.8% indicating that India managed to avoid the worst by the Asian crisis. In 1999 a growth rate of 6.7% was recorded, followed by 5.4% in 2000, 4.2% in 2001 and 4.7% in 2002. Critics claims that growth needs to be at lest 8% in order to tackle the country’s poverty. Recent years have seen a growing disparity between the performance of India’s richest states, mainly in the south and the west and the poorest states, generally in the east and the north.

**Education:** Adult literacy was 58.0% in 2001 (69.0% among males and 46.4% among females). Of the states and territories, Kerala and Mizoram have the highest rates.

Education is the concurrent responsibility of state and Union government. In the Union Territories it is the responsibility of the central government. The Union government is also directly responsible for the central universities and all institutions declared by parliament to be of national importance the promotion of Hindi as the federal language and co-ordinating and maintaining standards in higher education, research, science and technology. Professional education rests with the Ministry or Department concerned. There is Central Advisory Board of Education to advise the Union and the State Government on any educational question which may be referred to it.

The school system has four stages Primary, middle, secondary and senior secondary. Primary education is imparted either at independent primary (or junior basic) school or primary classes attached to middle or secondary schools. The period of instruction varies from four to five years and the medium of instruction is in most cases the mother tongue of the child or the regional language. Free primary education is available for all children. Legislation for compulsory education has been passed by some state governments and Union Territories but is not practicable to enforce compulsion when the reasons for non
attendance are socio-economic. There are residential schools for country children. The period for the middle stage varies from two to three years.

High education is given in arts, science or professional college, universities and all India educational or research institutions. In 1995-96 there were 166 universities four institutes established under state legislature act, 11 institutions of national importance and 37 institutions deemed as universities. Of the universities 13 are central: Aligarh Muslim University; Banaras Hindu University; Delhi University; Hyderabad University; Jamia Millia Islamia, New Delhi; Jawaharlal Nehru University; North Eastern Hill University; Visva Bharati; Pondicherry University; Baba Sahib B.R. Ambedkar University; Assam University; Texpur University and Nagaland University. The rest are state universities. Total enrolment at universities, 1995-96, 6,425,624 of which 5,667,400 were undergraduates. Women students numbered 2,191,138.

The number of institutions awarding degree in engineering and technology in 1996-97 was 418, and those awarding diplomas, 1,029; the former admitted 328,399 students, the latter 357,891 including 58,454 female students.


Adult Education: The Directorate of Adult Education, MHRD, established in 1971 is the national resource centre.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of recognized institution</th>
<th>No. of Institutions</th>
<th>No. of students on rolls</th>
<th>No. of teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary junior basic schools</td>
<td>598,353</td>
<td>110,393,406</td>
<td>1,789,733</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle senior basic school</td>
<td>176,772</td>
<td>41,064,849</td>
<td>1,195,845</td>
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<tr>
<td>High higher secondary schools</td>
<td>102,183</td>
<td>27,036,856</td>
<td>1,542,360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training schools and colleges</td>
<td>1,931</td>
<td>237,509</td>
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<tr>
<td>Arts, Sciences and Commerce colleges</td>
<td>6,759</td>
<td>6,425,624</td>
<td>239,488</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3 HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF ADULT EDUCATION IN INDIA

In the present chapter an effort has been made to examine the historical development of adult education in India - its concepts, policies and practices in relation to the socio-political development in the country. Adult education in its various forms is intrinsically related to the various forces in society and there is a dynamic interplay between the socio-political phase of society and the concept, policies and programmes of adult education in its various forms.

The programmes implemented in adult education in its various forms since India’s independence (1947) are associated to the context conditioned by the socio-political scenario.

Depending upon the marked changes in concept and philosophy of adult education the priority accorded to it by development approach adopted by different governments, the adult education in India in the post independence can be grouped into the following periods:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adult Education during</th>
<th>1947-1960</th>
<th>Community Development: Literacy and Social Education.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adult Education during</td>
<td>1961-1977</td>
<td>Functional Literacy’s new dimension of Social Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult Education during</td>
<td>1978-1984</td>
<td>Literacy – Functionality linked with socio-Economic Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult Education during</td>
<td>1985-1997</td>
<td>National Literacy Mission: Basic Linked with Self Reliance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult Education during</td>
<td>1997-2007</td>
<td>Universal Literacy and Education for all.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3.1 Adult Education during 1947-1960: Community Development: Literacy and Social Education

India’s independence in 1947 came with many challenging problems of national reconstruction. There was a need for socio-economic development and for building a self-reliant nation, for which the concept of community
development was perceived. The first effort about literacy at the dawn of independence was presented by the Report of Saxena Committee of the Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE). The Saxena Committee advocated broadening of the then prevailing concept of adult education, highlighting it to include literacy in general education. It was the first impetus towards social education. However, most of its recommendations were relevant to literacy. It recommended the elimination of 50% of illiteracy in the country from the age group of 12-45 in five years, for which purpose students, government employees and refugees were to be mobilised, if necessary by legislation.

The Saxena Report depicts the mood of post-independence enthusiasm for more serious thinking. It succeeded in drawing the educational policy-makers’ attention to things other than literacy. Adult education then got a new name – that of Social Education. The first Five-Year Plan was influenced by the basic thinking that our people need more than just literacy. Accordingly, the First Five Year Plan has very little to say about literacy. Rather under the then concept of basic education, it was mixed up with certain elements of the latter.

The Saxena Report further observed that “In organising literacy and post-literacy work, the aim should be to put it on a self financing basis as far as possible, by normally starting it only when the ground has been prepared by some more obviously useful activity, i.e. the economic activity (Government of India, Planning Commission). The First Five Year Plan 1952 p.547) again emphasised that “Work in the experimental centres of social education, which should be associated in the case of rural areas with the group of model basic institutions… should provide sufficient material or literature suitable for adults”.

The concept of community development emphasised people’s participation and involvement in the integrated form of development. Social education emerged as an important component of community development. Defining social education, the then Union Education Minister, Maulana Abdul Kalam Azad, said, “We may say that social education has three aspects, namely (a) the induction of literacy among grown-up illiterates, (b) the production of an
educated mind in the masses in the absence of literacy education and (c) the inclusion of a lively sense of rights and duties of citizenship, both as individuals and as members of a mighty nation. We may say that social education is synonymous with adult education, but it lays more emphasis upon the latter aspects of education”. The concept of social education did not lay adequate stress on literacy education. On the other hand it was assumed that universal literacy would be achieved through the expanding school system in the country under the constitutional directive of providing free and compulsory education to all children up to the age of 14.

Community education was the centre of the community development concept. In the First Five Year Plan, social education was defined as “a comprehensive programme of community uplift through community action”. Social education, as the term denotes, was an effort to create a social identity and to promote community participation in national development. This era, which focused on the development of infrastructure, and the building of higher, technical and primary education is also known as the early “Nehru era”.

The general view that was taken was that the country should concentrate on achieving cent percent elementary education by 1960. Very little was done in the period directly for adult teaching. Literacy did not receive due priority during 1950’s when it remained as an integral part of the Community Development Programme (Shah, 1999). All the same, a small-scale programme of adult education (including literacy) was kept going under the title of social education as part of the Community Development Scheme. On the whole, it was time for small-scale action.

During this period the highest emphasis in educational development has been on a linear expansion of the education system inherited from the British. It implies that the existing system of education is basically good, that the first responsibility of the government is to expand it and to provide access to an increasing number of people, and that all ideas of reforming and transforming the system can be pursued side by side to the possible extent.

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Since independence only two provincial governments have made perceptible efforts to tackle the problem of illiteracy. First of these was made by the then Madhya Pradesh Government when in the three years 1948-51 nearly 6.4 lakh men and women were made literate through nearly 60,000 classes. Another memorable effort was made in the State of Maharashtra through the movement, which has been known by the name of Gram Sheehan Mahim (GSM) (Rural Education Campaign). The campaign had three objectives:

- Eradication of illiteracy of the adult within the age group 14-50 through literacy classes;
- Retaining literacy and enriching the knowledge of neo-literate; and
- Bringing all round development of the village through literacy centres.

During the two years 1961-63 over a million men and women became literate through (GSM) and illiteracy was totally eliminated from 1258 villages (a report of the Planning Commission, GOI, 1964).

Some concern for the widespread illiteracy in the country was expressed in the Second Five Year Plan, which asserted: “Rapid social and economic progress along democratic lines and widespread illiteracy are scarcely compatible with each other” (Government of India, Planning Commission, The Second Five Year Plan, 1956, p.517). The report did not go beyond this and neither target for literacy work was set, nor the funds were spent on programmes connected with literacy.

3.3.2 Adult Education during 1961-1977: Functional Literacy’s New Dimension of Social Education

By the time the Third Five Year Plan was finalised, the 1961 census had revealed the very slow pace of progress towards the ideal of total literacy. This disturbed people’s thinking for a while and this experience is reflected in the report. As is evident between the periods 1951 to 1961 literacy rates increased marginally from about 17 percent to 24 percent. During the 1960’s the emphasis of adult education shifted from civic to functional literacy. In the Third Five
Year Plan 1961-1966 the Government of India acknowledged that very little progress had been made in the field of social education, though the number of social education centres had increased and a wider tract had been covered. The plan stated,

“Over the past decade in several directions, there had been a measure of progress, as in development of community centres, reading rooms in villages, organisation of youth clubs.... One aspect of social education and in some ways the most important has however of, concern. Between 1951 and 1961, literacy increased from 17% to 21%.... The introduction of Panchayati Raj at the district and block levels and the important role assigned to the village panchayats render it imperative that in as short a period as possible a substantial proportion of adult population should become capable of reading and writing. This is essential in their own interest as in that of the community as whole as sufficient progress has not been recorded in this direction, the problem is now being studied afresh with a view to working out means for the rapid expansion of adult literacy.” (The Third Five-Year Plan pp 594).

For the first time, there was seriousness in thinking about the problem, for the report called for “a pooling of resources in men and money, mobilisation of voluntary workers and organisations and developed adult education and literacy work at the block and village levels and spread it to every city and town so that it takes the character of more and more like a popular movement... The broad aim should be that wherever a group of persons are sufficient to constitute a class and desire to attain literacy, the requisite facilities by way of teachers and teaching material should be made readily available... At every step the local leadership, the teachers and the voluntary workers should be drawn into the movement for
expansion of the literacy among men and women” (The Third Five Year Plan, pp.599-600).

In the Third Five Year Plan, the programmes of the Ministry of Education, Government of India, provided for further development of a National Fundamental Education Centre as part of the National Institute of Education for the production of literature for neo-literate, involvement and assistance of voluntary organisations in the field of social education and expansion of library facilities to the rural areas. The educational plans of the states provided for libraries and continuation of classes and to a limited extent supported other schemes for promotion of literacy.

There were no separate provisions for adult education. Adult education was still a part of social education. Main provisions for social education were made under the Community Development Programme. This was done in spite of the criticism by organizers of social education voiced by various other authorities. The approach to the programme was also outlined. It again repeated some of the earlier points to run the programmes of adult literacy. The closest possible was co-operation at every level of personnel engaged in education where community development was considered necessary. It was suggested that all resources must be pooled and the broad aim should be that whenever a group of persons was ready to attain literacy, a teacher and reading material should be provided to the group. In the draft of the plan, it was also suggested that all educational institutions should be involved in this effort to remove illiteracy and teachers were to be paid suitable honoraria for the task. The draft of the plan encouraged local leaders and volunteers to participate in this movement with the hope that appreciable progress would be made during the plan.

With the implementation of the Third Five Year Plan, there was another remarkable development. The concept of social education stood clarified at the national level. The Government of India published the concept of social education, which removed all doubts about the nature of adult education. It was considered that mere removal of illiteracy was not sufficient to meet the
challenge of the times. As such, the concept included elements of education such as democracy, citizenship, health and education for desirable social change. In short, the concept of social education could now be stated as: Social education is adult education for a desirable social change. Social education is education for the betterment of an individual’s social, economic, political and moral life. Social education is education, which enables a community to assume direction of its own development. It is education for better work; better rest; better use of leisure and better recreation.

The priority was on the social aspects of an adult’s development. The content of social education was in the form of a programme of activities selected according to the needs of the people of a particular area and adjusted to their cultural level. The activities differed from place to place and were large in number and as varied as the life of the people. A classification and description of such activities are described as under:

- Activities for imparting knowledge: These include a drive against illiteracy and ignorance, organizing literacy campaigns, group discussions and health awareness.

- Activities for bringing about social change: These included lectures, talks and group discussions on a variety of subjects like family planning, casteism etc.

- Activities for education in community organizations like youth clubs, women’s clubs.

- Activities for recreation and culture like sports, games, hobbies etc.

- Activities for underprivileged people: A special effort has to be made to improve the lot of the underprivileged people such as women. Suitable activities should be introduced.

- Activities for Continuing of Education: These activities include opening of Janta colleges, adult schools and adult education departments in universities etc.
The concept and content of social education were defined in a very comprehensive way. The publication was published a bit late. It should have been brought out earlier to prevent the damage that had been done to the movement. Still, it made things clear about the contents of the adult education programme. A workers’ institute was opened at Indore in 1961-1962 to promote worker’s education.

With the shift in development strategy of the state in early 1960’s from industrialization to rapid modernist time of agriculture, significant changes occurred in the state’s approach towards adult education. Functional literacy was considered as the limiting factor for the rural masses for adoption of development schemes of agricultural production, family planning, co-operatives and Panchayat Institutions. The concept of functional literacy was implemented as a Farmers Training-Programme. This was implemented as a Functional Literacy Project in 144 districts during 1968-1977. This contributed to raising agricultural production by raising the knowledge and awareness of the farmers. It led to the green revolution. (During this period a functional literacy programme for adult women was also implemented to bring about an attitudinal change among women).

