CHAPTER - 1
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Nepal - A Country Profile

1.1.1 Background

Nepal has been an independent country since the time immemorial. Her boundaries were expanded and contracted from time to time (Mishra, 1995). The boundaries of the modern Nepal were delimited when Sugauli Treaty of December 1815 was signed between Nepal and the then East India Company's Government. With the exception of several additions of land in the Terai made later in 1816 and again in 1860, the boundaries of Nepal have remained unchanged to this day (Stiller, 1975).

1.1.2 Location

Nepal situated on the southern slope of the mighty Himalayas is a landlocked mountainous country. (Refer to Appendix A for the location of Nepal in South Asia.) It is bounded on the east, south and west by India and on the north by the People's Republic of China. Nepal lies within the latitudes of 26°, 22' and 30°, 27' North and the longitudes of 80°, 4' and 88°, 12' East. The country is shaped roughly like a rectangle with an average length of 885 km from east to west and a non-uniform mean width of 193 km from north to south (CBS, 1998).

1.1.3 Physical Division

Nepal is divided into three ecological regions: Terai, Hills and Mountain. These regions extend from east to west like stripes. The Terai is the plain region situated along the boundary of India. Its altitude ranges from 60 to 300 metres from the sea level. The hill is predominantly hilly with some patches of flat river basins and valleys here and there. It has an altitude ranging from 600 to 4877 metres. The Kathmandu valley which itself lies in this region
is at an altitude of 1300 metres. The altitude of mountainous region ranges from 4877 to 8848 metres from the sea level (CERID, 1984). Eighteen snow peaks with an altitude of 6799 metres and above lie in this region (CBS, 1998).

The Terai region with a better prospect of agricultural and industrial development constitutes only 17 percent of total area of the country whereas the hills have 68 percent and the rugged mountains contain 15 percent (CBS, 1998).

1.1.4 Political Background

The modern Nepal has its own political history which begins when Prithiwi Narayan Shah, the king of Gorkha conquered Kathmandu valley in 1768. Since then the country was ruled by the kings, the ancestors of the present king, from 1768 to 1846 under royal supremacy (Mishra, 1995). After the Kot massacre of 1846 the Rana Prime ministers, seizing the power from the king exercised their autocracy from 1846 to 1951. In 1951, a successful political upheaval overthrew the Rana oligarchy. Since then the democratic government administered the country up to 1959 under the royal tutelage (Agrawal, 1974). Then, a general election of 1959 established a mere 18 months, parliamentary democracy up to the end of 1960 when the king dismissed the parliament and partyless Panchayat system under the royal leadership, ruled the kingdom up to 1989. The recent democratic movement of 1989 supplanted the Panchayat system by the multiparty constitutional monarchical democracy. Since then people elected multiparty system has been in practice to date.

1.1.5 Administrative Division

The country is divided administratively into 5 development regions and 75 districts. Each district is sub-divided into Municipalities/Village Development Committees (VDCs) which are the lowest level administrative units. At present, the number of VDCs and municipalities is 3913 and 58 respectively (CBS, 1998). (Refer to Appendix B for the map of Nepal.)
1.1.6 Climate

Because Nepal has a great variety of topography, there are diversity in weather and climate. The country experiences tropical, mesothermal, microthermal, taiga and tundra types of climate. Sixty to eighty percent of annual rainfall occurs during the monsoon season i.e. from June to September.

1.1.7 Population

According to the census of 1991, the population of Nepal was 18,491,097 (9220974 males and 9270123 females) in that year. In 1991, 7.8 percent, 45.5 percent and 46.7 percent of the total population were found in the mountain, hills and Terai regions respectively. In 1998, the population of Nepal is estimated to be 21,843,068 (10,939,621 females and 10,903,447 males). Similarly, the current population in urban areas is expected to be about 12 percent of the total population (CBS, 1998). The rest of the people reside in rural areas, some of them in remote areas accessible only through trails (Agrawal, 1974).

1.1.8 Economy

Nepal is predominantly an agricultural country. However, the contribution from this sector has been decreasing over the years (CBS, 1998; CBS 1996; CBS 1994). In 1997/1998, the contribution of the agriculture sector to the total GDP constitutes 39.13 percent and that of non-agriculture sector 60.87 percent at factor cost. So far as the resources are concerned though there are no precious mineral resources, Nepal is rich in water resource. However, Nepal is facing the problem of financial constraints and lack of technical capabilities in harnessing the water resource. The construction sector, which has been showing a downward trend since last four years has plummeted to a negative change. The per capita GNP in 1996/97 is US$ 243.81 (CBS, 1998).

1.1.9 Ethnicity

Nepal is a multietnic kingdom. So, the Nepalese society is a pluralistic one. The people of Nepal belong to two distinct groups: Indo-
Aryan and Tibeto-Burman. The Indo-Aryan group like the Terai people is concentrated mostly in the south and the Tibeto-Burman ethnic group like Sherpas in the north. In the hills this distribution is not so prominent because of inter-mixing that has taken place through the ages. However, there are specific groups of Indo-Aryan stock like Brahmans and Chhetris and of Tibeto-Burman stock like Tamangs, Magars and Gurungs (CERID, 1984).

In Nepal, there are 60 caste/ethnic groups (CBS, 1998). Each group has developed a cultural pattern of its own which is distinguishable from that of other groups. The Nepalese society has traditionally been organized in a caste hierarchy of Brahmans (priests) at the top, Kshatriyas (warriors) and Vaishyas (businessmen and farmers) in the middle, and Sudra (menial labourers) at the bottom (Agrawal, 1974). A number of caste groups are socially, though not legally, treated as low caste people or even as untouchables. Because majority of their time is spent in earning bread, they are not in a position to spend money and time for education. Besides the orthodox teachers and people of higher caste even discourage the low-caste children to attend school (CERID, 1984).

As per the constitution of the kingdom of Nepal, 1990 no person shall, on the basis of caste, be discriminated against as untouchable, be denied access to any public places, or be deprived of the use of public utility. Any contravention of this provision shall be punishable by law. Despite such constitutional provision, many of the attitudes, values and norms in the caste system still persist.

1.1.10 Religion

Nepal is the only Hindu Kingdom in the world. According to the census of 1991, the majority 86.51 percent of people are Hindus, 7.78 percent Buddhists, 3.53 percent Muslims, 1.72 percent Kirats, 0.17 percent Christians, and 0.04 Jains. The remaining 0.24 percent belong to other faiths and creeds (CBS, 1998).

Nepal presents a unique example of religious co-existence. Hindus and Buddhists live together in religious harmony. As a result of symbolic cross-
cultural interaction between them, they have even blended in many ways (CERID, 1984).

Nepal is also famous for pagoda style temples, shrines, stupas and historical monuments. UNESCO has included several places of historical importance in the list of 'World Heritage'.

1.1.11 Language

Nepal is a multilingual kingdom. People speak 32 different mother tongues. Among them the percentage of people speaking eleven major mother tongues are given below. According to the census of 1991, Nepali mother tongue speakers were 50.31 percent of the total population. Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu, Tamang and Nepal Bhasha mother tongue speaking people were about 11.85, 7.46, 5.37, 4.89 and 3.73 percent respectively. Similarly, the percent of people speaking Rai, Magar, Abadi, Limbu, Gurung mother tongues were 2.38, 2.33, 2.03, 1.37 and 1.23 respectively (CBS, 1998).

According to the constitution of kingdom of Nepal 1990, the Nepali language in the Devnagari script is the language of the nation of Nepal. It states that the Nepali language shall be the official language and all the languages spoken as the mother tongue in the various parts of Nepal are the national languages of Nepal (Ministry of Law and Justice, 1997).

Nepali is understood by a large majority of the people and it is being used as the medium of communication all over the country. Nepali is also made the medium of instruction in the schools of Nepal as a strategy in bringing about national integration. Inspite of the increasing use of Nepali, the language problem, however, exists, especially at the primary school grades among the non-Nepali speaking communities. Similarly, the same holds true in adult education programmes. To solve this problem as stated in the constitution, each community shall have the right to operate schools up to the primary level in its own mother tongue for imparting education to its children (Ministry of Law and Justice, 1997).
1.2 Education in Nepal: An Overview

1.2.1 Background

In Nepal the modern education dates back to 1854 when the then Rana Prime Minister Jang Bahadur Kunwar Rana who came into power by seizing all the power from the king established an English-based school exclusively to educate the children of his family. After few decades this school was made open to the children of their followers. Later, it was opened to the children of general mass. The Rana period, 1846-1950 is best described as one of general opposition to education by the ruling group (Wood, 1965). At the end of their 104 years regime, there were 321 primary schools, 11 secondary schools and 2 colleges in the country. However, the political upheaval of 1951 overthrew the Rana oligarchy. After that educational institutions grew so rapidly that in 1961 the number of primary schools, secondary schools and colleges increased to 4,001, 156 and 33 respectively (Wood, 1965). It reveals that the growth of educational institutions in 10 years time i.e. from 1951 to 1961 is exceedingly greater than in 97 years time i.e. from 1854 to 1951.

Specially, after the dawn of democracy in 1951, lots of education commissions and committees were formed, small and large educational plans and projects were experimented, and Education Act and Regulations were enacted and amended to develop the Nepalese education system in the present status. A brief account of the present education system is cited below:

1.2.2 Pre-primary Education

As per Education Regulation, 1992, pre-school education is given to 3 to 5+ years old children (Education Act, 1971 and Education Regulation, 1992). Its duration is 1 to 3 years. Generally private English medium pre-primary schools provide three years pre-school education in urban areas and district head quarters of rural areas (Mallik, et al. 1994). General mass can not afford it. However, the government has conducted Shishu Kaksha (pre-school class) of one year duration in 588 government primary schools of 40 districts during the eight plan, 1992-1997 (Ninth plan, 1997-2002). For last few years,
the concept of early childhood development has been initiated for the holistic development of the child.