It can be summarized that adult education programmes undertaken during 1961-1977 were more or less regional in character and had not attained national status. The various isolated programmes were:

- Gram Shikshan Mahim, 1963, Govt. of Maharashtra.
- Farmers’ Training and Educational Programme, 1969, Govt. of India.
- Functional Literacy Project by Directorate of Adult Education (DAE), Ministry of Education (now HRD) and the Ministry of Agriculture and Directorate of Extension in 1970.
- A pilot study done in Lucknow by the DAE, MOE (now HRD) in 1970.
- A socio-economic study (1972-73) of three districts i.e. Kohlapur (Maharashtra) Agra (U.P.) and Bangalore (Karnataka).
- A Study to find out various aspects of the project by DAE (MO Education and Social Welfare, 1972).
- The study undertaken in Jaipur to find out the contribution of the Farmers Training and Functional Literacy Programme by DAE in 1974.
- Literacy programmes by UNESCO and UNDP to study the active implementation of the projects.

### 3.3.3 Adult Education during 1978-1984: Literacy-Functionality Linked with Socio-Economic Development

There was a radical shift in the concept of adult education with the installation of the Janata Government in 1978. This government put more emphasis on redistribution of justice and eradication of illiteracy. There was a shift from higher education to primary education and adult literacy. It stressed selective higher education. During this period a nationwide National Adult Education Programme (NAEP) was launched as a radical literacy movement, which saw literacy as a emancipation tool. NAEP created space for the involvement of NGO’s (Non-Government Organizations) and social action groups in the literacy movement. Government was not seen as the primary vehicle for adult literacy. The programme was mooted with a scheme of grants to voluntary organizations and the government related adult education units with a mandate to run literacy classes. The intended goal was adult education and not just literacy.

NAEP suggested the following types of programmes to be organized:

- Literacy with assured follow-up.
- Conventional functional literacy in association with a dominant development programme
- Literacy with learning-cum-action group
- Literary for awareness and formation of organizations of the poor.

The NAEP is target was to cover the entire illiterate population in the age group of 15-35 by 1984. The programme had three components: Literacy,
functionality and awareness. A programme of 19 months was to be followed by post-literacy and follow-up activities. It was also intended to link the programme with other development programmes of the government. The centre approach was followed. Each centre was to cater to the needs of 30 illiterates. As contemplated in the Sixth Five Year Plan document, it was to be the endeavour of the Government to take steps to cover 100 percent adult literates in the age group of 15-135 by the year 1990. The responsibility of evaluation of NAEP was entrusted to reputed research institutions in the field of social sciences. These institutions conducted evaluation studies in six states during 1979 and 1985 and submitted more than 60 evaluation reports.

In NAEP equal emphasis was placed on literacy, functionality and social awareness. Adult education was visualised as a means to bring about a fundamental change in the process of socio-economic development. In this period the development of human resource was taken along with the development of factories, dams, roads and higher education. During the 1980s the broader definition of adult education as a form of providing literacy as central to human development had been accepted. Stress was laid on the peoples right to literacy. The importance of literacy was reiterated. Education was to be a means for reducing economic, social and gender disparities and the nation as whole would assume the responsibility of providing resource support. Working out the implementation of strategies, the programme of action recommended that “emphasis in adult education programme should be on skill development and creation of awareness among the learners of the national goals, of development programmes and for liberation from oppression.”

3.3.4 Adult Education from 1985-1997: National Literacy Mission: Basic Literacy Linked With Self Reliance

The political transition to a technocratic regime in 1984 marked a significant change in India’s development approach. The National Policy of Education in 1986 had a considerable impact on adult education policy.
Adult Education took the form of the National Literacy Mission (NLM) in 1985. It had the objective of imparting functional literacy to the 15-35 age group with a variety of means and with the active involvement of all sections of society.

The concept of functional literacy under NLM was much broader than the earlier version. It is an extended form of the earlier functional literacy. It included the following four aspects:

- Achieving self-reliance in basic literacy.
- Becoming aware of one’s deprivation and moving towards better conditions through organization and participation in the process of development
- Acquiring skills to improve one’s economic status and general-well-being and
- Imbibing the values of national integration, conservation of the environment, women’s equality, observance of the small family norms etc. This expanded concept of functional literacy has been termed as developmental literacy as it covers all aspects of human life and puts emphasis on the promotion of national concerns.

The national level organization set up by the Government of India for management of the Total Literacy Campaigns (TLC) all over the country is called the National Literacy Mission. TLC had the missionary.

With the implementation of NLM the concept of adult education and its operational strategies were modified to make adult education a mass movement through Total Literacy Campaigns. The NAEP was wound up and the Total Literacy Campaigns launched. The emphasis moved from adult education to adult literacy.

The National Policy on Education, 1986, envisages that adult education would be a means for reducing economic, social and gender disparities. The
main objective of the new National Programme of Adult Education is to provide education including literacy to the population in the 15-35 age group, which numbers about 100 million. A programme of literacy, however, can become meaningful only when it comes along with a package of practical information and skills relevant to the day-to-day needs of the learners.

The National Literacy Mission adopted the mass campaign approach to literacy in 1989. This was a district level approach wherein Ernakulam district of Kerala was taken up as the first pilot project for total literacy for a span of one year.

After the successful culmination of the Ernakulam district TLC in 1989, this mode was adopted in about 410 districts of the country to cover about 60-70% of the illiterates in the country, which led to an increase in literacy in India by about 8-9%. Another programme titled mass program of functional literacy (MPFL) was launched by the Government of India in May 1986 with the aim of involving students in the literacy work during summer vocations.

There are several special features of the Total Literacy Campaigns. It is not just a programme of the Department of Education but it is a programme of the people. It is a programme with the district as the unit of operation. It is a programme of the Zila Saksharta Samiti, a registered body with the Deputy Commissioner of the district as its ex-officio president. Nevertheless it was a non-governmental body with total involvement of the community as well as the executive government machinery at the district and sub-divisional levels. It had the committee system of organisation. The leadership of the Deputy Commissioner has been observed to be critical and of valuable significance in the success of the literacy campaigns. The campaign had two phases. The first phase, spread over twelve months had the objective is to transforming an illiterate into a person who achieves both literacy and innumeracy. The second phase, spread over 24 months, is earmarked as post-literacy and continuing education phase, which is used for the retention of learning. This is implemented through volunteers who use scientific methods along with the area approach. It
varies from one district to another depending upon the literacy needs of each district.

Evaluation of total literacy campaign has been undertaken by many studies in qualitative and quantitative terms. Patel (1996) in her paper on programme evaluation on adult education in India, focuses on understanding the government-sponsored programmes of evaluation of adult education. The study highlights the emergence of adult literacy campaigns and the strategy for promoting literacy on a mass scale. Social mobilisation is an important component of literacy campaigns to create a favourable environment. In the Indian adult education context, a new pedagogic approach known as Improved Pace and Content of Learning (IPCL) has been introduced. Programme evaluation should initiate research on some of the basic areas of adult literacy such as, factors facilitating or hindering women’s participation, differential levels of literacy attainment among them, and the role of the state vis-à-vis the role of the NGO’s in adult education Bhola, H.S. (2002) provided the evaluative account based on 97 evaluation studies undertaken in India during 1992-1995 with the broader aim to study the impact of National Literacy Mission on development. The study has made a Meta analysis and emphasized the productive change in patterns of distribution of literacy in relation to social goods and life chances. The study has implications for the developmental policy makers and planners for considering the adult literacy at the centre of planning process.

Total literacy campaigns launched in the states of Pondicherry, Tamil Nadu and West Bengal, have shown that successful literacy campaigns have invariably led to an increase in enrolment in primary schools.

In a TLC special emphasis is put on environment building. In some case studies done by the Society for Participatory Research in Asia (PRIA) in some TLC districts, it has been observed that demand for literacy has not been created at many places. Similarly, it has been found that volunteers on their own are not coming forward to teach illiterate adults.
To get volunteers who would run literacy centres for six months without remuneration or reward seems a difficult task. In an atmosphere where the government gets everything done on payment, why should the literacy workers do it on a missionary mode? Similarly, to get meaningful involvement of the teachers, it is essential that some incentives should be considered for them also (Sachdeva, 1996). Training of adult literacy functionaries in adult psychology and other concepts is necessary for the success of the programmes. Ahluwalia (1997) assessed the adequacy of the training of prerak. In the successful running of Lok Chetna Kendra’s (LCK’s) from the sample collected from district Hoshiarpur in Panjab State of India. The study pointed out that large number of Preraks are available but they are inadequately trained to take up the task of Post Literacy Campaigns (PLC). The study suggested on the job training as well as initial educational programmes for the prerak. To achieve success in Post Literacy Phase of Adult Literacy, proper training of JCK’s is of paramount importance as recommended in the study.

There are many reasons for withdrawal from adult literacy classes. Ahluwalia and Sharma (1996) found empirically that there is no association between the age of the learner and their withdrawal from the classes. Large number of dropouts (40%) in the younger group (15-25 years) is alarming. The majority of dropouts (48%) are from the lower strata of the society. It was found that the initial three months of the literacy classes are crucial when 70% of the learners dropout and leave the classes.

Mobilization in literacy campaign is a difficult task. Ahluwalia and Sharma (1996) studied the relative importance of various methods used for mobilization of adult learners to join classes in the districts of Hoshiarpur of Punjab state. The learners as well as functionaries were interviewed. It was found that Personal Service of conveying messages by the volunteer and school children is the strongest sources of motivation and mobilization in the literacy campaign. I was found that general awareness could be affected through electronic media. The electronic the folk media are very attractive and are
important for influencing the behaviour and attitude of the adult learner. Literacy slogans, played by their own school going children are highly effective medium to motivate parents to join literacy classes.

Only in districts where political parties and their cadres were fully involved in the TLC, were highly motivated volunteers with a high level of formal education available in good numbers. This is particularly true of Kerala and some parts of West Bengal.

Total literacy campaigns are designed area specific and are non political in nature. According to Sundraraman (1996) the total literacy campaigns are an Indian creation. Unlike other successful campaigns in the world, there were no revolutionary changes or a political triggering process preceding these mass campaigns. Rather, these campaigns initiated a people’s movement in 1988-89, with a chance combination of developments in the administration. It is surprising, therefore, to find that in five years, the movement has grown into an unprecedented national mobilisation of rural women and rural youth. This has an impact not only on literacy and primary education, but also on a number of other areas of development. Figures now establish that there is an impressive mobilization of women for the TLC’s. This is evident from the fact that 60% to 75% of the learners and volunteers were women.

Women participated in the campaigns for the following reasons:

- It is likely that unconsciously, primers contained messages relating to their daily lives.
- Accessibility of the classes.
- A familiar person as instructor.
- An informal setting.
- Strong mobilization aspects. The messages were in the popular cultural idiom and form. They addressed issues such as how to escape poverty, or how to resist oppression, and oppose discrimination.
- Simultaneously, the call to become literate was not perceived as a threat by the local vested interests.
• Massive environment building lent social sanction for thousands of women in each block to congregate daily for evening classes and participate in discussions on social issues.

• There was some form of conflict at some levels between the Collector and the government machinery and the progressive elements of the NGO’s.

• There was opposition to the literacy campaign in some states in a limited way, but such opposition was not widespread.

• The empowering nature of the literacy campaign can be made out from the large-scale mobilization of women that it could secure.

• Another major spin-off of the literacy campaigns has been on the fledgling panchayati system. There are reports to indicate that a number of women who were elected municipal or panchayat members or sarpanches were activists of the literacy campaigns.

• The most widespread manifestation of the TLC as a women’s movement has been the attempt to fight gender stereotypes and present a positive image of the woman e.g. the mass training of women in cycling in Pudukottai. In many villages, women removed the Puradah en mass. The initiative of the NGO’s in all women’s movements is evident.

• In some places the absence of a committed and capable district level NGO leadership to give the TLC the shape of a people’s movement was felt.

• Sometimes the NGO’s were there but they were unwilling to take up such mobilization work.

Sundararaman (1996) says that unlike the successful literacy campaigns in the world there was no revolutionary change or a political triggering process preceding these mass campaigns in India. These literacy campaigns have mobilized women in large numbers to create a demand for literacy and emancipation of the downtrodden and given a boost to women’s empowerment. According to this study, the literacy campaign covers 336 of the 468 districts in 20 states and four union territories. Of these 336, more than 112 are in the post-literacy phase. Of these, more than 100 have not been able to take off or have
recorded an extremely low level of achievement. Only 85 projects achieved 40% to 50% success. The author has doubts about the success of the campaign in the Hindi speaking areas.

There were certain drawbacks in the programme. Some are of the view that the reason for the absence of NGO’s or their partial participation and the bureaucratization of the programme. Now that the TLCs are part of the official government policy, Collectors and State Governments. They work with each other to get money, spend it and declare the programmes completed. One must not be surprised that the bureaucracy acts in its own way and there is need for the NGOs and other democratic elements to unite to reassert its basic character of a people’s movement and the spirit of partnership. If the NGOs can insist on a more creative and locally adaptable strategy and deeper mobilisation, one can hope for better results. There have been and there will be bureaucrats who understand the spirit of the campaigns. A bureaucrative understanding is often a problem for the NGOs (Sundraraman, 1996).

3.3.5 Adult Education from 1997-2007: Universal Literacy and Education for All

Human development was seen as the ultimate goal of the Eight Five Year Plan, removing poverty, ignorance and disease from among the poor across the land. Complete employment was to be achieved, population controlled and elementary education was to be universalized. Safe drinking water, and primary health care were to be made available to all citizens, and diversification of agriculture would be attempted to bring new economic opportunities to the rural poor. Indeed, the Eighth Plan included a special chapter on “Rural Development and Poverty Reduction dedicated to uplifting and serving the rural poor. The Plan also made reference to the need for the “eradication of illiteracy” to enable peoples to participate in “people’s institutions,” but there was little indication of any strong commitments. The role of education, especially among women, was given prior attention to lower rates of population growth, infant morality and
maternal mortality; and to raise life expectancy. Due consideration was given to adult education and adult literacy promotion.

The Ninth Five Year Plan was highly focused on poverty alleviation, sustainable development had not yet become central to the development discourse. There were special sections on adult education that included a review of the prevalent status of adult literacy in the country.