1.2.3 Primary Education

Primary education refers to that education which is given from grade one to five. A child will be eligible to admit in grade one when he is 6 years old (Education Act, 1971 and Education Regulation, 1992). Six to ten years old children are considered as primary school age population. In 1998, there were 23885 primary schools for 2896576 primary school age group population. In the same year, the total net enrolment rate was 70.5%. This rate for boys and girls was 79.4% and 61.2% respectively (Educational Statistics of Nepal, 1998). Primary education in government schools is free and in selected districts it is made compulsory in an experimental basis (NEC, 1992 and Ninth plan, 1998).

1.2.4 Lower Secondary Education

Lower secondary education should be considered as that education which is given from grade 6 to 8. Eleven to thirteen years old boys and girls are the age group of this level. In 1998, there were 6617 lower secondary schools for 1,577,838 lower secondary age group population. In the same year, the total net enrolment rate in this level was 30.5%. This rate for boys and girls was 35.7% and 25.2% respectively (Educational Statistics, 1998). Lower secondary education in government schools is also free (HLNEC, 1998).

1.2.5 Secondary Education

Secondary education is provided in grades 9 and 10. School Leaving Certificate (SLC) examination i.e. Matriculation Examination is held after grade 10. While studying the results of regular SLC examination of last ten years, pass percentage is below 50%. In terms of subjects offered in the curriculum, there are two types of secondary schools: General and Sanskrit. In 1998, the total net enrolment rate in this level was 20.2%. This rate for boys and girls was 24.5 and 15.9% respectively (Educational Statistics, 1998).
Fourteen and fifteen years old boys and girls are the age group of this level. In 1998, there were 3624 secondary schools for 969740 secondary age group population. The secondary education in government schools is also free (HLNEC, 1998).

1.2.6 **Higher Secondary Education**

Higher secondary education is considered as an upward extension of school education which is given in grades 11 and 12. Higher Secondary Education Board was made responsible for conducting overall programme of higher secondary education whereas Ministry of education looks after the overall programme of pre-primary to secondary level (Ministry of Education, 1996). Higher Secondary Education in Nepal was started only from 1991/92. Actually, it is equivalent to two-year Intermediate level at universities. Though the structure of curriculum in this level of education is said to be single track, in practice there are four different areas of study such as Science, Commerce, Education, and Humanities and Social Sciences. Students should pay variety of fees in all types of higher secondary schools for higher secondary education. Moreover, there is a greater differentiation in fees in this level of education. Such a disparity has been appeared as a challenge to quality of education and social equity (HLNEC, 1998).

1.2.7 **Higher Education**

Higher education is being imparted in one education foundation, and constituent and affiliated campuses/colleges of five universities. As stated above, two-year proficiency certificate level/intermediate level equivalent to higher secondary education is still being conducted under university system. This programme is being phased out gradually from universities.

At present, universities conduct three-year Bachelor programme in the field of Education, Science, Management, and Humanities and Social Sciences for intermediate or higher secondary level pass students. In the field of law, the
duration of LL.B. is three years after graduation in any subject. In the field of Forestry, Agriculture, Engineering and Medicine, the duration of Bachelor's Degree is four years or more than four years (Bachelor's Course Catalogue, 1999 and Ministry of Education 1996).

In most of the disciplines, the duration of Master's Degree is two years and the duration of Ph.D. is three years. Students should have to pay exceedingly more tuition fees and other fees in privately run campuses and universities than in government-aided campuses or universities.

1.2.8 Technical Education and Vocational Training

There are both private and government technical schools and vocational training centres which are being run outside the formal education system under Council for Technical Education and Vocational Training. These institutions prepare technical human resources required for the country. A few years back, this type of education was free and even the students got stipend. Now, they should pay various fees in both private and government institutions.

1.2.9 Non-Formal Education

Non-formal education (NFE) in Nepal has been confined to child education and adult education. NFE aims at providing educational opportunities to the children of 8 to 14 years of age group who have missed the primary schools. The children who complete the NFE programme are encouraged to enter into regular primary schools (Ministry of Education, 1996). Similarly, under adult education, literacy and functionality are provided to the adults of 15-45 age group in order to build up their self-confidence and raise their standard of living (NFE Programme Directory, 1994). Moreover, the neo-literates are provided with additional learning opportunities in order to retain, apply and continue their literacy and functional skills through post-literacy and continuing education programmes. In these programmes, preference has been given to girls and women. The major goals of NFE programme are (Ministry of Education, 1996):
1. To ensure strong support for the 'Education for All" programme by the year 2000,

2. To generate social consciousness and awareness about democratic values,

3. To link adult education programmes with national development efforts geared towards improving the quality of life, and

4. To expand the NFE programme for unserved and under-served groups including the disadvantaged and the women so as to reduce the existing inequalities in the basic and primary education sector.

To achieve the aforementioned goals, child education, adult education and post literacy programmes are being conducted under National Non-formal Education Council and different international non-governmental organizations (Refer to sections 1.5,1.6, 1.7 of this Chapter for more details).

1.2.10 Literacy Status

Population census is the major medium of collecting the information of literacy status of the country. There has been gradual change in the definition of literacy from the population census of 1952-54. As per the latest population census of 1991, literate person is one who can read, write and understand in any language along with the knowledge of simple arithmetic calculation (Cited in Report of Population Status of Nepal, 1998). The literacy status by sex according to the population census of 1971, 1981 and 1991 is presented in Table 1.1.

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<th>TABLE 1.1</th>
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<td>Literacy Status of Nepal</td>
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<td>(6-year-old and above)</td>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>34.0</td>
<td>54.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>25.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>39.6</td>
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As shown in Table 1.1, between 1971 and 1981 the growth of literacy rate of age 6 and above was 67.62% and between 1981 and 1991 it was 69.96%. Between 1971 and 1991, the literacy rate increased by almost 2.85 times. While analyzing sex-wise, between 1971 and 1991 male literacy rate doubled whereas the female literacy rate increased by more than six times. It reveals that the growth of female literacy rate appeared considerably encouraging as compared to that of male. According to the census of 1991, the total literacy rate was 39.6% of which the male and female literacy rate were 54.5% and 25.0% respectively.

So far as the adult literacy rate of age 15 and over is concerned, it was 28% in 1995 (Human Development Report, 1998). It was one of the lowest adult literacy rate among developing countries.

At the end of Eight Plan 1992-1997, it was estimated that the literacy rate of 6 years of age and above reached 48%. However, it was targeted to raise literacy rate to 67% by 2000.

1.3 Concept of Adult Education

1.3.1 Concept of Adult

Defining the term 'adult' would be appropriate prior to expounding the concept of 'adult education'. There are, of course, many definitions of this term in current usage. The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language, 1992 defined the term 'adult' as "fully developed and mature; a fully grown, mature organism". Similarly, the Dictionary of Education, 1973 states: an adult is a person who has come into that stage of life in which he has assumed responsibility for himself and usually for others and who has concomitantly accepted a functionally productive role in his community (Good, 1973). Knowles (1980) presented a social definition and a psychological definition of 'adult':

Socially, a person is adult to the extent that that individual is performing social roles typically assigned by our culture to those it considers to be adults- the role of workers, spouse, parent, responsible citizens, soldier, and the like. Psychologically, a person is adult to the extent that that individual perceives herself or himself to be essentially responsible for her or his own life.
Darkenwald and Merriam (1982) as cited by Husen and Postlethwaite (1994) choose to define an adult not in biological, psychological, or legal term but as a person whose major roles are characteristic of adult status. Again, according to the International Encyclopedia of Education, Volume 7, the term "adult" normally refers to a person who has reached a degree of physical and emotional maturity (Husen and Postlethwaite, 1994).

As regards the characteristics of an adult, Shirur (1977) states:

Adults, unlike children and adolescents, are themselves rich learning resources for having undergone a series of physical, emotional, social, intellectual, psychological, civic, political and economic developmental processes through performance of a variety of roles assumed with varied expectations and responsibilities.

1.3.2 Concept of Adult Education

Knowles (1980) describes adult education as a process— the process of adults learning. In this sense, it encompasses practically all experiences of mature men and women by which they acquire new knowledge, understanding, skills, attitudes, interests or values. Likewise, the Dictionary of Education, 1973 defined adult education as any process by which men and women, either alone or in groups, try to improve themselves by increasing their knowledge, skills, or attitudes, or the process by which individuals or agencies try to improve men and women in those ways (Good, 1973). However, Shirur (1997) considered adult education as a human science which is concerned with the ways and means of exploring, investigating, experimenting, acquiring and using knowledge that adults essentially require for a fruitful everyday life. She defined adult education as a voluntary learning activity and hence it has to be made personalized and significant to adult learners. Broadly speaking, the term "adult education" is understood to refer to both a process and a supporting arrangements, which call attention to specific features, such as the voluntariness of learning, the commitment to personal growth and development, and the deliberate structuring of learning activities (Titmus, et al., 1979; Jarvis, 1990 as cited by Husen and Postlethwaite, 1994).
Darkenwald and Merriam (1982) presented the following definition: "Adult education is a process whereby persons whose major social roles are characteristic of adult status undertake systematic and sustained learning activities for the purpose of bringing about changes in knowledge, attitudes, values or skills." The function of adult education in a democracy is to provide every adult citizen with an opportunity for education of the type which he should have for his personal enrichment, professional advancement and effective participants in social and political life (Mohanty, 1995).

A widely accepted definition of adult education appears in the "Recommendation on the Development of Adult Education" (UNESCO, 1976), which was adopted by the General Conference at its nineteenth session in Nairobi on November 26, 1976. It calls attention to the role of adult education in a context of lifelong education and learning. It is reproduced below:

... the term "adult education" denotes the entire body of organized educational processes. Whatever the content, level and method, whether formal or otherwise, whether they prolong or replace initial education in schools, colleges and universities as well as in apprenticeship, whereby persons regarded as adults by the society to which they belong develop their abilities, enrich their knowledge, improve their technical or professional qualifications or turn them in a new direction and bring about changes in their attitudes or behaviour in the twofold perspective of full personal development and participation in balanced and independent social, economic and cultural development; adult education, however, must not be considered as an entity in itself, it is a sub-division, and an integral part of a global scheme for life-long education and learning; the term "life-long education and learning," for its parts, denotes an overall scheme aimed both at restructuring the existing education system and at developing the entire educational potential outside the education system.

1.3.3 Concept of Adult Basic Education

According to The Dictionary of Education, adult basic education is an instructional programme for the undereducated adult planned around those basic and specific skills most needed to help him function more adequately as a member of society (Good, 1973). Similarly, as defined by International Dictionary of Education, adult basic education refers to instruction of adults in elementary education, social skills, and community responsibility (Page, Thomas and Marshall, 1977). Specifically, "Adult basic education" may be broadly defined as involving reading, writing, and mathematical skills.
necessary for adults to be literate (Husen and Postlethwaite, volume 1, 1994). Thus, a functional definition of literacy is more appropriate for adult basic education. "Functional literacy" is defined in terms of the skills that all adults need rather than as a grade-level reading equivalent that is used to assess the literacy levels of school-aged children (Husen and Postlethwaite, volume 1, 1994). As defined by UNESCO (cited in CERID 1982c) a person is said to be literate when he has learnt to read, write and do the counting and can profitably use these skills in his day-to-day activities that will lead to the progress and welfare of the person as well as of the community he lives in.

Having studied the aforementioned definitions, it is known that the major purpose of adult basic education is to provide people with literacy and basic social skills to function more adequately as a useful member of society.

Coombs, et al. (1973) inter alia included adolescent and adult literacy classes under non-formal education. They defined non-formal education as any organized educational activity outside the established formal system—whether operating separately or as an important feature of some broader activity—that is intended to serve identifiable learning clienteles and learning objectives. Coombs and Ahmed (1974) in their cursory survey of rural non-formal education, found comparatively fewer programmes concerned with general or basic education. The most notable exceptions were adult literacy programmes, which existed in one form or another in most developing nations.

Chandra and Shah (1989) state that the contents of non-formal education will have to be relevant to the clientele. The non-formal education, by and large, at present is meant for those who are illiterate and hence missed the opportunity to learn in their earlier years. So, the areas of non-formal learning can be literacy, self-development, health, nutrition, sanitation, population, self-employment and its other vocational skills. In some developing countries, the term adult education signifies adult basic education. For example,

The national objectives of adult education of Nigeria (as cited by Kundu, 1984) are as follows:
(a) To provide functional literacy education for adults who have never had the advantage of any formal education;

(b) To provide functional remedial education for those young people who prematurely dropped out of the formal school system; and

(c) To provide further education for different categories of completers of the formal education system in order to improve their basic knowledge and skills.

Similarly, National Adult Education Programme (NAEP) which was launched in India in October, 1978 emphasized the following objectives (Mohanty, 1995):

(a) Imparting literacy skills to persons belonging to the economically and socially deprived sections of the society;

(b) Creating an awareness in helping them overcome their helplessness and to achieve self-reliance; and

(c) Raising their functional capabilities in their occupations and skills of management to their occupations and skills of management to their own advantage as a group.

Mohanty (1995) presented one of the operational assumptions of adult education. He states that the components of literacy, awareness and functionality constituting adult education are expected to be integral to each other.

Similarly, with a view to imparting functional literacy to 80 million illiterate in the age group of 15-35 years by 1990 and additional 50 million by 1995, National Literacy Mission (NLM) was launched in India. According to NLM, the functional literacy implies (Saxena, 1989):

(a) Achieving self-reliance in literacy and numeracy;

(b) Generating awareness about the causes of deprivation;

(c) Acquiring skills to improve the economic status and general well being; and

(d) Imbibing the values of national integration, conservation of environment, women's equality and observance of small family norms.
Chandrashekhar (1982) supporting the view of Coombs, et al. (1973) stated that the National Adult Education Programme (NAEP) organized and implemented by the Government of India came under the purview of non-formal education programme. In continuation to this, Thakur (1993) states: The new system - known as Non-formal Adult Education - is an out of school educational programme which exposes its participants to a process of continuous life long learning and makes them functionally capable of solving their problems.

Rath (1994) drew the following operational definition of adult education for his Ph.D. study. Adult education has been conceived as an organized activity of learning thereby the adults acquire the skills of reading, writing and numeracy as well as develop awareness in the areas of environmental protection, health care and family planning, social, economic, scientific, cultural and legal aspects.

1.4 Concept of Adult Education in the Nepalese Context

In Nepal, the adult education commenced with the establishment of Basic Teacher Training centre and Basic Schools in 1947. At that time a provision was made to open adult education centre under the supervision of every Basic School for eradicating adult illiteracy (Sharma, 1987). Hence, the purpose of adult education was to make adults literate. The next most important event in the field of adult education was the recommendation of Nepal National Education Planning Commission (NNEPC), 1956. The commission recommended the early development of an extensive adult education programme with immediate emphasis on adult literacy (NNEPC, 1956). The report of NNEPC, 1956 states:

As literacy spreads, adults can be taught through pamphlets, bulletins, newspapers, and magazines. The preparation and publication of these in the field of agriculture and home economics is a major avenue of adult education.

However, from 1956 to 1978 the major concern of adult education was adult literacy. In 1978, an experimental project on Integrated Non-formal Education Programme for Rural Development was conducted. Since then the term non-formal adult education, adult literacy, adult education and functional
adult education are used synonymously (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1991 and Ministry of Education, 1997). In the Nepalese context CERID (1982c) states:

In precise terms, functional adult education is not limited to reading, writing and numeracy only. It lays equal stress on the importance of helping the learners tackle their day-to-day problems of health, personal hygiene, agriculture, community life and so on. Hence, functional adult education can be considered as a programme that aims at providing occupational and other life oriented problem-solving skills besides giving a knowledge of there R's.

At present, as per the Education Regulation, 1992 the following programmes can be conducted under Non-formal Education (NFE):

* Adult Education
* Child Education
* Post-literacy Programmes

National Non-formal Education Council (NNEC), at present, is made responsible for policy formulation, co-ordination, supervision and management of NFE. As defined by NNEC, adult education programme is that programme which is conducted to make illiterate youths and adults of 15 to 45 years of age literate and to raise their awareness (NFE Programme Directory, 1994). In 1997 NNEC published NFE curriculum in which the concept of adult education programme appeared rather comprehensive. It states:

The basic level non-formal adult education is that education which helps illiterate youths and adults of 15 to 45 years of age to raise their living standard by enabling them to read, understand and write letters and applications, and compute practical arithmetic and developing necessary knowledge, skills and attitude to solve their basic problems (NFE curriculum, 1997).

The aforementioned concept of adult education is accepted in this study because it is designed exclusively to assess the effectiveness of the same AEP of NNEC. This concept of adult education indicates that it falls under non-formal education (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1991 and Ministry of Education, 1997). Therefore, it calls attention to the distinction between formal, non-formal, and informal education (Coombs, et al., 1973). Whereas formal education refers to any organized and systematic education provided by schools and other educational institutions, non-formal education is defined as any organized and systematic educational activity that is carried on outside the formal system. In contrast, informal education refers to a lifelong process
whereby an individual acquires values, attitudes, skills, and knowledge from experience; from learning resources in his or her environment; and through independent, self-directed learning.

1.5 Development of Adult Education in Nepal

Adult education is as old as the human civilization itself (Pati, 1996 and Markanda, 1996). It has passed through different stages to reach in the present status. In Nepal too, adult education has its own history. The chronicles of adult education in Nepal have been expounded under the following headings:

1. Adult Education in Pre-democratic Period
2. Planned Beginnings of Adult Education
3. Gradual Progress of Adult Education
4. Innovative Experiments in Adult Education
5. NGO and INGO Involvement in Adult Education

1.5.1 Adult Education in Pre-democratic Period (Before 1951 A.D.)

Prior to the establishment of a replica of the British school called Durbar School in 1854 (Wood, 1965), there was no so-called formal education in Nepal. It does not mean that there was no organized education system. In those days, organized education system called Vedic education was in practice which was akin to that prevalent in India. After that Buddhist education came into existence.

Devkul, Rajkul, Pitrikul, and Gurukul come under Vedic education (Sharma, 1987). Devkul was related to the schools for teaching the particular prayers and rituals connected with the worship of specific gods. The Rajkul was related to schools of politics. Similarly, Pitrikul was the school for teaching the history of the country which handed down the tradition from generation to generation (Wood, 1958). In Gurukul, the pupils after Upanayan being holy, giving up violence, untrue and anger, and following Brahmacharya should have studied being attached with the Guru-the teacher (Sharma, 1987). In Vedic education even females were not deprived of education. They being
Brahmacharini should have studied the veda. After that, they should have spent their life as Brahmabaddini. Gargi, and Maitraya were those learned women (Sharma, 1987).

There was a greater opportunity of education for adults in Buddhist education which took place specially in Bihar. It was a permanent residence where Lord Buddha's teachings were imparted to disciples and where worshipping and learning Buddhist education took place. The earliest Buddhistic Bihars were better organized than the sister Brahmanic Institutions dedicated to the forms and rituals of worship of the many Divinities (Wood, 1958). While imparting Buddhist education first of all monks specially those male and female adults who came there by abandoning their family life were made literate in the language which was used as script of the Buddhist epics. In Bihar, the adult monks were taught to read, write and compute simple arithmetic as well as contents useful to their daily life as in the present functional adult education programme specially focusing on Buddhist education (Sharma, 1987 and Malla, et al., 1999).