The plan proposed the following in regard to adult literacy and adult education: Adult literacy and further reduction of the literates, being as vital an area of concern as universal elementary education, more intensive efforts will be made to spread literacy in the rural and tribal areas which are lagging behind, with special attention to women and such marginalized groups such as small and marginal farmers, landless labourers and educationally neglected tribal groups. For this purpose a disaggregated and decentralized mode of planning and implementation will be adopted. Interlinkage of the adult education program with income generation, better health and nutrition, women’s empowerment and overall rural development will be focused upon. At the grassroots level, people’s participation will be ensured in planning and implementation of local programs.

One year after the launch of Ninth Five Year Plan, political power changed hands and the Bhartiya Janata Party Government came to power in 1998. Towards the end of Ninth Plan when the BJP government was preparing for the Tenth Five Year Plan, they developed an evaluative summation of the Ninth Plan as follows.

“The emphasis during the Ninth Plan was on restoring the lost momentum of the adult education programme [the NLM] and making it more effective by clarifying the administrative and financing roles of the Center, the states, Zilla Saksharata Samities (ZSS), Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs), other local bodies and non-government organizations (NGOs). Therefore, the focus was on
decentralized and disaggregated planning and implementation of literacy, post-literacy and continuing education programmes. The proposed measures to do this were devolution of power from the National Literacy Mission Authority (NLMA) to the State Literacy Mission Authority (SLMA) for financial sanction to projects under the Total Literacy Campaign (TLC) and Post Literacy Campaign (PLC) and empowerment of PRIs and urban local bodies to achieve universal literacy. (Page 67, Tenth Five Year Plan document).”

The Tenth Five Year Plan (2002-2007) was introduced to the nation by the then Prime Minister Atal Bihari Vajpayee as a vision of India free of poverty, illiteracy and homelessness free of regional, social and gender disparities—with modern physical and social infrastructures- and a healthy sustainable environment. [He imagined] above all, an India which stands tall and proud in the community of nations, confident in her capability to face all possible challenges. In short,... an India which is counted among the ranks of developed nations before the end of the second decade of this new century. That would be the year 2020.

The neo-liberal model of development could continue to be rooted in “Growth and Development continuing “the on-going process of transition to a market economy.” Good governance, removal of trade barriers and creation of environment friendly to investment and entrepreneurship will be joined with serving the people offering effective delivery of basic social services through institutions accountable to the people themselves.

The Tenth Five Year Plan did resonate to the language to discourse of “sustainable development” and included separate chapters on “Poverty Alleviation in Rural India—Strategy and Programmes”, and “Urban Development.” Adult Literacy and Continuing Education were treated together in one single chapter while vocational education received separate and special attention because of the skills needed for self-employment and practice the entrepreneurship. Proposals in regard to adult literacy were made in the context
of the National Literacy Mission which was asserted to be “in place with clear focus and medium-term goals.” The targets for the Tenth Plan were rather underwhelming.

(i) To achieve “full” literacy, i.e., a sustainable threshold level of 75 per cent by 2005.

(ii) To cover all left-over districts by 2003-2004.

(iii) To remove residual literacy in the existing districts by 2004-2005.

(iv) To complete Post Literacy Campaign in all districts; and

(v) To launch Continuing Education Programmes in 100 districts by the end of the Plan period (Tenth Five Year Plan; 2002-07, Page 70).

The Vijpayee government was overthrown in May 2004, in the middle of the Tenth Five Year Plan period. Summations of implementation of their policies in regard to sustainable development and poverty alleviation in general and in regard to adult literacy in particular.

The need and importance of raising literacy for development has been strongly advocated by the President of India and the Chairman of Planning Commission of India. Honourable Dr Abdul Kalam, The President of the Republic of India in the course of delivering Vikram Sarabhai Memorial lecture at the Indian Council of Social Science Research (New Delhi, 12 August, 2004) said that in India “Total Literacy has gone up over the years, but the quality needed tremendous improvement…”

The importance of adult literacy was stressed by Montek Singh Ahluwalia, Chairman Planning Commission in his thirty first-foundation day lecture on ‘Policies for Development in Globalising World’ at Indian Institute of Management, Bangalore on 28 October 2004.

“There is little thought that among the major problems facing our economy are glaring deficiencies in education and health. Adult literacy, which is commonly used, though hardly ideal, measure of educational achievement, is
still only 62% in India as compared with 98% in China, Thailand and Indonesia. It is a sobering thought our literacy rate today is still below the level achieved in South East Asia twenty five years ago. The statistics of school enrollment are better, with enrollment in primary schools for both boys and girls above 90% but the real problem here is that 40% of the children enrolled in primary school who do not complete primary school. The enrollment rate in secondary schools is 57% for boys and 40% for girls. This compares with 66% and 60% respectively in China, 75% and 73% in Thailand 58% and 56% in Indonesia. Clearly our relative performance in the secondary school is better, but the deficit in primary school stage is quite unacceptable”.

There are many causes of failure to achieve cent per cent literacy in India. Steele and Taylor (1995) made a political based on secondary sources an analysis of the Indian adult education scenario. This study highlights the problem of adult illiteracy in India. The problem is both colossal and complex, given the size of the country and its huge population. The complex problem may be attributed to the considerable regional disparity and other cultural factors such as caste, language, religion etc. The reasons of failure to achieve 100 percent literacy are deep-rooted and cannot be attributed to the paucity of funds or to the massiveness of the problem or to the lukewarm attitude of the state, as the author observes. The attitude of the state has undergone marked changes from time to time. The problem of adult education in India stems from the dearth of resources and non-utilisation of funds. NGO’s were associated with the implementation of the programme during the Seventh Plan. Some of the NGO’s have followed innovative approaches. Some of the bureaucrats have shown a keen commitment to adult education.

Primary education has close relation with achievement in literacy. Mehta studied the impact of primary education on literacy by analyzing the census 2001 provisional data. During 1991-2001, a number of centrally sponsored schemes, as well as, new programmes and projects were initiated across the country. The operation Blackboard scheme was initiated in 1987. A large number of District
Institutes of Educational Training countries. The Andhra Pradesh primary Education Project, Bihar Education Project, U P Basic Education Project, Lok Jumbish and Shiksha Karmi Project of Rajasthan and District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) were the main programmes initiated during (1991-2001). The mid-day meal scheme was also initiated during the period. Primary education remained in focus in all these programmes. DPEP is presently under implementation in more than 248 districts across 18 states. The state governments also initiated a number of other programmes. The success of these programmes is partly reflected in increased primary enrolment from 97 million in 1991 to 111 million in 1999. The share of girl’s enrolment during the same period also increased from 41.5 to 43.5 percent at primary and from 36.9 to 40.5 persons at the upper primary level. The transition rate from primary to upper primary level of education is about 86 percent. However, the still dropout rates are high at 40 and 57 per cent respectively at the primary and upper primary levels of education. The attendance rate and learners attainment across the country are low. An ambitious programme “Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan” (Education for All) was launched with the idea of improving education at the elementary level. The success and failure of primary education has direct bearing on upper primary, non-formal and adult Continuing systems to expand. An efficient primary education system has a bearing on the quantum of adult illiterates as well as the quantity of upper primary education. It was estimated that the contribution of the formal system to be in the tune of 162 to 196 million. The lowest possible may be 153 million (75 per cent). This also suggest that the maximum contribution of NLM to be in the tune of 50 million. Age group wise literacy will shed more knowledge on the role of NLM on the other hand NLM has influenced parents through literacy campaigns to send children to schools. It was further suggested that NLM has created a positive environment for the primary education to expand (Web site).

Shah (1996) has discussed the changing concepts and the connection between literacy and development since 1950 and how literacy initiates and
influences different parameters of individual, social, economic and political development. This study was based on reports and evaluation studies done by the Directorate of Adult Education, Government of India.

Continuous environmental building activities are necessary throughout the implement action of the adult education programmes. Ahluwalia and Sharma (1998) conducted study the role of volunteers, Key Resource Persons (KRP’s), village committee members and Zilla Saksharta Samiti members (ZSS), the Assistant project coordinator (APC), and other village leaders in order to assess the status of TLC in district Mansa of Punjab state. For this purpose the authors visited 14 villages. This study is important as its findings can be generalized for other districts of the State as well as other States of India. It was found that for TLC to be more successful it should have continuous environment-building activities which are evenly spread throughout the district. Environment building programmes like Kalajathas should be used in all phases of the implementation of the programme rather than only for enrolment of illiterates. There is a need to identify professionals from the very start of the project.

Mathews (2002) stressed the need to make a strong movement for women’s literacy and formation of self-help groups to achieve literacy targets.

Bhola (2005) stated that adult educators in India have to understand globalisation in general and how it has influenced Indian politics, economy, health services, and education and adult education. It is India’s good fortune that India seems today to have developed happy mix of free market and pro-people regulation.

3.3.6 Salient Features of Adult Education in India

After independence in 1947, literacy became central to natural reconstruction and community development efforts. Imparting basic literacy skills became a part of a larger social education programme launched in the first Five Year Plan (1952-1957). The social education programme had roots in the Gandhian concept of ‘basic education’. It was a comprehensive programme
involving life skills, valuables and productivity-oriented knowledge. In the 1960’s isolated programme in the states by non-governmental organization were undertaken such as Gram sikshan Mohim. These programmes were not of any large scale.

The first ever-national programme has launched in 1978 as National Adult Education programme (NAEP). It viewed literacy as a means to bring about fundamental changes in socio-economic development. It was based on the premise that literacy would enable the poor to move the development activity to its core. The poor will become active participants in the development.

Basic literacy was emphasized. The target age group was 15 to 35 years. The approach adopted was center based. It covered 100 million illiterates under this programme. It was based on the experience gained during the experimental world literacy programme of UNESCO.

Based on the feedback and evaluation of NAEP, the National Literacy Mission (NLM) was set up in 1988 with an objective of achieving 75 percent functional literacy rate for the age group of 15 to 35 years by 2005. Here the functional literacy formed important component of the adult education programme and it included self reliance in the ‘3 Rs’ awareness on the causes of their deprivation, moving towards amelioration of their condition through organization and participation in the process of development, imbibing values such as national integrations, conservation of environment and small family norms and gender equity.

It adopted well-defined campaign approach. It was goal oriented (imparting basic literacy and social awareness), area specific (planned, implemented and monitored at the district level) and time-bound (12 to 18 months, 200 hours of instruction). Total Literacy Campaigns comprised a programme of mass mobilization and environment building through locally designed cultural events, conventions and extensive use of traditional and modern media. The teaching learning approach for adults were improved and
A new methodology called Improved Pace and Content learning (IPCL) method was adopted. Volunteerism was the crux of the programme. It contained three graded primers. The state resource centres (SRC) at the state level prepared these. These primes have built in exercises for practice, self-evaluation, testing and certification. Self-evaluation exercises and tests at the end of each learning unit formed the part of evaluation. Final external evaluation by outside institution is carried out.

The programme has basic literacy followed by post-literacy intended to prevent relapse into illiteracy, to enroll drop-outs and enable non-achievers to upgrade their literacy skills. The post literacy programme of the National Literacy Mission (NLM) planned a continuing education phase wherein to provide continuing learning opportunities. The continuing education centers are the hub of life long learning. They establish active linkage with other developmental agencies at the grass root level. 596 of the total 600 district of the country have been covered under NLM and 150 million learners have been enrolled under literacy campaign. It has been reported that 118.20 million adults have become literate under the scheme of NLM. At present 167 districts are under TLC and 191 under PLP and 276 under CE stages out of total about 63 per cent of the beneficiaries are women and 36 percent belong to disadvantaged social groups (23 percent belong to schedule castes and 13 percent to the schedules tribes). So far 150 districts have been identified as low literacy districts according to 2001. The target of NLM is to achieve rate of 75% literacy by 2007 AD.

### 3.4 GEOGRAPHICAL AND HISTORICAL PROFILE OF INDONESIA

**Indonesia:** Capital: Jakarta, UN gives a projected Population: 2010:238-37m.

**Geographical location**

Indonesia is located in Southeastern Asia and is the archipelago between the Indian Ocean and the Pacific Ocean.
Historical background

In the 16th century Portuguese trades settled in some of the islands which now comprise Indonesia but were ejected by the British who is turn were ousted by the Dutch in 1595. From 1602 the Netherlands East India Company controlled the area until the dissolution of the Company in 1798. The Netherlands government the rules the colony from 1816 until 1941 when it was occupied by the Japanese until 1945. On 17 Aug. 1945 nationalist leaders proclaimed an independent republic and on 27 Dec. 1949 the Netherlands finally conceded unconditional sovereignty to the government of Indonesia.

Territory and Population

Indonesia, with a land area of 730,020 sq. miles (1,890,754 sq. km) consists of 17,507 islands (6,000 or which are inhabited) extending about 3,2000 miles east to west through three time-zones (East, Central and West Indonesian Standard times) and 1,250 miles north to south. The largest islands are Sumatra, Java, Kalimantan (Indonesian Borneo), Sulawest (Celebes) and Papusa, formerly West Papua (the western part of New Guinea). Most of the smaller islands except Mudura and Bali are grouped together. The two largest groups of islands are Maluku (the Moluccas) and Nusa Tengara (the Lesser Sundas). On the Island of Timor Indonesia is bounded in the early by East Timor.

Population as per 2000 census was 206,264,595 (58.0% rural in 2001); density, 102 per sq. km Indonesia has the fourth largest population in the world, after China, India and the USA. The UN gives a projected population for 2010 of 238.37m.

Constitution and Government

The constitution originally dates from Aug. 1945 and was in force until 1949; it was restored on 5 July 1959. The political system is based on pancasila, in which deliberations lead to a consensus. There is a 500 member House of People’s Representatives, with 462 members elected for a five year term by proportional representation in multi-member constituencies and 38 members
appointed as representative of the army. The constitution was changed on 10 Aug. 2002 to allow for direct elections for the president and the vice president. The 38 unelected seats are currently reserved for the security forces, but the constitutional amendments of Aug. 2002 will result in these seats being abolished in the course of 2004.

There is no limit to the number of president terms. Although predominantly a Muslim country, the constitution protest the religious beliefs of non-Muslims. National Anthem. Indonesia, tanah jang mulia (Indonesia, our native land); words and tune by W.R. Supratman.