However, Vedic education and Buddhist education were accessible to very few people. On the other hand, from 1846 to 1951 A.D. Nepal had been under the cruel iron first of Rana Prime Ministers who had seized all the power from the king and adopted the policy of not penetrating the light of education in Nepal (Wood, 1958 and Mainali, 1979). Members of royal family were both hostages and prisoners of the palace grounds. Formal education was denied, not only to them but to all the people throughout the country except the favoured Ranas (Wood, 1958). The following excerpts portray the vivid picture of literacy in this period (Singh, 1986):

The state of literacy in Nepal before 1951 is tersely summed up in an anecdote which says that a Rana Prime Minister once visited the Britannic court where many rulers of the then Empire were assembled. It is said that they talked among themselves about the best way to subjugate their people and the Rana Prime Minister is alleged to have boasted of himself by saying that he did so by seeing to it that his people remained illiterate and ignorant.

Chronologically, adult education as such was found to have started for the first time in limited number in 1947 after the establishment of Basic
Teacher Training Centre and Basic Schools (Gandhian education). This fact was reflected in the proclamation of Rana Prime Minister Mohan Shamsher made in May, 1947 which stated that arrangement had been made to open Adult Education Centre under the supervision of every basic school in order to eradicate adult illiteracy (Sharma, 1987). It was found that at that time adults were made literate in three ways. First, it was made compulsory that each teacher trainee of Basic Teacher Training Centre should make 15 adults literate during 10 weeks practice teaching (Singh, 1998a). Second, every student studying higher basic education classes – 6, 7 and 8 should have made at least 12 adults literate in six months time to help governmental literacy campaign. Furthermore, each student was conferred the certificate of higher basic education upon the submission of certificate stating that he/she had made at least 12 adult literate (Sharma, 1987). Third, the teacher of basic school could open upto five adult literacy centres and appoint local literate persons as the teachers of those centres. Those teachers used to teach illiterate adults three months in pre-literacy class and the next three months in post-literacy class (Sharma, 1987). But how many adults were made literate and what types of materials were used were not known. Later, the Basic Teacher Training was discontinued in 1953 and the Basic Schools were turned into general schools in 1954.

1.5.2 Planned Beginnings of Adult Education (From 1951 A.D. to 1956 A.D.)

In 1951, literacy in Nepal was estimated to be about two percent of the total population (Wood, 1965 and Aryal, 1970). After the political upheaval of 1951 which overthrew Rana oligarchy, people became enthusiastic to promote adult education. But the following excerpt from the report of Nepal National Education Planning Commission (NNEPC, 1956) indicates that the movement could not catch the right track around early 1950's:

There are at present some so-called adult schools in our country which were started after the political upheaval, but inspite of the earnestness of their purpose and sincere humanitarian spirit, they do not visualize the practical difficulties in adult literacy, and adult education is organized on the same basis as childhood education and the same textbooks prevail in the adult schools as in primary schools.
Suffice it to state that there was sheer lack of experienced and trained adult educators, instructional and physical facilities. The work had been generally carried on in such a disorganized manner that despite the enthusiasm of the literacy workers little has been accomplished. Therefore, for the implementation of the adult literacy programme in different parts of the country, the development of materials and effective methods of teaching for the illiterate adults to read and write the national language was the most important aspect. For this purpose, in 1953, the Ministry of Education, in cooperation with the United States Operations Mission, invited Dr. Frank Lauback of the World Literacy Foundation to Nepal to work with a team of three educationists and two artists employed by the Government for six-month (NNEPC, 1956). In a short time, the team prepared a primer, and a second reader in four parts (Buddhiman Manohar Series I-IV) and a set of five charts. The primer contains thirteen lessons and the second reader about twenty-five lessons each. The charts contain the alphabets in illustrated form. In addition, some work was done on the third and fourth series of readers. Later, these materials were printed and made ready for use. Besides these, an educator was trained to use the materials and also to teach illiterate adults (Tuladhar, 1959).

In 1953, a National Education Planning Commission was appointed to study the educational scene in Nepal and make recommendations for the development of a national education scheme. The commission submitted its report on March 1, 1955. The commission, inter alia, recommended the early development of an extensive adult education programme with immediate emphasis on adult literacy. Besides, during the commission's work a Teachers Training Centre was established on September 4, 1954 according to an agreement between His Majesty's Government and United States Operations Mission. In this centre, teachers were trained for primary schools. The training for primary school teachers also included methods of teaching adults. Those teachers were expected to open literacy classes in the places where they would work as primary school teachers. In spite of the training of teachers in the adult literacy programme in the Teacher Training Centre, and the materials being
ready for use, the programme did not develop rapidly until there was trained leadership (NNEPC, 1956).

On September 9, 1956, College of Education was established. The Teachers Training Centre was upgraded to Normal School level and made it a part of College of Education. It was late in 1956 a separate Bureau of Adult Education was established as one of the divisions of the newly established College of Education. The organization structure of this division is depicted below:

![Organization Structure of Bureau of Adult Education](image)

**FIGURE 1.1**

Organization Structure of Bureau of Adult Education


Since the formation of Bureau of Adult Education, the programme had been operated on a permanent basis in a full-scale manner (Tuladhar, 1959). The Bureau of Adult Education provided formal organization for the work being done in adult literacy and that was contemplated in social education. All village development workers and primary school teachers trained at the Normal Schools had received instruction in teaching adult classes (NNEPC, 1956).

The first three month adult literacy classes were started in Kathmandu Valley, with others to follow immediately throughout the country in November, 1956. The number of classes were 21. However, a provision had been made for financing 600 classes in this year (NNEPC, 1956).
1.5.3 Gradual Progress of Adult Education (From 1956 to 1976)

Adult education gained momentum with the implementation of adult literacy classes under the Bureau of Adult Education, College of Education in 1956. Since then adult education was conducted each year and was started to include in national development plan (Draft Five-year Plan, 1956). The gradual progress made from 1956/57 to 1976/77 is explained under the following headings:

1.5.3.1 Radio Education Programme

The Bureau of Adult Education, College of Education started a radio education programme on July 2, 1958. The main objective of this programme was to supplement the adult literacy campaign and provide such knowledge to the illiterate adults which would help them in the possible solution of their day-to-day problem, in a manner both concrete and interesting (Sharma, 1958).

1.5.3.2 Adult Education During the First Five Year Plan, 1956-1961

It was found that the adult education programme under College of Education was started at the beginning of the first five year plan. In the document of the first plan (Draft Five-year Plan, 1956) it was mentioned that adult education had its groundwork established in that each new teacher was prepared to organize and teach adult literacy classes. It was found to have mentioned in the second plan that during the first plan it targeted to turn 1,00,000 illiterates into literate (Three-year Plan, 1962-1965).

During 1956-1961, the target set and progress made in adult education are cited in Table 1.2.
As shown in Table 1.2, during 1956 to 1961, 3068 adult education centres were targeted to be opened. Actually, 1878 centres were opened and from these centres 46950 people were made literate. It shows that achievement in the field of adult education was not satisfactory because only 46.95% of the target in terms of literate people was found to have achieved.

1.5.3.3 Social Education Proposed by All Round National Education Committee, 1961 (ARNEC)

Since 1956, people were made literate each year. At the beginning, the duration of adult education was three months (NNEPC, 1956) and later it was made six months (ARNEC, 1961). However, there was no scheme for neo-literates to let them retain their literacy level. Consequently, there was a greater possibility that they would relapse/fall into illiteracy without using the acquired literacy. Therefore, in order to retain literacy gained by the adults and to make them useful citizen of the society, the ARNEC recommended to implement training of social education for which it presented the following suggestions:

1. To establish one village library in each of the 75 districts of the country and to provide books and booklets suitable to neo-literates and semi-literates.
2. To provide a radio set to each library and to appoint a social education coordinator to convey the information given by radio and new knowledge to the adults who come there.

3. To make provision of Movie Van in all areas to show film on various subjects.

4. To promote place-specific entertainment and cultural activities e.g. Bhajan, Kirtan, Dance, Comics where adults gather and from where the foundation of social education can be erected. Besides, the provision of some sort of rewards are to be made to promote local arts and crafts.

5. Upon the acquisition of literacy, social education begins. For this, posters, leaflets, pamphlets etc. are to be distributed to attract adults towards social education.

6. To propagate social education, college students should be sent to each zone and block in summer or winter vacation. Prior to their departure, they should be well trained.

7. Materials and books useful to adults are to be printed and distributed through material production centre.

8. Departmental personnel should visit all adult education centres and social education centres for inspection.

9. To provide certificates to those who got training in adult education and social education.

10. To appoint social education organizer in each district, ARNEC proposed a tentative budget estimate for the first year.

11. Special instruction system is necessary for disables e.g. blinds, deafs, dumps etc. in social education programme.
1.5.3.4 Adult Education in The Second Plan, 1962-1965

This three-year plan specified the aim of adult education programme in a rather improved version. It is as follows:

The major aim of adult education programme is to utilize illiterate adults for the all-round development of the country and society by making their life joyful and healthy and by providing them with information related to day-to-day problems likely to occur in the field of agriculture, health and sanitation etc.

This plan, therefore, emphasized to conduct adult education programme in a more well organized way. It targeted to open 4050 classes during plan period. Through these classes the target was to impart education to 1,00,000 adults.

Specifically, the duration of adult education programme was made nine months by adding 3 months in the prevailing six-month adult education programme. In order to retain the literacy of neo-literates, education would be imparted to them in a practical way by developing simple curriculum including agriculture, industry, livestock, health etc.

With regard to adult teachers, this plan viewed that the programme could be run smoothly and efficiently if it was run by trained adult teachers. Considering this view, the plan made a target to provide in-service training to 2000 rural teachers. Similarly, a provision was made to appoint an adult education supervisor in each of 75 development districts for effective conduct and supervision of adult education programme.

The progress made in this field during the three-year plan period is depicted in Table 1.3.
TABLE 1.3
Progress in the Second Plan Period

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fiscal Year</th>
<th>No. of classes opened</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>No. of literates</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>No. of trained teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1962/1963</td>
<td>676</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td>16900</td>
<td>150</td>
<td></td>
<td>17050</td>
<td>682</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963/1964</td>
<td>1046</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td>26150</td>
<td>350</td>
<td></td>
<td>26500</td>
<td>1060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1964/1965</td>
<td>890</td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
<td>22250</td>
<td>550</td>
<td></td>
<td>22800</td>
<td>912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2612</td>
<td>42</td>
<td></td>
<td>65300</td>
<td>1050</td>
<td></td>
<td>66350</td>
<td>2654</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


As shown in Table 1.3, the achievement of adult education is far below the target in terms of both number of classes and literates. Again, there was a greater disparity between male and female beneficiaries of adult education programme. However, the turnover of trained teachers exceeded the targeted number.

1.5.3.5 Adult Education in Third Plan, 1965-1970

During the third plan, 1,00,000 adults were expected to become literate, and the literacy rate was expected to reach 11.8 percent. The programme had also received active support from various class organizations (Fourth Plan, 1970-75). Besides, the provision was made to carry out frequent evaluation and to make frequent contact with neo-literates to let them not to forget the acquired knowledge and skills (Third Plan, 1965-1970). Below is the resume of progress made in this field during the third plan.

The yearly progress made in the field of adult education during the third plan is presented in Table 1.4.
TABLE 1.4
Yearly Progress in Adult Education
From 1965/66-1969/70

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Programmes</th>
<th>Progress in Third Plan Period</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adult education classes opened</td>
<td>633</td>
<td>691</td>
<td>757</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult education centres opened</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adults made literate</td>
<td>13580</td>
<td>16060</td>
<td>16340</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult education teachers trained</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>467</td>
<td>431</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


* Including 1200 adults in the third year, 1200 adults in the fourth years and 1500 adults in the fifth year made literate from 37 adult education centres.

As shown in Table 1.4, it was found that adult education was conducted in two ways - the first through adult education classes (temporary) and the second through adult education centres which lasted for several years. During the third plan, 91180 adults (which included 3900 adults to be made literate from 37 adult education centres in three consecutive years) were made literate by opening 4914 adult education classes. To conduct these classes and centres 2594 adult education teachers were trained. Similarly, 41 libraries were established to retain the knowledge acquired by adults, radio programme was broadcast, 95550 adult education journals were distributed, 142500 textbooks were published and one documentary film was produced.

1.5.3.6 Adult Education During The Fourth Plan, 1970-1975

The Fourth Plan aimed at to raising the literacy rate to 15 percent. It was expected that primary education sector would also contribute to this increment. At the beginning of this plan, there were 37 permanent adult education centres in the country. During the Fourth Plan, these were further consolidated and it set target to open 38 additional centres.

Besides, a provision was made to start a special work-oriented adult education programme in Chitwan district with the assistance of UNESCO. On
the basis of its experience, such functional literacy programmes were to be expanded in other areas.

1.5.3.7 National Education System Plan, 1971-1976

Prior to the start of the Fourth Plan, a comprehensive plan was drawn up with a view to develop National System of Education in the country. National Education System Plan (NESP) is the landmark in the history of Nepalese education. It encompassed overall aspects of national education. Adult education has also got due importance. As stated in NESP, adult education would be conducted as (1) Literacy Expansion Programme, and (2) Functional Adult Education Programme.

**Literacy Expansion Programme:** The then village and town Panchayats, class organizations, and educational institutions were entrusted to conduct this programme in collaboration with other ministries, departments, institutions, factories and agencies involved in development works. The major objective of this programme was to impart knowledge, skills and information to the adults, which is helpful to their daily life. In those days, various ministries, for example, Agriculture Extension Programme under Agriculture Ministry, Health Education Programme under Ministry of Health etc. were being launched for adults in their own ways. That situation caused duplication of the same work. Thus, unified programme entitled Functional Adult Education would be conducted thereby integrating the efforts and programmes of technical ministries to provide education and information to adults. For this, a committee comprising the representatives of different ministries would be formed and this programme would be launched through only one agency. It was also mentioned in the plan that adults would be provided with knowledge, skills under adult education in the areas where other development programmes would be conducted so as to make it success (NESP, 1971).

As mentioned in NESP, a target was set to make 1,00,000 people literate per year. Therefore, upon the completion of NESP, altogether 5,00,000
people were to be made literate. However, during the plan period 3,44,879 people i.e. 69% of the target were made literate. Table 1.5 shows the number of classes opened, number of literate people and expenditure incurred per year during the implementation of NESP.

**TABLE 1.5**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fiscal Years</th>
<th>Classes Opened</th>
<th>Number of Literates</th>
<th>Expenditure Incurred in Rs.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1971/1972</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>40,000</td>
<td>9,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972/1973</td>
<td>5298</td>
<td>62,433</td>
<td>10,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973/1974</td>
<td>4130</td>
<td>83,885</td>
<td>13,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974/1975</td>
<td>4020</td>
<td>80,394</td>
<td>13,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975/1976</td>
<td>3909</td>
<td>78,167</td>
<td>16,00,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>19357</strong></td>
<td><strong>3,44,879</strong></td>
<td><strong>61,00,000</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


**Functional Adult Education Programme:** As stated in NESP, the main objective of functional adult education was to impart such knowledge and skills to adults which could have positive impact on their daily life. Besides, it was mentioned in the report that a provision would be made to impart such skills which would help development work and which would be useful to society. Acquisition of such skills would enable them to become able citizens who can earn their livelihood.

Functional adult education programme was started in 1972/1973. In 1972/1973 and 1973/1974, 14 classes were opened and through which 324 adults were provided with literacy and skills related to agriculture. In 1974/1975, these programmes were conducted in 18 vocational secondary schools having agriculture subject of five districts. Three hundred sixty adults got benefit from it. In 1975/1976, it was targeted to provided 1000 adult farmers with knowledge and skills of agriculture by opening 50 functional adult education classes in 15 districts of four development regions of the country. Similarly, a target was set to impart knowledge and skills related to home science to 200 female adults in ten districts. However, 1093 adults of
both groups were benefited from those programmes. Table 1.6 shows the target and achievement regarding functional adult education programme.

**TABLE 1.6**

Functional Adult Education Programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fiscal Year</th>
<th>Target</th>
<th>Achievement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1972/1973</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973/1974</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974/1975</td>
<td>-*</td>
<td>360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975/1976</td>
<td>1200</td>
<td>1093</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


*Not available*

According to Tables 1.5 and 1.6, during NESP 3,44,879 adults were benefited from general adult education programme whereas only 1093 adults got benefit from functional adult education programme. Observing these phenomena, the following comments were made:

These programmes laid exclusive emphasis on increasing the percentage of adult literacy only and had little or no provision for the actual needs of the rural masses or, in other words, they had little or no bearing on the life and experience of the people who came to join the class. The village people did not find any tangible benefit from the literacy programme as such and, therefore, the level of motivation among the learners was so low that in many cases the participants either dropped out in the middle of the session or were irregular in class attendance (Dahal, 1979).

It has often been found that literacy with a smattering of practical skill appeals to the adults whose motivation for getting an education is influenced largely by hopes of immediate returns in terms of money, prestige or even the ability to read and write (Dahal, 1979).

1.5.3.8 Education for Rural Development – The Lahachok Project

In 1974, an innovative project on education for rural development was initiated at Lahachok Village under the aegis of the National Education Committee. Later it was conducted by CERID, Tribhuvan University. The
project focused on a need for linking education to rural development (Kasaju, 1983). It was a project which had a limited physical scope but it covered a large area with multiple input points. Functional adult education programme was one of the components of this project. This programme was offered to both male and female adults in separate groups. Information on the importance of cleanliness, personal hygiene, community health, home making, farming etc. constituted the nucleus of the adult education programme. This project made some initial thrusts in making people realise the importance of educating their womenfolk (Shrestha and Maskey, 1987).

1.5.3.9 Adult Education During The Fifth Plan, 1975-1980

It is mentioned in the fifth plan that the educational activities initiated under National Education System Plan would be consolidated during this plan period (Fifth Plan, 1975). This plan formulated a policy to conduct adult education programme more effectively. Given below is its brief account:

1. **Adult Literacy Programme**: The plan set a target to make 6,00,000 people literate during the plan period. This programme would be conducted successfully through educational institutions and the cooperation of Panchayat, class and professional organizations was also expected. Moreover, the students of Master Level participating in National Development Service would also be involved in literacy programme.

2. **Functional Adult Education Programme**: It is stated in the fifth plan that basically functional adult education is conducted in vocational secondary schools, it was to be conducted effectively by coordinating various extension units of the government.

   In general, during the fifth plan period, though the target was to make 6,00,000 people literate, only half of the target was achieved (Sixth Plan, 1980).
1.5.4 Innovative Experiments in Adult Education Programme, 1977-1986

Adult education programme was going on in Nepal in one form or another at least for two decades (i.e. from 1956-1976). However, delivery process, contents, appointment of teachers, supervision and evaluation system had not been effective (Mainali, 1979). In such a situation, two innovative projects related to adult education were conducted by Centre for Educational Research, Innovation and Development (CERID) almost simultaneously. In both projects, one notable feature was that these innovative projects were initiated following the policy decisions made by the National Education Committee and the Ministry of Education with clear-cut indications that there was a definite need for change in the then adult education programme. Thus, these two projects had the advantage of prior policy commitment for adoption. In adoption it illustrated a case of educational innovation in an entire totality of the adult education sector which attempted to deal with the major components such as the objectives, the content, materials, methods, personnel and evaluation (Kasaju, 1983). Below is the resume of these projects:

1.5.4.1 Functional Adult Education Programme

CERID had started this project in 1977 with a view to systematize the adult education programme and to make it more practical and effective. The focus of this innovative project was on developing a flexible adult education programme package which was geared to the actual needs of the adult learners and which was intended to bring about a notable change in their attitude, behaviour and skills.

Under this experimental project, uni-message programme and multi-message programme were developed. In uni-message programme, the knowledge and skills on any one of the functionality such as, agriculture or health was provided to the adult learners along with literacy. Under the multi-message programme, an integrated course comprising literacy, health, sanitation, family planning, agriculture etc. which were relevant to the development needs of the community was prepared (CERID, 1982c).
As an initial step, the experimental pilot project was conducted in two villages of Bhaktapur district. In one village, formal method was used for both uni-message and multi-message programme whereas non-formal method was used in the next village for both programmes.