Agriculture accounted for 19.5% of GDP in 1998, industry 45.3% and services 35.2%. Overview: Indonesia has made strong progress in achieving macroeconomic stability. IN 2003 the government decided not to renew an IMF supported programme. In the early 2000s growth averaged 3.5 – 4%. Investment in 2003 was approximately 20% of GDP. 10 Percent points below levels before the 1997 Asian Financial crisis. Investment has shifted towards property. The role played by exports in stimulating growth has been less than in other Asian countries. Exports to China grew by 60% in 2003. Lower inflation, below 6% in 2003, has enabled Bank Indonesia to lower interest rates and public debt, standing 67% of GDP in 2003. Progress has been made tin restructuring and strengthening the banking sector although weaknesses remain. Half the banking sector is state owned and the restructuring of non-performing loans is not always conducted on the basis of commercial viability. A government White Paper published in 2003, includes measures to achieve a healthy fiscal position, lower inflation and adequate international reserves.

Performance: Economic growth was 4.5% in 1997 but declined dramatically in 1998 to 13.1%. There was a slight recovery in 1999, which growth of 0.8% followed by growth of 4.9% in 2000, 3.4% in 2001 and 3.7% in 2002. The Asian economic crisis of 1997 affected Indonesia more than any other country. In 2002 total GDP was US$172.9bn.
Education. Adult literacy in 2001 was 87.3% (92.1% among males and 82.6% among females). In 1997 there were 25,689,693 pupils and 1,158,616 teachers at 151,064 primary schools and 10,821,139 pupils and 654,505 teachers at 29,398 secondary schools. Number of students in higher education (1997) 2,051,000. In 1994-95 in the state sector there were 31 universities and one open university and 13 institutes of higher education, including ten teachers training colleges. In the private sector there were 66 universities and the following specialized universities. Adventist, one Christian, seven; Islamic, ten; Methodist, one; Roman Catholic, five; Veterans’, one. There were 19 institutes of higher education in the private sector including 12 teacher training colleges.


3.4.1 Historical Development of Adult Education in Indonesia

The importance strategy of national development in Indonesia is the “Trilogy of Development”: equity, growth, and stability.

The essence of education was recognised by the Indonesian leaders long before the independence day of August 17, 1945. An organisation called Budi Utomo (noble endeavour) was established as a national educational movement, which was based on the conviction that Indonesia could not achieve independence and prosperity unless the people were educated. This early commitment to education was reflected in the new Republic of Indonesia’s 1945 Constitution, which in its preamble states that one of the obligations of the state is “to develop the intellectual life of the nation” and which contains an Article asserting the right of every citizen to get education.

The neglect of education by the colonial regime had led to dismal results. In 1940, when the Dutch colonial government surrendered to the Japanese, less than 10% of the Indonesian population could read and write the Latin Characters. Only 2,310,500 among a total of about 70 million Indonesians were
enrolled in schools from primary to tertiary levels of education. Primary school enrolment was only 17.7% of the relevant school-age group.

The Japanese abolished the stratified ethnic-based class system in education, although as the new masters of they occupied the highest level of society during their occupation of Indonesia. To the extent that wartime conditions allowed, the Dutch language was replaced by Indonesian (Bhasha Indonesia) as the national language of instruction as it offered opportunities of self-advancement to a wide section of the population.

Furthering general welfare and raising the intellectual level of the people as mandated in the preamble of the 1945 Constitution have been the major concerns of the Government of Indonesia. Article 31 (1) of the constitution says that

“...Every citizen is entitled to Instruction”. This has been meant that every one is ensured of an education. Various efforts to realise this goal has been undertaken in implementing the literacy programmes in a systematic and comprehensive manner through several five year plans called Replicas.

The national education system has two distinct but integrated sub-systems of formal and out of school education. The formal education comprises education from kindergartens to universities. The out of school education comprises all learning and training activities outside the formal school sub system. It pertains to vocational skill training, courses on leadership, basic literacy and adult education.

History of adult education in Indonesia can be divided into four distinct periods viz: -

- Adult education during 1945-61 For National Reconstruction
- Adult education during 1962-66 For National Development
- Adult education during 1967-77 Pre Kejar Decade
- Adult education during 1978 onwards For Productive Skill Development through Kejar Pakcage.
3.4.2 Adult Education during 1945-61 for National reconstruction.

More than 90 percent of the total population of Indonesia were illiterate at the time it proclaimed independence in August 1945. The transfer of sovereignty from the Dutch colonial regime took place on 27 December 1949. After it became sovereign in 1949, Indonesia immediately started planning for sustained literacy campaigns throughout the country.

In the early 1950s the department of community education (Jawatan Pendidikan Masyarakat) under the Ministry of Education devised a long term, 10 year plan to eradicate illiteracy among the 35 million population. However, it could make only 11 million persons literate and much remained to be done to eradicate illiteracy.

3.4.3 Adult Education during 1962-1966: For National Development

The President gave a presidential command on National Day, 17 August 1961 to eradicate illiteracy in the Indonesian communities by the end of 1964. To meet the development goals literacy committees were organised throughout the country from the village to national level. These committees included the representatives of government and non-government, social institutions and community leaders. The national committee provided the leadership and strategies for implementation of literacy campaigns.

In December 1964, the whole country was declared “free from illiteracy” considering all the people between 13-45 years of age were considered literate at the minimal level of recognising the Latin alphabet, and being able to read simple words and sign their own name. This was achieved by putting in hard work and 25 million illiterates completed the literacy course.

The success of the literacy campaigns in 1964 however was not matched by a corresponding expansion of primary schools due to lack of funds. The lack of post literacy in continuity education was responsible for non-use of learned skills during the campaigns.
3.4.4 Adult Education during 1967-1977: Pre Kejar Decade

A sample survey on literacy was conducted in 33 districts in 1967. It revealed the real statistics and the literacy situation on the ground. The results indicated were contradictory to the earlier proclamation of December 1964 that the whole country was made free from illiteracy. It was found that 20.6 percent of the population was illiterate. This included many who had acquired the skills but had relapsed into illiteracy and some who did not go to the school and others who dropped out at the elementary level. This was attributed to the stringent policy in place and low priority accorded to the programme. Since no resource was allocated to the programme there was slow progress from 1966 onwards. The situation was made worse by the high population growth rate and lack of corresponding expansion of schooling facilities and to poor school conditions.

The 1971 national census revealed a vast number of illiterates, total of 21.6 million in the age group, 10-44 years about two third of whom were women. In addition to this, about 1.4 million children had dropped out in the early grades of primary education. The Directorate of Community Education under the Director General for Our-of-School Education, Youth and Sports introduced a new literacy programme in 1977 to solve the illiteracy problem. This programme is called Kejar (Meaning learning group) Package “A”.

3.4.5 Adult Education from 1978 onwards: For Productive Skill Development Through Kejar Package

Unlike earlier efforts of literacy campaigns emphasizing quantitative results the programmes during this period stressed quality. The programme promoted productive skills to improve living standards. Functional literacy was adopted and mass or traditional literacy campaigns were abandoned. Learners were more attracted towards practical courses. Initially it was difficult to plan for support resources for practical education. Basic education course (KBPD) was introduced by the community education department to solve this problem. The programme was limited with regard to the number of learners completing
the course. About 67 million people were covered per year in this effort for nine years from 1971 to 1980.

State policy directions of 1988 re-emphasized the need to improve and extend out of school education including the Kejar package a programme to enhance the quality of literacy practices in order to develop interest, and to empower the learners with vocational skills.

It was estimated that by 1990, there were about 7 million illiterates aged 15-54 years in Indonesia.

Indonesia promulgated legislation in the early years of independence to make the provision for compulsory primary education.

Legislation No.4/ 1950 junc to legislation No. 12/1954. The No. 12/ 1954 legislation sanctioned the effectiveness of legislation No.4/1950 on the basic framework for school education and instruction the rough out Indonesia. In chapter VII, concerning compulsory education, article 10 stipulates that:

a. All children of 6 years of age are entitled to school education while it is compulsory for those aged 8, for at least 6 years.

b. Going to a recognized religious school is considered satisfactory compliance to the compulsory education law.

c. A specific law will arrange compulsory education.

National Assembly Decision No.IV/MPR/1978 stipulate that

“... The emphasis of the educational programme is to expand basic education to realize the implementation of compulsory education....” Similarly the decision of the government vide TAP MPR No.II/MPR/1983 outlines the quality enhancement and expansion of education as:

a. The focus of educational development shall be on enhancing the quality and expansion of basic education in order to realize compulsory education and the expansion of opportunity for learning at the secondary level.
b. With in the framework of expanding the opportunities for education, continued efforts should be made to take in school-age children. This attempt shall also reach the disadvantaged group and gifted children to draw out maximum out of their potential.

The National Conference of Education, on 6 June 1983, where the President of the Republic of Indonesia said: “Another important issue which I would like to draw your attention is to the implementation of compulsory education for all children 7-12 years of age. Compulsory education should start next year (1984)”

Various presidential instructions concerning grants for the construction of primary school buildings, furniture, provision of teachers and other instructional inputs like text books, library books, teaching aids and sport articles served to the increased enrolment at primary level of schooling.

The Presidential Decree No.21/1984 on IVth five year plan (Book II, chapter 20, pages 533 and 534) planned that compulsory education would elicit the 100 percent participation of all school age children between 7-12 years of age by 1986-1987. To achieve this goal, the government provided a variety of schooling at the primary level such as:

- Conventional school designs
- Madrasah intidaiyah (first level religious school)
- Special education (A-B-C-D)
- First level special education (SDBLB)
- Integrated school designs
- Pamong primary schools
- Mini school designs

To remove the constraints in successful implementation of compulsory primary education, education was made the joint responsibility of the family, community and the state. Thus joint ministerial (Education, religion affairs,
social affairs and home affairs) decree was made to provide financial aid to poor children within the framework of compulsory primary education. The Ministry of Education and Culture initiated a mass campaign called “Gerakan Orange Tua Asuh” “Helping Hands” in July 1984 as an individual/ a family a group of people who provide financial assistance to poor children to enable them to go to school.

Many continuing education programmes were employment oriented training in vocational courses, apprenticeship youth training and apprenticeships were organized from time to time. EOT was started in 1978. Apprenticeship was started in 1986.

Continuing education in the form of employment-oriented training (EOT) was implemented through Non Formal Education.

Post literacy programmes were of various kinds. They comprise, introduction development course (KRPs) Adult Education Training (KKOD), Community leadership course (KKM A/B/C) family life education course, vocational courses and establishing village libraries.

State general policy directions or the GBHN has helped in directing the growth of continuing education.

In his speech before the Parliament on August 16, 1978 the President of the Republic of Indonesia stressed that a new effort to fight illiteracy in a new style must be carried out. The excerpts from the speech are: “The other effort to make educational opportunity equitable is through the work study programme or the Kejar programme”. This programme is designed for those out of school but wish to study basic knowledge without having to leave their jobs. In village where the Kejar programme is implemented, illiteracy of Latin characters and Arabic numerals, Bhasha Indonesia, basic knowledge is being eradicated.”

Basic education here means first, imparting knowledge of functional information, second imparting skills and third development of attitude towards
social change and economic growth. The campaign promoted a sense of national union. (Napitupulu, 1989)

A few decades after Indonesia proclaimed her independence, the Indonesian education system was strengthened by the passage of the Law on National Education system No. 2/1989, complemented by a government regulation (PP) on various types and levels of education, such as the PP 27/1980 on pre-school education, PP 28/1989 on basic education, PP 27/1990 on secondary education, PP 30/1990 on tertiary education, PP 72/1991 on special education, PP 73/1991 on out of school education, PP 38/1992 on educational personnel and PP 39/1992 on the role of community participation in national education.

Education in Indonesia, is deeply rooted in the national culture and firmly based on the 1945 Constitution and the state philosophy of Pancasila, which embodies the five fundamental principles, i.e. Belief in one supreme God; Just and civilised humanity; Unity of Indonesia; Democracy through deliberation and consensus among representatives; and Social justice for all the people of Indonesia. Pancasila, in many ways, is not only the basic philosophy and ideology of the Indonesian people but also a way of life, without an understanding of which Indonesian’s achievements in basic education cannot be understood. It is in this spirit that Indonesia has developed her policies, strategies and programmes of “Education for All”.

Adult education in Indonesia was started in the 1950s with the formation of the Community Education Agency. As it developed, adult education was handled by various government organisations (GO’S) and non-governmental organisations (NGOs). It succeeded in enhancing the quality of life of tens of millions of people with a rapid improvement in health, income, education, knowledge, skill, economic perspectives, quality of clothing, etc.

Adult Education in Indonesia covers various aspects of life, such as: health, vocational skills, agriculture, cooperatives and so on. The teaching in adult education is done through both distance education (television, radio,
printed material and audio cassette) and the direct method (classes, learning
groups, and individual learning).

The success of adult education depends very much on the dedication and
sacrifice of the tutors, family planning cadres, technical resource persons and
facilitators. They are volunteers. They receive no pay but a small compensation,
which is so small that it does not really give them any economic benefit.

There are two factors, which motivate the community to work voluntarily.
First is the mutual help philosophy of “gotong-royong” or let-us-help-each-other,
which is a strong national character. The second is the strong religious belief that
God will reward those who dedicate themselves to a noble cause.

Community and religious leaders take the initiative by gladly becoming
volunteers in the adult education programme. Thus mobilisation of tutors,
facilitators and cadres as the vanguard of adult education programmes presents
no difficulty.

The priority target of the adult education programme is primarily targeted
at the poor families, those who are unemployed, those with poor education, and
those who are still productive but are not properly reached by the educational
and skill development services.

The literacy campaign during 1987-1990 were directed teaching the
remaining 18 million people still illiterate as well as improving the quality of the
programme by integrating Kejar Paket A into some income generating activities.
To achieve this goal, a variety of learning materials in the form of “do-it-
yourself” has been developed and tutors have been retrained in the earning skills.