Upon this experimentation, the project was extended to eight districts so as to include two districts from each of the four development regions of the country. As in the pilot project, formal method for both programmes was used in four districts and non-formal method in other four districts. However, it was observed that the formal method was not sharply discriminated from 'non-formal' and in many places, they cut across each other with the result that an atmosphere of informality got created in the classroom which helped the participants to absorb the messages conveyed to them on agriculture, health, family planning and other day-to-day need-based subjects and also to learn new promotional skills (CERID, 1982c). It was found that most of the adult learners were able to get benefit from multi-message and multi-centre programme. So far as the method is concerned it was suggested to follow liberal formal method (Mainali, 1979).

Considering the results of this experimental project Adult Education Section of Ministry of education started conducting this programme in a wider scale. In its second phase, this programme was conducted in 26 districts of the country.

1.5.4.2 Integrated Non-formal Education Programme for Rural Development.

Introduction: Integrated Non-formal Education Programme was a three-year pilot project which was conducted by CERID in 1997 on behalf of Ministry of Education with financial and technical assistance of World Education, New York. This programme was also started in 1977. The purpose of this project was to develop materials, methods and training techniques that could be utilized on an expanded basis by Ministry of Education in meeting the needs of rural adults who lack the information, the problem solving skills, and the self-confidence to realize their full potential. For its final year the pilot project was transferred to Adult Education Section, Ministry of Education where project
personnel continued to develop new materials (Walker, 1982). During this period, the project's literacy component was extensively revised and expanded.

The objectives of this programme were as follows (Lamichhane and Sob, 1979):

1. To raise awareness in rural people by developing and implementing skill-oriented educational programme on different aspects addressing the needs and problems of illiterate, ignorant and fatalist rural people.

2. To provide knowledge, skills and information to rural adults in the areas such as, health, sanitation, agriculture, family planning, nutrition, social awareness required for the social and economic development of rural life.

3. To keep on developing literacy considering the aforementioned aspects.

Mode of Programme Implementation: A complete six-month class cycle had been conducted in twenty village centres in four districts out of seventy five districts of the country. These districts include each of Nepal's four development regions and major geographical areas - Terai, Hill and Mountain (Lamichhane and Sob, 1979). The project was conducted and monitored for a two-year period by CERID and later, it was handed over to Ministry of Education for adoption and expansion (Kasaju, 1983).

Component of the Programme: Actually, the awareness and functionality were incorporated in the different lessons of literacy. The literacy approach is adopted the key word method developed by Paulo Freire in Brazil. In Freire's method, the elements of literacy are taught through a minimal core vocabulary of keywords (Walker, 1982). The present primer entitled "Naya Goreto" series was prepared based on the findings of this programme.

1.5.4.3 Education for Rural Development

Besides, aforementioned two innovative projects, the following two experimental projects were found to have conducted successfully.
Education for Rural Development in Seti Zone: In recognition of the promising features of the Lahachok project and the effectiveness it was able to demonstrate, the then Director General of UNESCO in 1978 showed considerable interest in the expansion of the idea. Consequently, His Majesty's Government embarked upon a larger project on "Education for Rural Development" which was conducted as a kind of extension or an improved form in the districts of Seti Zone in Western Nepal with financial assistance from UNDP (Kasaju, 1983). The project was started in 1981 and conducted for ten years. Regarding the project Shrestha and Maskey (1987) state:

This project, inter alia, implemented functional adult education programme as an action-oriented literacy programme. It is named action-oriented in the sense that 18 varieties of development activities were carried out under this programme such as, making of latrines, plantation of trees, vegetables and fruit trees etc. The curriculum consists entirely of such activities with each lesson printed in big letters on a sheet. Altogether there were 121 lessons of which 21 are for arithmetic and 18 for practical work.

The participants of adult education programme are required, as part of practical activities, to establish a Village Reading Centre. A committee was formed to run the centre, and the project office used to supply the supplementary readers prepared for children and adults, the subscription for a daily newspaper, pamphlets and booklets.

The principle of payment by result applied in adult education programme had also yielded better performance. The adult educators had to do 18 different development activities in order to get remuneration.

Non-formal Education and Rural Income Generation for Chepang Women and Youths: This project was initiated in 1984 and completed in 1987. CERID had undertook this three-year action research project in non-formal education and rural development among a selected target population of Chepangs, a tribal minority group in Nepal, with the assistance of Private Agencies Collaborating Together (PACT), USA.

As the name of the project implies that non-formal education programme was one of the integral parts of this programme. Basically, it is a functional adult education programme. This programme helped to raise the level of awareness of the target group in regard to the improved ways of agriculture, health, nutrition, sanitation, home management, personal cleanliness, environment protection, and other life-related aspects. With the operation of this programme, most of the participating adults and out-of-school
children have gained literacy skills and developed their perceptive power regarding their development problems (CERID, 1987 and Lamichhane, 1988).

1.5.4.4 Adult Education During The Sixth Plan, 1980-1985

The sixth plan, among other things, formulated a policy to give emphasis on non-formal adult education. It set the target of providing functional adult education along with general literacy to 9,00,000 adults. It was stated in the plan: This programme will be conducted based on the experiences of on-going experimental projects of non-formal education. It was further stated in the plan: During the plan period, necessary reading centres will be established. National Development Service, social organization, local units of Panchayat will be involved in this programme.

Considering the impracticality of the programme conduct only from central level, the plan set a target to establish regional adult education centres. However, it could not be materialized (Sixth Plan, 1980).

More importantly, instead of conducting different durations of the adult education, 6-month non-formal adult education was conducted under Ministry of Education.

While reviewing the achievement of adult education in sixth plan, it was stated in the seventh plan: During the sixth plan period, a target was set to provide adult education to 9,00,000 adults. Because of a great deduction in adult education budget from 1983/84 and other reasons it is estimated that only 2,76,710 could be provided with adult education. That is, 30.7% of the target was estimated to be achieved (Seventh Plan, 1985).

1.5.5 NGOs and INGOs Involvement in Adult Education, 1986 onwards

From 1986 there appeared a greater involvement of national and international NGOs in the field of non-formal adult education. The activities and programmes carried out in this regard are explained under the following headings:
1.5.5.1 Adult Education in The Seventh Plan, 1986-1990

This plan formulated a policy to augment the literacy rapidly through primary and adult education. Thus, priority was given to the establishment of functional adult education centres in different districts of the country with a view to turn illiterate adults into literates along with providing functional skills. As mentioned in the plan, population education and environmental education would be integrated in non-formal adult education.

During the plan period, 7,50,000 people were to be made literate under general literacy programme through local Panchayat. Similarly, 7,50,000 people were to be provided with functional adult education by establishing functional adult education centres in various districts of the country. Thus, altogether 15,00,000 adults were to be made literate.

During the seventh plan period, 1,30,450 adults on the part of government sector and 1,50,000 adults on the part of non-governmental sector were found to be made literate (Eighth Plan, 1992-1997). However, this achievement is extremely low as compared to its target.

During the seventh plan, NGOs and INGOs involvement in the field of non-formal adult education gained momentum. The details of NGOs and INGOs involvement in adult education are as follows:

In 1987, His Majesty's Government of Nepal implemented a Basic Needs Programme to fulfil the basic needs such as, food, shelter, cloth, health, education of people by 2000. This programme, among other things, included adult education programme as a basic need. In order to make adult education programme broader and effective, the following programme was formulated with the following principles (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1987):

1. Since the population of age group 15 to 34 is considered as more active and productive, the adults of this age group were included in this programme.
2. To provide non-formal functional adult education facility to 4,55,280 adults by 2000 from the Ministry of Education and Culture.

3. To promote Panchayat, class organizations, schools, and other governmental and non-governmental organizations to conduct non-formal adult education programme in their own expenses.

4. To provide technical assistance and text materials in actual cost through Ministry of Education and Culture.

5. To conduct literacy programme as a campaign in some district in an experimental basis to eradicate illiteracy.

In 1988 a decision was taken to launch the literacy programme in the form of campaign and a pilot project was set in motion in Surkhet (NEC, 1992). The main goal of national literacy campaign was to conduct mass literacy campaign for the out-of-school children, youths and adults not catered by formal education, and link literacy with functional skills and development programmes. The proposed strategies to achieve this goal included (New ERA, 1989):

1. Mobilization of national and international NGOs, the community and integrated development programmes in conducting a massive literacy campaign in their project areas;

2. Participation of the workers of Panchayat and class organization in mobilization of local community;

3. Establishment of a National Literacy Campaign Fund to mobilize national and international resources for the cause of literacy;

4. Increment in the proportion of education budget allocated to literacy programme.

5. Use of mass media for massive publicity of the literacy campaign; and

6. Encouragement of maximum participation on a voluntary service basis.

Before Basic Needs Programme took off, a political revolution broke out in the country. In 1989 the then partyless Panchayat system was overthrown and the multiparty democracy was reinstated. Consequently, the basic needs programme was discontinued. However, as a consequence of more liberal, open and transparent policy adopted by the new government and in consistence with the trend in South Asia, especially in India and Bangladesh,
the NGOs were "mushrooming". According to a report prepared by Centre for Economic and Technical Studies in April 1994, the number of NGOs registered with Social Welfare Council only increased from 259 in the wake of the political change of 1990 to 1100 during mid 1993. The total number of NGOs registered with Chief District Offices (CDO) was estimated to be around 7000. In the field of adult education, more than 240 NGOs were recorded as actively engaged (Shrestha, 1994).

1.5.5.2 Adult Education and INGOs

In fact, INGO involvement in adult education began with the financial and technical cooperation extended by World Education in the experimental project on "The Integrated Non-formal Education programme" followed by "Non-formal Education and Rural Income Generation" funded by PACT/USA.