The improved programme places higher demands upon the tutors, so that
it has become very difficult to mobilize qualified tutors who are able to integrate
Paket A with some earning activities. Furthermore, with a drastic reduction of
the government budget, the programme has only been able to teach between 71
and 84 per cent of the target of 2.3 million illiterates annually. The result was
that by 1986/1987 there were still more than 8 million illiterate between the ages of 7 and 44 years.

Adult education was the responsibility of the government, the community and families, the government has to mobilize the local resource and back up the operationalization. By 1990 the new illiterates coming from those who do not go to school or dropout have almost ceased because of the enforced compulsory education law in 1984.

Enacting the supporting government regulation strengthened adult Education in Indonesia. In the field of out-of-school non-formal education, the government has spelled out Law 2/1989 and Government Regulation (PP) 73/1991 on Out-of-school education. These two legal provisions implicitly explain the place of adult education in community education. Besides these, PP 71/1991 concerning on-the-job training of the work force to equip them with relevant skills to meet the demands of development also supports adult education. This law and the complementing government regulations (PP) strengthened the position of adult education, and conceptually, its context and what it encompasses became increasingly distinct. These laws are used by various Government organisations and NGO’s to develop adult education and training courses in a number of sectors such as health, agriculture, vocational, forest conservation, environment preservation, etc.

The role of adult education in Indonesia has become more significant and demanding when related to the APEC (Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation) and AFTA (Asean Free Trade Area) agreements, under which Indonesia has entered free trade in the Asian region in 2003 and free trade in the Asia-Pacific Region by 2020. Only with a total and effective human development programme will Indonesia be able to put into effect these two agreements profitably. It is with this urgency that the Sixth Five Year Development Plan and the 1993 Guidelines of the State Policy both direct that national development efforts should emphasise the development of human resources along with economic development.
In Indonesia there is evidence of looking into the aspects of policy planning and implementation. When Indonesia became independent on 17th August 1945, more than 90% of its population could not read or write. Immediately it formulated plans of a sustained literacy campaign throughout the country. In the early fifties the Department of Community Education under the Ministry of Education prepared a two-year plan to eradicate illiteracy among the 35 million people of the country. By 1961, only 11 million people had been made literate, and 24 million people could still not read or write. To catch up with development, the country planned to abolish illiteracy by the end of 1964. All government resources were put at the disposal of the literacy committees created in the administrative structure, from the national to the village level. These were composed of representatives of government units, non-government and social institutions, and community leaders. The national committee at the departmental level provided guidance and issued instructions (Napitupulu, 1989).

Sukarso (2002) emphasized the role of out of school education in Indonesia becomes crucial in providing basic education for all.

Somtrakool (2002) Concept of education in the Thailand includes formal, non-formal and informal education

3.4.6 Salient Features of Adult Education Indonesia

The Kejar programme attempted to help the learners to achieve literacy and numeracy skills in the roman script and their national language as a means to develop cognitive and practical skills to improve the individual’s standard of living. Many people, who are able to read and write in Arabic or local languages such as Javanese, Buginese, or Balinese, are not considered literate and are therefore part of the target population for the literacy campaign.

“Kajar program package A” – is a learning programme which is blended with work. One can learn while working or work while learning. The programme provides the opportunity to catch up on what is lacking in one’s educational
background. The goal is to teach literacy skills, improve basic education and induce development attitudes. The programme material consists of packages of information’s on all aspects of life, which constitute minimum essential learning needs. The main texts are presented in the forms of booklets with supplementary material such as posters, pamphlets, slides, cassette, tapes and films. The learning process is generated in a group, which may consist of the learners, and the group may comprise of men and women together. A tutor helps the group to learn packets A1-A100 in four phases of course periods: phase one for A1-A10; phase two for A11 – A20 phase three for A21-A80, the final phase for A61-A100. At the completion of later phase, learners are given a participation certificate.

The Kejar Package programme was again improved in its quality in 1988 in consideration to the need to extend out of school education, in order to develop the interest, attitude the capacity of learners, and to provide them with more opportunities to make a living.

Basically this programme was prepared for out of school youth to reduce high rate of drop out and to prepare them for work. This programme was needed as the literacy campaigns of 1961-1964, conducted on a massive scale improved the literacy to a greater extent and the primary schooling was not matched by a corresponding expensive of primary schools. The lack of school facilities and lack of financial means many children dropped out of the schools. Higher population growth also contributed to the prevalent of illiteracy.

The goal was to learn four things simultaneously to read, to write and to speak Bhaasha Indonesia (the national language and to get basic information needed for self and community development. At this stage package contains several from A1 to A 100, about all aspects of like. A1 to A 3 teach purely literacy whereas the rest contains literacy plus practical on productive skills.

Literacy programme 1987-1990. The Kejar Package a was improved incorporating some income generating skills into it. A variety of materials in the
form of “do-yourself” have been developed. The tutors were retrained for the purpose.

Due to the partial availability of tutor’s and drastic reduction in the government’s budget, the programme was able to teach between only 71 to 84 percent of the target.

Kejar Package ‘A’ was associated with employment oriented learning programme (EOLP)

Target population: The Kejar Package ‘A’ is for those who are
- 10-45 years of age
- Have never been to school and are illiterate in the Latin alphabet.
- Have dropped out from primary school
- Need to improve their basic knowledge and skills.

Priority is given to the ones in the age group of 10-15 years. Illiterate who are 46 years or more may be served through non-written materials such as cassettes and posters.

3.5 GEOGRAPHICAL AND HISTORICAL PROFILE OF THAILAND

Thailand: Capital the capital of Thailand is Bangkok, the UN give a Projected Population for 2010 of 66.95m

Geographical Location: Southeastern Asia, bordering the Andaman Sea and the Gulf of Thailand, southeast of Burma.

Historical Background

The Thais migrated to the present territory from Nan Chao in the Yunnan area of China in the 8th and 9th centuries. Thailand’s leading general, Chao Phraya Chakkri, assumed the throne in 1793, thus establishing the dynasty which still heads the Thai state. Siam, as Thailand was called until 1939, remained an independent state ruled by an absolute monarchy until 24 June 1932. Discontented with the social, political and economic stagnation of the country, a group of rebels calling themselves the People’s Party precipitated a bloodless
coup. The rebels seized control of the army and persuaded the king to accept the introduction of a constitutional monarchy. When, the king tried to dissolved the newly appointed General Assembly, the following year the army moved to prevent him, thus becoming the dominant force behind the government, which they have remained ever since. Nationalism dominated political life through the 1930s. In 1939s Field Marshal Pibul Songgram became premier and embarked on a pro-Japanese policy that brought Thailand into the Second World War on Japan’s side.

After 1945 political life was characterized by periods of military rule interspersed with short attempts at democratic, civilian government. Democratic government was reintroduced for a short time after 1963 and again from 1969 to 1971 when another successful military coup was staged, aimed at checking the high crime rate and the growth of Communist insurgency. A new, moderately democratic constitution was introduced in 1978.

On 23 Feb. 1991 a military junta seized power in the most recent of 17 coups since 1932. Following the appointment of Gen. Suchinda Kraprayoon as prime minister on 17 April 1992 there were massive anti government demonstrations over several weeks in the course of which many demonstrators were killed. Gen. Suchinda resigned and in May the legislative assembly voted that future prime ministers should be elected by its members rather than appointed by the military. The 1995 election was fought against a background of political and financial corruption. After the 1996 election a new constitution was drafted allowing for the separation of the executive, legislative and judicial branches of government. A military coup has been staged in October (2006).

**Territory and Population**

Thailand is bounded in the west by Myanmar, north and east by Laos and southeast by Cambodia. In the South it becomes a peninsula bounded in the west by the Indian Ocean, south by Malaysia and east by the Gulf of Thailand. Area is 513, 115 sq. km (198, 114 sq. miles).
According to the 2000 census the population was 60,916,441 (30,901,208 females); density, 118.7 per sq. km. 20m 825,262 in the Central Northeastern region, 11,433,061 in the Northern region, 14,215,503 in the Central region, 8,087,471 in the Southern region and 6,355,144 in Bangkok. In 2001, 80.0% of the population lived in rural areas. The UN gives a projected population for 2010 of 66.95m.

Thailand is divided into four regions, 76 provinces and Bangkok, the capital. Population of Bangkok (1999), 7,133,000. Other towns (1993 estimates): Nonthaburi (261,355), Nakhon Ratchasima (188,171), Chiangmai (170, 397), Hat Yai (148,632). Thai is the official language spoken. By 53% of the population as their mother tongue. 27% speak Lao (mainly in the northeast), 12% Chinese (mainly in urban areas), 3.7% Malay (mainly in the south) and 2.7% Khmer (along the Cambodian border).

**Constitution and Government**


Parliament consists of a 200 member Senate, fully elected for the first time in 2000, and a 500 member House of Representatives, elected for four -year terms by universal suffrage of citizens over 17 years, with 400 constituency MPs and 100 from party lists. The present constitution dates from 1997. It is Thailand’s 16th since 1932 and the first to emerge from Public consultation rather than a military coup. It introduced proportional representation and tries to eradicate vote buying. It introduced proportional representation for some seats, established an independent election commission and required that votes were
counted away from the polling stations. The constitution further required all cabinet members to resign their parliamentary seats.

In the 25 years to 1998 an agricultural base was transformed into a diverse industrialized economy. An export oriented, labour intensive manufacturing sector has developed through the promotion of foreign investment. During the 1990s the fastest growth was seen in the high technology goods sector, such as computer accessories and motor vehicle parts. The 1998 Asian crisis had a severe impact on Thailand with GDP contracting by 10.5% in 1998, increased inflation and high unemployment. Domestic and external demand dropped and poverty rose. However, the Thai economy recovered quickly; in 1998 GDP contracted over 10% but by 1999 the economy was growing at over 4% following the crisis. Thailand began to implement reform of the financial sector, corporate governance and competition policy. National Economic and Social Development Plans (NESD) have been the backbone of policy making for 35 years. The Ninth NESD (2002-06) is geared towards an integrated approach, with policy focusing on promoting the tourist industry, and the property sector. Emphasis will also be put on restructuring bad debts, addressing overleveraged firms and privatizing state enterprises.

Following the financial crisis in the second half of 1997 the economy contracted by 10.5% in 1998. Growth recovered to 4.4% in 1999 and 2000 was 4.6% but 2001 saw growth of only 1.9% in the wake of the general downturn in the world economy. In 2002 here was real GDP growth of 5.3% Thailand’s total GDP in 2002 was US$126.4bn.

**Education:** Education is compulsory for children for nine years and is free in local municipal schools. In 2002 there were 6,096,208 pupils at (in 1996) 34,001 primary schools. There were 946,187 students in vocational education in 2001. In higher education there were 1,984,843 students in 2002. In 1996 there were 13 universities, two open (distance) universities, four institutes of technology and one institute of development administration in the public sector, and nine universities and one institute of technology in the private sector.
The adult literacy rate in 2001 was 95.7% (97.3% among males and 94.1% among females). In 2000-01 total expenditure on education came to 5.5% of GNP.


3.5.1 Historical Development of Adult Education in Thailand

For the purpose of analysis of adult educational policy an effort has been made in this study to analyse national development plans. (With brief exceptions, military governments have dominated Thai politics since 1932. In the 1960s major educational policies were outlined in the Five Year National Economic and Social Development Plans (1961-66, 1967-71, 1972-76, 1977-81, 1982-86, 1987-91, 1992-96).

Adult education during 1961-1966 For National Development
Adult education during 1977-1981 For Preparation of Workers for Industrial Capitalism
Adult education during 1982-1986 Adult Education for Democracy
Adult education during 1987-1996 Adult Education as Life Long Education
Adult education during 1996 onwards Legislative based of Modern Education in Thailand

3.5.2 (1961-1966) Adult Education for National Development

First to third National Development Plan Educational development was included in the First National Development Plan (1961-1966). Two concepts seemed to be implied: (a) that education was something designed by the people and society and (b) that education was an important means for changing the knowledge, skills and values of the people for future socio-economic well being. (The same dual relationship between education and national development was reflected during second and third National Development plans development plans.

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In the Fourth Economic and Social Development Plan (1977-1981) the view of using education as an instrument of the nation’s socio-economic development became clear, although there is still was some “confusion” whether education was the means or the end. This can be seen in the following policy statement taken from the Fourth Five-Year Plan:

“The objectives of educational development in the plan are to make an intensive effort to develop every educational level and type appropriate to the nation’s real social needs and for the general benefit of national development. It is accepted that education plays a role in the promotion of human quality and the solving of manpower problems. At the same time education helps develop knowledge, skills, and attitudes in order to direct society toward a better future. Efforts will be made to organise the educational system effectively and efficiently.

In order to meet the objectives, the educational development policy is given as follows:

- To organise the in-school education system at four levels, the pre-compulsory education level, the primary education level, the secondary education level, and the higher education level. The primary and secondary education system will also be changed from 4-3-3-2 (3) to 6-3-3.

- To make better provision for educational opportunity this will be met by providing compulsory education; the government will support the efforts to expand education in order to provide equal educational opportunity to the people.

- To improve the quality of every educational level in both urban and rural areas, and in both government and non-government organisations. Special emphasis will be given to the lower quality sectors.
To improve the educational system to be consistent with the national social and economic development plan by organising the educational system appropriately to provincial conditions; and to make it more free and flexible. Also, to organise the in-school and out-of-school educational programmes to meet the needs of the labour market.

To improve and change the content and process at every level and type of the educational system, including the population education programme, in order to make it appropriate to the reality of specific areas, and of the nation, to provide the study of the theoretical along with the practical and to adjust the organisation of educational content and educational processes in a way that will help create integration of moral, ethical, intellectual, and material development.

To improve the teacher-training system so that it will meet the needs of the nation by improving the quality and quantity.

The above view of educational policies in different periods of time shows that the policy of the nation has undergone a struggle for transformation from absolute monarchy to self-sustained democracy. Therefore, the education policy has been evolving from king-sponsored to people-sponsored and from being sacred to being common.

3.5.4 (1982-1986) Adult Education for Democracy

The main objectives of the Fifth National Education Plan (1982-1986) of Thailand follow all the main purposes stated in the National Education Scheme of 1977, which are as follows:

- To promote respect for one’s own and other’s rights and duties, discipline, respect for and abiding by the law, religion and moral principles.
To promote understanding of and arouse enthusiasm in having a part in the governing of the country under a democratic constitutional monarchy with unfailing allegiance to the nation, religion and the monarch.

To inculcate a sense of responsibility for the nation, the community, the family and oneself.

To realise the collective sense of being Thai and being a part of humanity, to have national pride, to bear in mind national security and to have a say in protecting the country.

To uphold equality, integrity, and justice.

To develop a good personality and good health and hygiene, both mental and physical.

To encourage diligence, professional abilities as well as legitimate cooperation in all enterprises.

To develop a sense of communication, mutual understanding and cooperation; ability to solve problems and conflicts by intelligent; rational and peaceful means.

To promote knowledge and understanding, appreciation of science, art, culture, natural environment and resources of the nation.

In connection with the government policy, the Ministry of Education presented its plan of action in the sixth phase of the Educational, Religious, Art and Cultural Development Plan (1987-1991) in accordance with the life-long educational policy which stated: “The youths and particularly the rural people who are educationally disadvantaged or have been deprived of opportunity to study informal schooling shall be provided with non-formal education from functional literacy level up to adult continuing education level”. The Ministry of Education: shall accelerate the literacy campaign by creating awareness of the significance and improvement of life among people, utilising innovative approaches and mobilising close cooperation with educational institutions,
organisations and various agencies in order to cover the remotest target group. As a result, the problem of illiteracy will be gradually lessened and with the capability of literacy, the literates will be in quest of increasing knowledge and experience.

The organisational set-up and the operational guidelines are based inter-alia on: the constitution (1978), the 1960 National Education Scheme and its subsequent alterations under the 1977 Education Development Plan of 1954 and 1962, 1966 and 1975 revisions, the Teacher Act of (1980) and several other Ministerial and Departmental rules and regulations issued to serve particular purposes. According to these the state has the following general educational responsibilities.

- Education is to be recognised as among the prime functions of the state and must receive the support and stimulation due to it.

- The state promotes sports and vocational education as extensively as possible within its financial capacity in accordance with the economic conditions and needs of the nation.

- The state encourages adult education to serve the needs of those who have missed the opportunities for school education and also for the purpose of vocational efficiency.

The government controls the education system financially, administratively and politically. The 1978 educational reforms decentralised the decision-making process. Education in the public as well as private sector is also controlled and supervised by the national government.

Traditionally, education in Thailand has been highly centralised, wherein the Ministry of Education makes key decisions. Six years of primary education is compulsory and free to all children in Thailand. Most of the Thais, however, do not continue education beyond the sixth grade. Elementary schooling during 1961-1977 was for seven years. Under the 1978 educational reforms, it was of
six years’ duration. Most of the Thai children enter school at the primary level without pre-primary education. Repetition rates remain a major problem in Thai primary schools. The dropout and repetition rates are particularly high in the remote areas of the far north, Malay-speaking provinces of the far south, Cambodian speaking sections of the northeast and the slum areas of Bangkok. These areas received special attention in the Fifth National Social and Economic Development Plan.

The educational reforms of 1978 called for changes to reduce the excessive centralisation in the education administrative structure. These reforms became law in October 1980. Thus the control of Thailand’s 30,000 rural primary schools was shifted from the Ministry of Interior to the Ministry of Education. The office of the National Primary Education Commission in the Ministry of Education has policy-making responsibilities. In the Ministry of Education, the office of the Permanent Secretary co-ordinates the educational tasks of the 13 departments. Thailand is divided into 13 educational regions for the purpose of instruction and supervision.

As in most of Southeast Asia, early education was monastic and almost exclusively for males. The present Chakri dynasty has been promoting educational and cultural development since 1768. Training of the civil service was the prime purpose of education at that time. In addition, some secular public instruction was introduced in the monastic schools. The Department of Education was established in 1887; it became a Ministry in 1892. In 1898 the National Scheme of Education was introduced and has since been revised several times. The first Compulsory Education Act was passed in 1921. It made schooling compulsory for all children of both sexes between the age of seven and 14. However, the royal decree handed down at the time required only four years’ attendance.

Primary schools were extended to rural areas. During this period, the focus of mass education was on the promotion of literacy and fostering natural
unity and loyalty to the monarchy, key educational themes that are still relevant today.

The 1930’s brought a revolution, a form of constitutional monarchy and new educational reforms.

The 1936 amendment to the National Scheme of Education produced the basic organisational scheme, which is in force today. The requirement that the provinces should have at least 50 percent adult literacy to be fully represented in Parliament brought about a rapid expansion of elementary education. Following the educational reforms begun in 1974, the goals of education were further broadened in 1977 to include an appreciation of the relation between education, life and society (National Education Commission, 1977, pp.3-4).

Primary education is free, and is provided universally by the government. Thailand has successfully implemented numerous programmes and measures to reduce disparity and inequality in education.

Thailand has realised the importance of literacy a long time ago when non-formal education started in the 1940’s. Its primary aim was to develop and conduct literacy programmes for adults above 15 years who were not in the formal school system. Later on, vocational training became another prime objective when functional literacy programmes were developed which related literacy to occupational skills. In the Thai non-formal education programme, there has been emphasis on a process known as ‘Khit-phen’, an approach designed to encourage harmony between individuals and their environment. ‘Khit’phen’ means the process of critical and rational thinking and problem solving.

Literacy in modern Thailand exists as a continuing tradition of the major agency of the past - the Buddhist temple (‘wat’). The ‘wat’ is translated as ‘temple’. It comprises a complex of buildings including the bodh (chapel), sala (preaching hall), khuti (monks’ quarters), etc. The temple cluster is set apart
from the village settlement; at the same time it is the social and religious centre of the village.

The fundamental guiding principles of Thai education are training personnel for the civil services and promoting national consciousness through universal primary education. Thus vocational educational programmes were started to prevent excessive pressure on government employment.

The department of non-formal education is directly responsible for formulating policy on non-formal education. Also, several other ministries and departments conduct non-formal education. The following are examples of programmes in non-formal education: (a) continuing education at five levels providing academic equivalency; (b) short vocational courses of upto 12 months, including, for example, mobile trade schools; (c) functional literacy, including critical thinking, problem solving, numeracy, and vocational subjects; and (d) informational programmes such as village newspaper reading centres and public libraries.

Four ministers were responsible for education until 1980. The Ministry of Interior (MOI) was in charge of nearly all primary schools in the rural areas. The Ministry of Education (MOE), however, was responsible for secondary education, post-secondary vocational-technical education, and teacher training as well as providing supervisors and curriculum material at both levels. The Office of University Affairs (OUA), which enjoys ministerial status, was responsible for university education and the National Education Commission (NEC), in charge of educational policy making and planning, is part of the Office of the Prime Minister.

Excessive centralisation and the complexity of the administrative structure became a major issue in 1974, so the Cabinet set up an Educational Reforms Committee. While the reforms committee reviewed all aspects of education, the focus was on the administrative structure of the Thai educational system. Basically, the reforms committee called for unifying the diverse
educational organisations under the Ministry of Education and greater decentralisation of authority to the local level.

As a result of several political changes, the implementation of some important parts of the reforms was delayed. In October 1980, however, the major administrative part of the reforms became law. Control of Thailand’s roughly 30,000 rural schools was returned to the Ministry of Education, under the Office of the National Primary Education Commission (ONPEC), which is responsible for its policy making and planning. The day-to-day operations are controlled by 72 newly established Provincial Primary Education Commissions, which have flexible control over the placement of teachers and location of schools. Elected representatives of the teachers as well as appointed and ex-officio members serve on the governing boards of the national and provincial primary school commissions.

Public support for education has increased in the 1960s and 1970’s. The private sector, which accounts for 12.5 percent of the total enrolment, also contributes, but the exact amount is not available. The share of education in the total state budget has increased from significantly between 1961 to 1981. Currently, the education budget ranks second only to that of defence.

Since the 1960s more than half the educational programmes have been designed to meet development needs. Despite regional disparities in educational standards and facilities, the teacher-pupil ratio in the primary schools has improved dramatically. A new curriculum aims at education for life and utilises a reformed and more flexible examination system. Thailand is currently attempting to reduce educational disparities, to promote greater decentralisation in administration, and to work towards quality improvement and relevance at all levels of education. The administration of education follows the national administrative system. This system is divided into three levels namely, central, provincial, and local. Responsibility for the administration of education at the central level is shared by four ministries: the Office of the Prime Minister, the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Interior, and the Ministry of University
Affairs. In general, it can be said that the Office of the Prime Minister is responsible for the overall financial and staffing aspects of the whole educational system; the Ministry of Interior is responsible for primary education in municipal areas; the Ministry of Education is responsible for the greater part of education ranging from pre-primary education to colleges at the post-secondary level; and the Ministry of University Affairs is in charge of education at the tertiary level.

Within the Prime Minister’s Office, there is one organisation which is solely concerned with administering education and various organisations whose functions are related to the educational system. The functions of the National Economic and Social Department Board, the Budget Bureau and the Civil Service Commission are the same for education as they are for other ministries – preparing plans, evaluating and approving budgets, and dealing with all matters of staff administration. The National Education Commission is responsible for overall co-ordination of planning and for ensuring that the activities in different parts of the educational system are consistent with one another. It also carries out research of general interest, usually at the request of other agencies. Finally, the National Education Commission has to report to the Cabinet on serious educational problems and make recommendations about the organisation of the educational system or the adoption of new policies to solve these problems.

The Ministry of Interior’s main function is the allocation of subsidies to the municipalities for primary education, including primary schools under the Bangkok Metropolitan Administration and the City of Pattaya. The Ministry of Education is fully responsible for all types of education, arts, culture and religious affairs. This Ministry also takes care of the curriculum at the university level and non-formal education. Pre-primary and most of the primary education also come under this Ministry. Post-secondary programmes in technical institutes, the Institutes of Technology and Vocational Education, and teacher training colleges are also the responsibility of this Ministry. The administration of teaching personnel and certain types of educational administrators are liable
to the Teacher Civil Service Commission, under this Ministry. In addition, there is a departmental level committee, the Private Education Commission, looking after private education at the primary and secondary levels. The Ministry of University Affairs is responsible for the administration of government universities and overseeing private colleges.

Provincial administration of education is under the Ministry of Education. There are two forms of arrangement: provincial and district. Administrative authority is delegated to the Governor at the provincial level and to the district officer (Sheriff) at the district level. In each province, there is an education office headed by a Provincial Education Officer, responsible for educational matters delegated by the central agencies. In each district there is an education office, headed by a District Education Officer, responsible for educational administration within the district.

The Bangkok Metropolitan Administration, the city of Pattaya, and the municipalities have their own administrative channels for education. Educational institutions operated by these agencies are at the pre-primary and primary level. At present, there are 113 municipalities throughout the kingdom.

The Ministry of Education was officially established in 1892 by upgrading the Department of Education (established in 1875) to be responsible for education in the country. Over the long process of development, education has considerably expanded. As a consequence, the Ministry of Education has to organise its administrative structure in such a way that educational matters are effectively managed.

There are 14 departments under the Ministry, each with its own functions. Half of these departments are either totally or partially assigned to operate or control certain types of schools, colleges, or institutes. The other three departments (Fine Arts, Religious Affairs, and Cultural Affairs) are responsible for fine arts, religion and culture, respectively. School curriculum, text-book production and tests for assessing students’ achievements are under the
Department of Educational Curriculum and Instruction Development, while the teaching personnel are taken care of by the Teachers’ Civil Service Commission.

The office of the Department Secretary is the central co-ordinating agency of the Ministry. Besides the 14 departments mentioned above, the central administration of education also includes 12 educational regions. The educational regions have been set up for improving education in the rural areas and for adapting education to local needs, and geographical, occupational and cultural backgrounds.

Within the framework of the local administration of education, the provincial education office is expected not only to comply with the assigned roles and functions in providing educational services but also to co-ordinate with other agencies in the province to achieve rural development.

The head of the provincial education office is the Provincial Education Officer appointed by the Ministry of Education.

The structure of the Thai school system from 1960 to 1977 was 7-5-4; seven years of elementary education divided into a four-year lower cycle and a three-year-upper cycle, five years of secondary education divided into a three-year lower cycle and two-year upper cycle, and four years for the first degree. In 1978, this was changed to the 6-3-3 patterns.

There are four levels of education i.e. pre-primary education, primary education, secondary education and higher education.

All educational management in Thailand is under the control and supervision of the state. Financial responsibilities mainly lie with the government sector assisted by the private sector. Thus, there are two types of schools at every level – government and private.

As for non-formal education, the intention is to provide education for the out-of-school and underprivileged population so as to give the people of all ages, an opportunity to study and improve their occupation and living conditions.
In the National Education Policy of the National Education Scheme 1977, the significance of non-formal education is stated as follows:

The state shall endeavour to step up and promote various kinds of out-of-school education in order to make available life-long education to all, especially to those who missed initial formal schooling.

Since the out-of-school population makes up almost 80 percent of the total population of school-going age, an attempt was made to expand non-formal education. The central co-ordination system is at present under the National Committee on Non-Formal Education and the administrative work is taken care of by the Department of Non-Formal Education in the Ministry of Education.

After the compulsory Education Act of 1921, there was a steady rise in the rate of literacy until the outbreak of the Second World War. In 1940, an Adult Education Division was set up in the Ministry of Education. The same year, the Government adopted a policy requiring all illiterate adults to attend adult classes to learn how to read and write in Thai. Comparing the census data of 1947 with those of 1960, it appears that the rate of literacy increased from 52 percent to 68 percent although the actual number of illiterates remained more or less unchanged. In 1970, the literacy rate increased to 82 percent.

The Ministry of Education, which is responsible for non-formal education throughout the country, operates a number of programmes as follows:

- The School Equivalency Programme (Adult Continuing Education). It provides an opportunity to adults who need grade-level equivalency certificates for employment purposes. This programme is well known to the people. The structure of a school is divided into 5 levels as follows:

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Duration</th>
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<tr>
<td>First level</td>
<td>Six months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second level</td>
<td>Six months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third level</td>
<td>1½ year</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fourth level</td>
<td>1½ year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fifth level</td>
<td>2 years</td>
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</tbody>
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The Department of Non-formal Education runs this programme of non-formal school system.