A couple of dozens INGOs are working in the field of adult education in different ways. One of such ways is to provide grant assistance to governmental and non-governmental organizations. Another type of assistance is to collaborate with GOs or NGOs. In this category, apart from grant assistance, INGOs also work with GOs or NGOs in launching, implementing, monitoring and evaluating adult education programmes. Some well-known INGOs are listed below:

1. UNICEF 10. Plan International
2. World Education 11. New ERA
3. PACT, USA 12. JICA
5. Save the Children, UK 14. Lutheran World Federation
6. Save the Children, Japan 15. UNESCO
7. Redd Barna 16. OXFAM
8. Action Aid, Nepal 18. USC, Canada
9. CARE International

Source: (1) MOEC (1991), HMG/N, BPE Master Plan 1991 to 1997: 348
(2) CERID (1995) Profile of Non-formal Education Organizations
(3) CERID (1996a) Promotion of Girls' Education Through Recruitment and Training of Female Teachers in Nepal.
1.5.5.3 Adult Education and NGOs

As mentioned above, 240 national NGOs are actively involved in conducting adult education programme funded by GOs and INGOs. Of them, Nepal Red Cross Society and Family Planning Association of Nepal are the two large NGOs which have field offices in most of districts of the country. They have their own style of supervisory network. Besides, there are lots of national NGOs which work at grassroots level. In fact, national NGOs are not in a better position to conduct adult education programme in their own expenses.

Specially, NGOs should use the literacy primer prescribed by funding GO or INGO. In fact, a literacy primer called "Naya Goreto" series and its supplementary materials are being used by most of the GOs, NGOs and INGOs. However, some INGOs make programme bringing some modification in addition to the use of "Naya Goreto'. Some funding GOs and INGOs prescribe the primer "Mahila Shaksharata (Female Literacy)" as well which is exclusively used for female literacy classes.

1.5.5.4 Adult Education During The Eighth Plan, 1992-1997

It is stated in the eighth plan: Considering the national commitment to raise literacy rate to 67% by 2000, this plan will give emphasis to widen the development and expansion of basic and primary education. To achieve this end, involvement of local community, NGOs and private sector will be promoted and non-formal education will be conducted as a campaign. Along with literacy attempts will be made to raise awareness on health, environment, population, improved agriculture techniques etc.

In order to raise literacy rate to 60% at the end of this plan, 14,00,000 illiterates would be made literate under non-formal education programme. With a view to achieve this objective, literacy classes along with functional adult classes will be conducted in all the districts of the country.
During the eighth plan, 13,06,000 people were made literate. At the end of this plan, the literacy rate of the population 6 years and above was estimated to have reached 48 percent.

1.5.5.5 Adult Education in The National Education Commission, 1992

After the reinstatement of democracy in the country His Majesty's Government constituted the National Education Commission (NEC) on February 25, 1990. The report of this commission had also touched upon weaknesses of the then adult education programme and suggestions for its improvement. The following excerpt from the report is quite relevant to mention regarding growing NGOs and their concern with adult education programme.

The effectiveness of non-formal education has been adversely as there is no institutionalized process and agency to establish coordination among various governmental and non-governmental organizations in charge of it. Although there has been a good deal of debate on the role and significance of NGOs in non-formal education, no proper policies have been formulated, nor has any adequate endeavour been made to include them in the full range of national activities in this direction.

Considering the scenarios of non-formal education, the commission recommended to form a high-level National Non-formal Education Council comprising representatives of His Majesty's Government, non-governmental governmental organizations and non-formal education experts and to charge it with formulating policies and guidelines to make the non-formal education programme systematic, well organized and effective.

As per the recommendation of NEC, National Non-formal Education Council (NNEC) has already been formed. The details of NNEC are treated in the separate heading. (Refer to the section 1.6.)

1.5.5.6 Adult Education During the Ninth Plan, 1997-2002

It is stated in the ninth plan: "Because illiteracy stands as an obstacle to all round development of the nation, with a view to wipe out illiteracy a long term national goal is set to raise centpercent literacy at the end of the coming twelfth plan. To achieve this aim, a provision will be made to conduct literacy programme as a campaign. Therefore, in order to raise literacy rate of
population of 6 years and above to 70 percent, a target is set to make 32,16,000 illiterate adults and 7,84,000 out-of-school children literate at the end of this plan.

Moreover, NNEC will make a survey to collect a detailed information on national and international NGOs, social organizations, clubs conducting NFE, to make literacy mapping from district to village level and to get NGOs actively involved in literacy campaign at targeted areas. Besides, emphasis will be given to the extensive publicity for literacy campaign and functionality aspect in post-literacy programme.

1.5.5.7 Adult Education in the Report of High Level National Education Commission, 1998

As per the decision of His Majesty's Government, a High Level National Education Commission (HLNEC) was constituted in May 1997 to submit a report by formulating timely policies for preparing competent manpower for twenty first century based on the review and analysis of the existing education system (HLNEC, 1998). The commission submitted its report in June, 1998. HLNEC, inter alia, has included non-formal education (NFE) as its major component. The report, prior to highlighting the major problems and issues, and suggestions in this regard stated the three types of achievements emerged from the on-going literacy campaign, functional literacy programme, and post-literacy education: first, an individual felt the sense of empowerment, second, he took the pride of being literate, and third, he took much concern on the education of his wards. Then, the commission identified the following problems and issues in this field: lack of interest at the local level, lack of commitment, irregularity of the daily attendance of the participants and dropouts, lack of post-literacy and continuing education, neglectful in resource mobilization, NFE being confined to literacy and post literacy programmes, lack of appropriate mapping, irrelevant curriculum and text materials, lack of coordination and progress not in consonance with the target.
In order to run NFE programmes more effectively, the commission presented the following suggestions: organizational reforms, determination of priority areas, reform in technical aspects, emphasis on literacy campaign, reform in financial management, and making broader view of NFE. At present, attempts are being made to implement the suggestions of the commission.

1.6 The Existing Governmental Adult Education Programmes in Nepal

As recommended by the National Education Commission (NEC, 1992) and as per Education Regulations (1992), National Non-formal Education Council (NNEC) was formed under the chairmanship of Minister of Education comprising the representatives of governmental and non-governmental organizations. NNEC was charged with formulating polices and guidelines to make the NFE programme systematic, well organized and effective. As specified in Education Regulations, 1992 NNEC conducts three types of NFE programmes viz. Adult Education Programme (AEP), Child Education Programme and Post-literacy Programme (NFE Programme Directory, 1994). According to NFE curriculum (1997), AEP is called Basic Level Non-formal Adult Education. Moreover, a curriculum of medium level AEP for those who complete basic level AEP and a curriculum of self-learning AEP for those who complete the medium level AEP have also been developed. However, the curricula of medium and self-learning levels are yet to be implemented.

Apart from NFE programmes of NNEC, the NFE unit of Basic and Primary Education Project (BPEP) under Ministry of Education (MOE) used to conduct various NFE programmes such as Child Education called Shiksha Sadan, Women Education (WE) I, II and III for women of 15 to 45 years, Adult Education Programme (AEP) for both men and women of 15 to 45 years, and programmes for neo-literates. In 1998, this NFE unit of BPEP was merged into NNEC. Thus, NNEC was also made responsible to conduct NFE programmes previously being run by BPEP. Of the NFE programmes, the details of AEP and a brief account of WE I are given below:
1.6.1 Adult Education Programme (AEP)

1.6.1.1 Introduction

The programme which is conducted to make illiterate youths and adults literate and to raise their awareness is called adult education programme. The target group of this programme is youths and adults of 15 to 45 years. Its duration is six months. The major purposes of this programme are to enable the participants to read and write, and to compute simple arithmetic along with imparting functional knowledge and skills to them (NFE Programme Directory, 1994). For last three years this AEP has been conducted in all 75 districts of the country. Since 1997 this AEP has been conducted as a literacy campaign in selected districts (Saksharta Samachar, Volume 5, 1998 and HLNEC, 1998).

While implementing AEP, the uniform procedures are followed each year. The proceeding paragraphs deal with implementation of AEP through various agencies and committees, the selection of participants, the selection and training of facilitators and supervisors, the provision of instructional materials, in-class activities, and evaluation and certification.

1.6.1.2 Implementing Agencies and Committees

A nation-wide network has already been developed to implement AEP of NNEC at the target groups. With a view to implement AEP, secretariat of NNEC was established, several committees were formed at different levels, and sections/sub-sections were created at regional and district level agencies of MOE. A brief account of such agencies and committees are cited below:

**NFE Implementation Committee and Secretariat of NNEC:** There is a six-member implementation committee at the national level to implement the policies and programmes formulated by NNEC under the chairmanship of Education Secretary. The secretariat Chief of NNEC is the member secretary of this committee. The secretariat of NNEC executes the functions of NNEC through the regional and district level agencies of MOE. NNEC, inter alia, determines the quota of AE class/centres for all the 75 districts based on the
annual development programme of National Planning Commission and allots budget accordingly (Shaksharta Samachar, 1998). Then, it dispatches the programme along with budget to respective districts.

**NFE Section at Regional Education Directorate:** According to the existing organization structure of MOE, a NFE section of Regional Education Directorate provides training to the trainers and performs the works related to monitoring and evaluation of district level AEP along with other NFE activities.

**District NFE Development Committee:** As per Education Regulation (1992), a ten-member District NFE Development Committee (DNFEDC) has been formed at the district level comprising the representatives of governmental and non-governmental organizations. As directed by NNEC, this committee plans, conducts, supervises, co-ordinates and manages NFE programmes. The District Education Officer is the ex-officio member secretary of this committee having not more than five members. The major function of this committee is to implement the decisions of DNFEDC and to provide technical support.