- The Functional Literacy Programme.

- The Village Newspaper Reading Centre Project is another programme to provide the community with news and information, to promote literacy skills and to prevent the people from relapsing into illiteracy.

- The Ministry of Education as a project of non-formal education also arranges radio and television programmes. Seventy-one percent of the total number of households in Thailand have radio sets.

3.5.5 (1987-2007) Adult Education as Life Long Education

The sixth (1987-91) and Seventh plan (1992-1996) on National Education Development Plan stated the policy of life-long education. The National Education Development Plan (1992-1996) also aims at qualitative improvement of the citizens’ ethics, morality, intellect, health, occupation, knowledge and skills so that they will be self-reliant, able to live a happy life under the constitutional monarchy, able to adjust themselves properly to any situation, to be creative and have initiative, and be able to lead national development in the right direction. Furthermore, it is expected that they will be able to support socio-economic changes in a systematic and harmonious pattern, corresponding to the limited resources, and the daily needs of individuals, communities and societies.

Thailand has prepared a National Education Plan (NEP) (2002-2016) – this 15 years plan focuses on the integration of all aspects of the quality of life. It emphasis is on human – centered development and integrated in this holistic scheme of education, is religion, art and culture. NEP will serve as a framework for formulating the development plans pertaining to basic education vocational education and higher education. It is a major reform plan, bringing together the relevant provisions of the Constitution of the National Education Act. It also

Thailand has given a lead to other Asian countries in adult education due to social role and status of women and involvement of community. Garg (1987) undertook a study of adult education programmes in Thailand, Malaysia and Singapore under the aegis of UNESCO. According to this study adult education in Thailand has surpassed other Asian countries because the social role and status of women is that of an equal partner in all walks of life and the privileges and rights of women are the same as those of men. More than 30 government agencies are responsible for non-formal education, in addition to 30 non-profit-making organizations. About 2000 private schools offer courses for out of school youth. The activities of these agencies are co-coordinated by the National Commission on Non-Formal Education chaired by the Minister for Education. The policies and plans of non-formal education are inter-woven in the total educational development plan through the National Education Committee. Public libraries and learning resources centres are organized in each district and the mass media are also utilized for this purpose. This study is based on the author’s experience during a visit under the UNESCO travel grant scheme to study the workers’ adult education programme in South Asian countries.

Thailand had a long history of adult education policy and programmes. Walter (2002) has analyzed the ways in which the Thailand has historically shaped adult literacy education policies for development. His findings are that in the Thai state of 1940s and 1950s, literacy education was a means of promoting nationalism through an imagined community of Thai citizens. For the developmental governance between 1960s and 1980s literacy education was the means to create a new Thai working class for industrial capitalism and export oriental growth. For the liberal democratic state of the 1990s, literacy education was re-oriented toward a post-faddist economy. Recently in the wake of the 1997 economic crisis and subsequent IMF and ADB structural adjustment
policies. State educational policies have shifted to an emphasis on fiscal economics over education. While state ideologies educational policy are dominant in this historical narrative, they also possess, internal contradictions contested by popular movements and special groups outside dominant classes. Literacy education in Thailand is, as such, not only the site of production and reproduction of state ideologies, but also of struggles over their meaning. Thus we find that work oriented literacy programmes of the 1970s, a trend towards broader community development inspired by the student revolution of October 1973; and within the new liberal Thai state’s embrace of globalisation, a call for further democratisation of educational opportunities first promoted by the May 1992 uprising and then embodied in the new Constitution of 1997 and the Education Act of 1999.

3.5.6 Salient Features of Adult Education in Thailand:

Mass Literacy Campaign was adopted. It comprised combination of two components basic literacy skills (reading, writing and arithmetic) and occupational skills. Learner could receive 2 levels of certificates, equivalent to two years and four years of formal education. This evaluated the learners to continue to move on to higher levels on the formal education ladder. These types of classes are still being offered in penal institutes and schools in urban areas.

In the 1970s the concept of functional literacy became more popular. The curriculum contained four main parts: agriculture and other occupations, basic healthcare, economics and civics. 80% of the curriculum content consisted of required courses; the other 20 percent include content selected by the teachers and according to local needs.

The time needed to complete the course was 200 hours. The discussion method was predominant. Involvement is voluntary. The learners have to pass three tests pre, formative and post. This programme had taken many forms. “Walking teachers”, helped to reach the illiterates living in remote access. Teachers, college students, volunteers and priests are among the instructors.
There was also a functional literacy programme for illiterate military draft less, as well as for minorities like the Malay-speaking populations in the South and the hill tribes in the North.

The second major literacy campaign was organized between 1983-87. These campaigns were aimed at providing opportunities for those who have not completed primary education and are unable to read and write simple Thai language. Thailand reduced the illiterate rate of 14.5 percent in 1982 to about 10.5 percent in 1986. A reduction in approximately one million illiterates, the standard literacy programmes could not have had the capacity for achieving this figure. This was achieved through national level, voluntary mass literacy campaign. The adult education division is the sole government agency responsible for out of school population. It takes post literacy and containing programmes like organizing village newspaper reading centres, district and provisiona public libraries. Many new programmes were stated for specific target populations (rural, urban and minorities)

The department of non-formal education (NFE) which is charged with providing educational services and opportunities for people of all ages, play an important role in rural development. Many kinds of post literacy programmes were offered by the NFE, which where classroom, semi-classroom, and non-classroom types. Classroom programmes includes equivalency education certificate programmes, continuing education and vocational education of various lengths. Semi classroom education includes short courses (up to 38 hours), interest groups and radio correspondence courses. Non-classroom education includes radio-correspondence programmes, wall newspapers, and village reading centers, libraries, mobile book boxes and out door audio-visual shows.

Thai education system has made available equivalency examinations at education offices across the country. By this means many Thai adults have indeed advanced themselves and attained important government and non-government positions. At the start (1969), these programmes (general continuing
education) were organized into three levels above the functionality literacy level (Levels 1-2); Level 3 (equivalent to Grade 6); Level 4 (equivalent to Grade 9); Level 5 (equivalent to Grade 12).

The various target groups of learners identified for A.E.

- The group of learners, which is 58 percent who do not continue secondary education after completion of primary education. They reside in rural areas in remote locations and are very poor.
- Another group requiring keen or special attention consists of the dropouts and those who have never attended school because they happen to live where there is no school or are not proficient in central Thai language education system has shifted from 4-3-3 to a national 6-3-3 system. Compulsory education includes only those who are 6-11 years old.

In a broader context, the government has recognized the importance of rural development and is determined to make it a success.

3.6 GEOGRAPHICAL AND HISTORICAL PROFILE OF CHINA

CHINA (People’s Republic of China)

Capital: Beijing (Peking), UN gives a projected Population for 2010 of 1,364-88m

Geographical location: China is between the East China Sea, the Korean Bay, the Yellow Sea, and the South China Sea, between North Korea and Vietnam.

Historical Background

An embryonic Chinese state emerged in the fertile Huang. He (Yellow River) basin before 4000 BC. Chinese culture reached the Chang Jiang (Yangtze, basin by 2500 BC and within 500 years the far south was also within the Chinese orbit. About BC writing developed using recognizable Chinese characters. Around 1000 BC under the Zhou dynasty, a centralized administration developed. In about 500 BC a court official. Kongfuzi
(Confucius) outlined his vision of society. Confucianism, which introduce the principal Chinese belief system until the mid 20th century.

The turning point came in 1991 when a revolution led by the Kuomintang (Guomintangor Nationalist movement) of Sun Yet-Sen (Sun Zhong Shan : 1866-1925) overthrew the emperor. In 1916 Sun founded a republic in southern China on Soviet lines.

By the mid-1960s Mao became the centre of a personality cult. Mao’s Thought’s were published in the “Little Red Book’. In 1964 Mao set the Cultural Revolution in motion. Anyone who lacked enthusiasm for Mao Zedong “Thoughts” was denounced. After Mao’s death in 1976, the Gang of Four, led by Mao’s widow Chang Ch’ing, attempted to seize power. After these hard liners were denounced and arrested, China came under the control of Deng Xiaoping, who emphasized economic reform. The country was opened to Western investment. Special Economic Zones and open cities were designated and private enterprise gradually returned.

Greatly improved standards, of living and thriving economy expectations for civil liberties. The demand for political change climaxed in demonstrations by workers and students in April 1989, following the funeral of Communist Party leader Hu Yaobang. In Beijing the demonstrators were evicted from Tiananmen Square by the Military who opened fire, killing more than 1,500 Hard liner took control of the government and martial law was imposed from May 1989 to Jan. 1990. Since then a more liberal regime has focused on economic Macao from Portuguese rule in 1999. The late 1990s saw a cautious extension of civil liberties.

Hong Kong was handed over in 1997 by the British to the People’s Republic of China.

Territory and Population

China is bounded in the north by Russia and Mongolia; cast by North Korea, the Yellow Sea and the East China, Sea, with Hong Kong and Macao as
enclaves on the southeast coast; south by Vietnam, Laos, Myanmar, India, Bhutan and Nepal; west by India, Pakistan, Afghanistan, Tajikistan, Kyrgyzstan and Kazakhstan. The total area (including Taiwan, Kong and Macao) is estimated at 9,572,900 sq. km. (3,696,100 sq. miles). A law of Feb. 1992 claimed the Spratly, Paracel and Diaoyutasi Islands. An agreement of 7 Sept. 1993 at prime ministerial level settled Sino-Indian border disputes which had first emerged in the war of 1962.

China’s fifth national census was held on 1 Nov. 2000. According to preliminary results, the total population of the 31 provinces, autonomous regions and municipalities on the mainland was 1,265,830,000 (612,280,000 females representing 48.37%) density, 132 per sq. km. The population rose by 132,150,000 (or 11.66%) since the census in 1990. There were 455,940,000 urban residents accounting for 36.1% of the population. The proportion of the population living in urban areas has more than doubled since 1975. An estimated 300m, people have migrated from the countryside to cities since the economy was opened up in the late 1970s.

1979 regulations restricting married couples to a single child, a policy enforced by compulsory abortions and economic sanctions, have been widely ignored and it was admitted in 1998 that the population target of 1.200m by 2000 would have to be revised to 1.270m. Since 1998 peasant couples have been permitted a second child and in 1999 China started to implement a more widespread gradual relaxation of the one child policy.

China has 56 ethnic groups. According to the 2000 census, 1,159,400,000 people (91.6%) were of Han nationality and 106,430,000 (8.4%) were from national minorities (including Zhuang, Manchu, Hui, Miao, Uighur, Yi, Tujia, Mongolian and Tibetan), Compared with the 1990 census, the Han population increased by almost 116,920,000 (11.2%) while the ethnic minorities increased by 15,230,000 (16.7%). Non-Han populations predominate in the autonomous regions, most portable in Tibet where national minorities accounted for 97.2% of the population in 1994.
Constitution and Government


The unicameral National People’s Congress is the highest organ of state power. Usually meeting for one session a year, it can amend the constitution and nominally elects and has power to remove from office the highest officers of state. There are 2,989 members of the Congress, who are elected to serve five year terms by municipal regional and provincial people’s congresses. The Congress elects a standing committee (which supervises the State Council) and the President and Vice-President for a five year term. When not in session, Congress business is carried on by the Standing Committee.

The State Council is the supreme executive organ and comprises the Prime Minister, Deputy Prime Ministers and State Councillors.

The Central Military Commission is the highest state military organ.

A tenth five year plan covers 2001-05 there is also a 15 year strategic plan, in the Long term target for 2010. The five year plan has a its guiding principle economic restructuring making technological progress the driving force for economic growth, improving living standards and co-ordinating economic development and social development.
GDP totalled US$1,237bn, in 2002, GDP growth was officially put at 7.1% in 1999 (the slowest rate for a decade), but then 8.0% in 2000. In 2001 there was 7.3% growth, rising to 8.0% in 2002 and 9.1% in 2003. Western analysis believe these rates are overstated. In spite of high growth in recent years. China’s GDP per capita at purchasing power parity was $4,020 in 2001 compared to the high human development average of $23,135.

**Education:** An educational reform of 1985 planned a phase in compulsory nine-year education consisting of six years of primary schooling and three year of secondary schooling, to replace a previous five year system.

In mainland China the 2000 population census revealed the following levels of educational attainment: 45.7m people had finished university education; 141.09m. had received senior secondary education; 429.89m had received junior secondary education; and 451.91m had primary education. 85.07m. People over 15 years of age or 6.72% of the population were illiterate, although this compared favourably with a 15.88% rate of illiteracy recorded and 856,000 teachers; 553,662 primary schools with 130.13m pupils and 5.86m teachers; 89,763 secondary schools (of which 14,564 senior secondary 62,704 junior secondary; 3,646 specialized and 8,849 vocational) with 83.61m pupils and 4.48m teachers. There were also 378,000 children at 1,539 special education schools. Institutes of higher education, including universities numbered 1,225 in 2001, with 7.19m students (a substantial increase from 5.56m in 2000). There are more than 1,300 non-governmental private higher education institutions including 12 private universities) with 1.5m students or 39% of the total college and university students nationwide.

There is an Academic of Sciences with provincial branches. An Academic of Social Sciences was established in 1977. In 1999 total expenditure on education came to 334,904m, Yuan; government appropriation was 228,717m, yuan.

3.6.1 Historical Development of Adult Education in China

In the 50 years that have passed since the founding of New China, adult education in various forms has progressed forward. The development can, in retrospect, be roughly divided into three stages:

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<tr>
<th>Adult Education during</th>
<th>1949-1966</th>
<th>Pre-Cultural Revolution Period</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adult Education during</td>
<td>1966-1976</td>
<td>Cultural Revolution Period</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult Education during</td>
<td>1976 onward</td>
<td>Post-Cultural Period</td>
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3.6.2 Adult Education during 1949-1966: Pre- Cultural Revolution Period

The first stage covers the 17-year period (from October 1949 to April 1966) before the 10-year upheaval. During the early days of the young People’s Republic, night schools were run for the participants to learn to read and also to learn about politics and current affairs. Primary and secondary education in literacy and basic skills were developed step by step among the workers and peasants. The Central Committee of the Communist Party and the State Council issued in 1956 the “Decisions on the Elimination of Illiteracy” and a mass literacy campaign was started. By 1965, over 100 million persons had become literate. In the mean time, spare-time primary and middle schools had been introduced and secondary and higher professional education had also made some headway. China suffered from severe economic setbacks during (1959-1961).

3.6.3 Adult Education during 1966-1976: Cultural Revolution Period

The second stage covers the ten-year period of upheaval or of cultural revolution (1966-1976). Literacy and post-literacy education were badly hit, the institutions were dissolved, the cadres were transferred to other posts, school buildings were occupied for other purposes, work came to a standstill, and adult education was greatly affected.

3.6.4 Adult Education during 1976 onward: Post Cultural Period

The third stage covers the period from October 1976, to the present day. The State Council issued in 1978 its “Instructions on Anti-illiteracy Education”,
and the Central Committee of the party and the State Council jointly issued in 1981 the “Decisions on Strengthening Education of the Staff and Workers”. Literacy, post-literacy and continuing education have now returned to normal and have made headway along with the cause of socialist reconstruction. By the year 1982, there were over 7.5 million participants enrolled in adult primary education.

It was only in 1976 when the ten year nation-wide disorder was finally terminated and especially after the third plenary sessions of the eleventh congress of the CPC which decided to shift the stress of the whole party of economic construction that adult education could be restored and developed systematically gains” (Yao Zhongda, 1987)

Hence adult education had to be organized totally afresh since 1977. Anti–illiteracy and worker peasant education have witnessed gradual but considerable attention in the national policy and programmes of China. Consequently the general policy of dual system of regular higher education and adult higher education, giving equal emphasis to both was adopted.

Jang (1992) has done a study of adult education in China about policies and practices in 1980. According to this study, from the beginning of 1980 a comprehensive system of adult education was established in China to meet the requirements of rapid socio-economic development. The main measures taken by the government were: making elementary education available in all rural areas; focusing adult literacy work on the 12-45 years age group; and utilizing various methods including vocational training to consolidate the new literate. They were conducted in a coordinated manner. On the other hand, in the urban areas emphasis was laid on providing job training designed to improve professional knowledge and skills for technological advancement. Improving the quality of teaching and modifying the curricula to meet the needs of development, providing short-term agricultural technical training in the rural areas, training the unemployed, mobilizing financial resources from all sections
of society are measures which the Chinese Government took since 1990 for the
development of the adult education system.

Subsequent to the promulgations of the regulations on eradicating illiteracy by the state council in February 1988, SEDC issued suggestions for further strengthening literacy work in October 1991, and the state council issued the revised version of the regulations on eradicating illiteracy. The more important revisions are related to the age cohort of the priority target groups. Criteria set for literacy standards to be attained by the neo-literates and explicit requirements concerning the rights and obligations of illiterates to receive education. It was decided that efforts should be focused on the literacy education many young and middle-aged adults (defined as all people born after the founding of the PRC, aged 15 and over, referring to the age cohort of 15-51 in the year 2000). In the framework of educational development basically universalizing 9 years compulsory schooling and eradicating illiteracy among young and middle age adults have been set as “top priorities’ in the agenda of educational planning and programmes. Specific targets have been forwarded and it is through such efforts that eradicating illiteracy and preventing a generation of new illiterates will be possible by the year 2000.

At the national level an interdepartmental co-ordination group was set up to co-ordinate the efforts of the various departments and quarters concerned, with suitable division of responsibilities. At the provincial district/country levels, similar bodies were set up.

A system of verification and acceptance of literacy work was set up at the country level. Implementing a system of commendation and rewards was planned to boost literacy work in which there were three kinds of rewards. The first category of reward is conferred by the MDE and MOF jointly to provinces and municipalities performing outstandingly in literacy work. The second category of award is to give SEDC sponsored commendations to outstanding units and individuals. The third category of awards refer to the institution of 11 women’s literacy awards” jointly granted by ACWF and SEDS (MOF) with a
view to promoting literacy work among women. In the year 1991, 1994 and 1995, in total of 90 advanced units and 392 individuals were winners of the “women literacy awards”.

Guidelines for the implementation of reform and development of education in China. The National conference on education convened in 1994 by the National Inter Departmental Coordinating Committee for Literacy Work (NICCLW) consisted President of all China Women’s Federation (ACWF), Minister & Vice-Minister in charge of SEDC, Secretary of the Secretariat of ACWF and the secretary of secretariat of communist youth league of China. Other members from eight bodies, department of propaganda, CPC central committee; ministries of culture, Radio, Films and Television, Agriculture and Forestry; State Nationalities Affaires Commission, department of man work of Chinese peoples liberation army and china science technology association. The first session of the NICCLW was held on December 19, 1994.

The state has taken a series of measures to further literacy work, like pinpointing implementing bodies, providing literacy teachers, regularities regarding availability of funds for literacy work and matching the number of literacy textbooks required meet local needs.

The new policy framework released in 2002 focuses on promoting literacy campaign and improving curriculum contents and delivery system for economical disadvantaged rural areas in West-China”. Tiedao, Zhang (2002)

In China, literacy is primarily committed as a socially shared responsibility and the government plays a co-ordinating note for various managerial aspects of implementation.

Adult education was at one time also called ‘worker peasant education in China’. Adult education is often called ‘spare-time education’, because the adults’ study programmes which are usually organized and conducted after working hours. Adult education in China ranges from literary programmes to
Adult education has been given an important place since the founding of New China. In 1949, when the new government took over, it was stimulated in a major constitutional document that ‘spare time education of the labouring masses and the in-service education of cadres any one who is not at the bottom level of the organization hierarchy in a cadre should be strengthened. The first national conference on education, held in Beijing in December 1949, declared:

“Open the school door to workers, peasants and their children, set up people’s universities and workers-peasants’ accelerated middle schools, develop worker-peasant remedial education on a grand scale, implement the man literacy movement on a. In October 1951, the Central People’s Government are solved the general policy of setting up various types of schools for the cadres, for the remedial education of workers and peasants, and of operating other training courses to form intellectuals from among the worker-peasant masses. It stated that all working people should enjoy the sight to education. It is clear from this statement that the major target groups of adult education in China include cadres, workers and peasants. The constitution of People’s Republic China established later, also called for the development of adult education in diverse forms ‘to raise the political, scientific and cultural level of the working people’.

In addition to these general guidelines, the responsible authorities both at central and local government levels deliberated detailed policies and measures. It has to be noted that in China, education is not only the responsibility of then Ministry of Education. The Ministry of Education has been restructured and is included in the newly established State Education Commission, which is a cross-ministerial high power commission.

There are basically two levels of administration. There is the centralized leadership where the Central People’s Government, comprising the State Education Commission (formerly the Ministry of Education) as well as other non-education ministries (production ministries), are:
Forming the guiding principles and basic policies
Drafting and issuing instructional packages
Approving and monitoring the operation of adult education institutes
Co-ordinating the relevant ministries and sectors concerned

The local governments are responsible for the actual management of adult education. These include:

- Establishment
- Distribution of funds
- Control of enrolment and management
- Selection and production of teaching material
- Training
- Supervising and monitoring the work of all relevant governments

There is the notion of ‘co-operative division of labour’ where the workers union, the communist youth league, the women’s federation, the association for science popularization and so on, all render assistance.

There were other forms of cooperation and co-ordination, which were achieved through a network of national and local committees. Examples are the anti-literacy working committee set up in 1952, the spare-time education association set up in 1956 and the spare-time education committee set up in 1960. Some of them are still functioning and playing an active role. There is a worker’s education committee at the national level that is composed of the representatives from the State Economic Council and other Government Ministries involved in the administration of worker’s education. There are also the local workers – peasant education committee or workers education committee who are set up for their own needs. The government education departments are usually represented in these committees and play an important role.
role. In addition, there are numerous non-governmental organizations, associations or societies for adult education or research in adult education. Their contributions are again significant.

In the last 50 years since the creation of the Republic in 1949, literacy rate among the middle-aged peasants has risen to 70% from around 20%, while among the workers and employees it has risen to 92% from around 30% to 40% in 1949. This indicates not only a successful literacy campaign, but also the development of a strong and widely accessible school system. Chakrabarti (1995) in a study of women’s adult literacy in China has studied the problems specific to women, which promote adult education in China. She has highlighted the effects of the State to overcome the problems associated with adult literacy. She has compared the Mao period with the post Mao-era in terms of the state’s commitment to remove illiteracy among women. This study is important for application in tradition-bound societies like India, China and Bangladesh. The study emphasizes that women’s literacy in China is outstanding among the developing countries. The Communist Party has played a central role in the spread of education and literacy. Evening schools were opened to spread education and propaganda campaigns were aimed at prospective beneficiaries. The messages were carried through the radio and later through television broadcasts, film shows, banners, posters, etc. Leaflets, fliers and booklets were also distributed. Literacy textbooks for peasants were distributed in large numbers. As far as women’s literacy is concerned, Mao’s thoughts and the publicity given to his Red Book also helped. Classes were held exclusively for women though the norm was of classes for both sexes together. Husbands were encouraged to help their wives in acquiring literacy skills. In China the existence of communes along with common kitchens, mess halls as well as nurseries, day care centres freed men and women from such domestic work. The result is a good record of female literacy. China did not involve non-government organizations in welfare and development projects. It has been observed in the
study that the main hindrance to the spread of female literacy has been the tradition-bound society.

Kaiming (1994) has discussed the role of young adults in changing socialist society through post-compulsory education in China.

Rao (1996) in the Education for All World Conference has mentioned social awareness about adult literacy. In China, there was resistance from the farmers to acquiring literacy. Even the administrators and the general public were of the opinion that literacy had no special use, as being literate made no difference to a farmer. A full-scale campaign was launched to publicize the advantages of education and also to educate the administrators and the general public through broadcasting, wallpapers and slide shows.

Tiedao (2002) reviews the literacy and adult education status in China and National policy initiatives whereby the government has committed to assume the primary responsibility for full literacy especially for youth and adults, along with the successful implementation of 9-year compulsory education programme. The various education provisions made for rural population like community learning centers and programmes to increase farmers learning level has been discussed also.

Yuchi (2005) analyze the Chinese context of women’s literacy. Spare time classes, right school, winter schools, off season schools and mobile school were innovations to facilitate the speed of literacy among women. As 40 per cent of China is in mountainous areas, the number of winter and off-season schools were very big. Husbands were encouraged to help wives in sustaining their literacy skills. Similarly, children attending formal schools were encouraged to teach their mothers and grandmothers at home. Women’s illiteracy rate in 2000 was 13.47% and it was 4.86% for men. The causes for women illiteracy in China pointed to the large population, vast territory –much of which is rough and mountainous, underdevelopment and poverty. Other factors for illiteracy listed are outdated
notions ideas towards women in a traditional China, the vicious circle of ill
poverty and literacy, household responsibilities of women and ineffective literacy
education. Among the illiterates, rural women are more than 60%. The
government is integrating the illiteracy and poverty alleviation in long-term
programmes.

3.6.5 Salient Features of Adult Education in China

Peasant Education of 1949-1959 was a concept of the Chinese Communist Party’s (CPP) which stressed the political and economic importance
of literacy in rural China. CCP initially did not regard universal literacy as an urgent priority in the countryside. Early 1950s approaches to the problem of
peasant education were heavily influenced by the party’s wartime experience in popular education in which written texts featured as only one component in
multimedia-based strategy for mass mobilization. Universal literacy did not
become an urgent goal until the mid 1950s, in conjunction with the effort to collectivize Chinese rural society. The great national literacy campaigns of
1955-56 and 1958-59 can only be understood in the context of political economy
of collectivization, and in particular with the state’s effort to eliminate the physical, economic and social mobility of peasants beyond the confines of their rural collectives. Peterson, Glen (1995)

Primary school for adults, in China is a parallel structure to primary
school for children. The total output of these schools between 1991-97, amounts
to 33,745,000 indicating 4.8 million illiterate adults became literate every year,
well over the target set by the state. This resulted in net reduction of 18.8% of
illiterate adults aged 15 and over even after counting the increase in population.
Literacy classes decreased during this period from 358,000 to 283,000.

Two initiatives namely community learning centers programme and
programmes to increase farmers access to further learning are organized under
the education provisions for rural population for income generation and
promotion of quality of life.
China’s rural settings remain primarily oriented to formal basic schooling and it is inadequately prepared to meet the learning needs of the rural community (Zhang Tiedad; 2002).

The policies include co-ordinating of all sections of society to fulfil the government’s mission of literacy campaigns. Literacy is primarily committed as a socially shared responsibility whereby the government plays a co-ordinating role for the planning mobilizing and accreditation of the programmes.

The Taihang Rural Mountain Approach is a university-assisted project in which Agriculture University volunteered to work for 3-5 years in the field to encourage the villagers to apply new technologies for productive farming.

Inter-provincial Project on Poverty Alleviation, co-ordinated by the Chinese National Commission on UNESCO, focused on technical training among rural poor for poverty alleviation through the design and development of learning materials geared and maintaining income generation activities.

UNESCO’s APPEAL Community Learning Centre Projects trained staff for grass root involvement. The UNESCO’s Beijing Office Pilot Project for Poverty Alleviation in Hunan Province focussed on literacy training among the sparsely populated minority communities; and the Gansu Institute for Educational Research developed the Joint Guidebook Preparation for non-formal Learning Material Development.

The Green Certificate Project has trained and certified farmer’s mastery of a specific income generation technique. In the 1990s, literacy education and rural adult education in China have made big strides. The adult illiterate rate was reduced from 22.27 to 14.5 percent from 1990 to 1998. The illiteracy rate among the age group of 15-50 was reduced from 10.38 to 5.5 per cent. Wang Jiping Zhang Zhaowen (1999). It shows that China is close to universal literacy in the young age group. In China, the adult education system is parallel to the main education system. Adult education depending upon the level is of four categories. Elementary, lower secondary, higher secondary and higher education.