**NFE Section/Sub-section at District Education Office:** According to the existing organization structure of MOE, there is a NFE section in 'A' class District Education Office (Districts with 300 or more than 300 schools) and a NFE sub-section in 'B' class District Education Office (Districts with less than 300 schools) for the implementation of AEP at district level (BPEP, 1996). A co-ordinator is also appointed to implement the AEP along with other NFE activities. The NFE section/sub-section works as the secretariat of DNFEDC. As a matter of fact these sections/sub-sections play crucial role for effective implementation of AEP. These sections distribute quotas of AE classes to Village Development Committees and local NGOs with due consideration given to their demand. Similarly, they appoint facilitators and local supervisors, and make necessary arrangements for their training. The supervision of AE classes is carried out through local supervisors. Besides, it
has been observed that the school supervisors are also made responsible to look after the AE classes in their respective supervision areas.

Municipality/Village Literacy Campaign Committee: There will be seven-member Municipality/Village Literacy Campaign Committee under the chairmanship of Mayor/VDC chairman to implement AEP and other NFE programmes in their respective areas.

Ward Literacy Campaign Committee: There will be a provision of five-member Ward/Sector Literacy Campaign Committee under the chairmanship of the member of respective wards to get NFE programme conducted in a regular and well-organized way.

Class Management Committee: Ward Literacy Campaign Committee can appoint Class Management Committee as required under the chairmanship of the ward member or a person recommended by him to conduct the AE classes smoothly.

1.6.1.3 Selection of the Participants

The learners who attend the adult education class are called the participants. Each class has to have 25-30 participants of 15 to 45 years. Generally, two types of participants are selected for AE classes. These are:

- The youths and adults who never had opportunity to get primary education
- The youths and adults who dropped out of the school without acquiring literacy skills (NFE Curriculum, 1997).

1.6.1.4 Selection and Training of Facilitators

The individuals who teach at AE classes are called the facilitators. District Education Office appoints at least, tenth grade pass individuals and if such individuals are not available eighth pass individuals are appointed as facilitators according to the predetermined criteria. The duration of training for
facilitators is to be 12 days. In the training, emphasis is to be given on the use of the primer and supplementary materials, and the methods of teaching adults.

1.6.1.5 Selection and Training of Local Supervisors

District Education Office appoints Proficiency Certificate Level (Intermediate Level) pass individuals. If such individuals are not available SLC pass individuals as local supervisors are appointed according to predetermined criteria. There is to be one supervisor per 10 to 15 AE classes. The local supervisors are expected to supervise the AE classes and to provide necessary suggestions. The selected local supervisors are given five-day training. The training focuses on the use of text materials, methods of teaching adults, supervisory technique and class management.

1.6.1.6 Text Materials

NNEC has developed various text materials for both the participants and the facilitators. The primer called Naya Goreto-- Pahilo ra Doshro Paila (New Path- Step I and II) is distributed to the participants free of cost. Besides, papers, pencils, erasers and pencil cutters are also distributed free of cost.

The facilitators are provided with the primer and its corresponding facilitator's guide book, a book on teaching methods, thematic posters, tables for recognizing letters and numbers, a set of learning games. The supervisors are also provided with a NFE supervisor training manual.

1.6.1.7 Contents of the Primer

The contents of the primer i.e. AEP are based on 25 lessons/key words identified as generic themes or issues relating to the real life conditions and problems of rural people. These key words what Freire (1996) also called generative words are vehicles for discussion, disseminating information and building literacy skills. The main lessons are built around these key words. Some of the key words are Kam (Work), Garib (Poor), Paisa (Money), Aushadhi (Medicine), Shiksha (Education) etc. These key words are also demonstrated in a simple drawing depicting the main theme or issue to be discussed by the participants. Numeracy portion is interspersed in different
lessons. Picture stories, comics and games alternate with the main lessons. The materials are designed in part on Freirean method of identifying central themes and encouraging discussion as well as on the Laubach emphasis on phonetics (New ERA, 1990).

Apart from these 25 thematic topics, there was no written curriculum depicting the scope and sequence of functional contents as well as literacy skills prior to 1997. In 1997, NFE curriculum was developed.

However, the same primer New Path - Steps I and II, the facilitator's book and supplementary materials are still being used to date.

1.6.1.8 In-class Activities

Participatory approach is the principal instructional strategy adopted in the AEP. The first activity in the lesson is the presentation of the thematic poster with some guidelines for discussion in small groups. The participants are given 15 minutes to discuss the poster among themselves, using the full page reproduction in their books. The facilitator then invites each group to select one member to explain, using the big poster displayed in the class, what the group understood from the poster. While discussing the poster, participants are encouraged to think about real problems in their village. Whenever possible, learners are encouraged to discuss possible solutions for problem they have articulated and to consider concrete plans to solve these problems. Thematic poster discussions form an introduction to all main lessons.

Thematic poster discussions lead to the identification of the key words of the lessons. The key words, which include all letters and basic sounds of the language, are analyzed or broken down into letters or syllables, which are then used to synthesize new words. Instruction is supplemented by games, discussions and activities that encourage the learners to analyze and synthesize the letter combinations. Picture stories and stories told in a comic book format provide interesting and simple material for the practice of reading skills. It is
obvious that functional contents and literacy skills are separately presented until the last stage of the programme. Full integration of functional contents and literacy skills have remained unrealized (New ERA, 1990).

1.6.1.9 Evaluation and Certification

It has been observed that the formative evaluation is up to the discretion of the facilitators. As per the NFE Programme Directory, 1994, the facilitators should give the first practice test to the participants after completing the Naya Goreto- Pahilo Paila, the second practice test one month prior to completing Naya Goreto - Doshro Paila, and the final test 15 days prior to the completion of the AEP. A few years back the first practice test was given 10% weightage and the second test 10% weightage. The final test was of 80% weightage. The total test score was 100. The participants who secured 60% in aggregate were declared literate and were conferred the certificate of literacy (NFE Programme Directory, 1994). At present, the first test and the second/final test are given 20% and 80% weightage respectively. Those participants who secure 40% in aggregate are declared literate and are conferred the certificate of literacy (NNEC, 1998).

1.6.2 Women Education Programme (WEP)

1.6.2.1 Introduction

At present, Women Education Programme (WEP) I, II and III which was previously run by the Non-formal Education Unit (NFE) of Basic and Primary Education Project (BPEP) is being conducted by the NNEC (Shaksharta Samachar, 1998). WEP I is specially designed for women of 15 to 45 years who had never got opportunity to attend primary schools and those who dropped out of the school without acquiring literacy skills. Its objectives are to make illiterate women literate, to impart functional knowledge and skills, and to provide skills pertaining to household affairs. Thus, WEP I is a basic AEP designed exclusively for women. Its duration is nine months. It is offered in those districts where BPEP is being implemented. WEP II is for those women who have completed the WEP I. Similarly, WEP III which
provides income generating skills is conducted for those who have completed
WEP II (BPEP, 1995 and BPEP, 1996).

1.6.2.2 Implementing Agencies and Committees

WEP is also conducted through the same agencies and committees
which are involved in the conduct of AEP (Refer to sub-section 1.6.1.2 for
more details).

1.6.2.3 Selection of the Participants

The VDCs or local NGOs or clubs select illiterate women of 15 to 45
years of age for WEP. Each class/centre should have 25 illiterate women in
rural and urban areas whereas it should have 15 participants in the specified
remote areas.

1.6.2.4 Selection and Training of the Trainers and the Facilitators

District Education Office selects women trainers and facilitators for
WEP on the basis of the pre-determined criteria. The trainers get training at the
central level and they provide 15 days training to the facilitators.

1.6.2.5 Selection and Training of Local Supervisors

The procedures of selection and training of local supervisors are nearly
akin to those in AEP (Refer to sub-section 1.6.1.5 for further details). The
supervisors are required to visit the AE class/centre twice a month. They have
to observe the class and provide necessary suggestions for improvement.
Besides, they should give demonstration lessons as required.

1.6.2.6 Text Materials

There is a separate primer called "Mahila Saksharta (Female Literacy)
and its facilitators' guide book and the second book called "Ghar Aangan
(courtyard) for WEP I. These materials are written in Nepali language and
used in all mother-tongue speaking groups. The primer is prepared based on
key word approach. The second book "Ghar Aangan" is a supplementary book
for the use of facilitators to facilitate discussion in the class. This is a very good idea, as it prepares the facilitator to generate interesting discussion among the participants. As the participants start to read the text, this book is provided to them as post-literacy material (Ministry of Education, 1997).

1.6.2.7 In-class Activities

In-class activities are carried out based on participatory approach which is akin to that of AEP (Refer to sub-section 1.5.1.8 for more details).

1.6.2.8 Evaluation and Certification

The learning progress of the participants is evaluated based on the test results. Tests are to be administered twice during the programme. Successful participants are conferred the certificate of literacy.

1.7 The Existing Non-Governmental Adult Education Programmes

A couple of dozen INGOs are involving in the field of adult education in one form or another. Some INGOs grant fund to national NGOs to conduct the adult education programme (AEP) developed by the NNEC. Some have conducted AEP developed by the NNEC in a modified form by integrating and emphasizing some functional areas such as health, agriculture etc. Some have developed their own model. INGOs such as Action Aid, Redd Barna, Plan International are conducting "Regenerated Freirean Literacy through Empowering Community Techniques" (REFLECT). Save the children, US is practising "Participatory Learning and Action". Private Agencies Collaborating Together (PACT) has initiated "Women Empowerment Project" whereas Lutheran World Federation is implementing "Empowerment Education Programme". Adventist Development and Relief Agency, Nepal (ADRA) has developed its own package based on the governmental AEP which uses the primer "Mahila Shaksharta" (Female Literacy). World Education is implementing Community Literacy Project. Below are the brief account of prominent ones.
1.7.1 Regenerated Freirean Literacy through Empowering Community Techniques (REFLECT)

1.7.1.1 Introduction

REFLECT is a new approach to adult literacy which fuses the theory of Paulo Freire and the practice of Participatory Rural Appraisal (Archer and Cuttingham, 1996). The REFLECT approach was first piloted in three projects in Uganda, El Salvador and Bangladesh in 1993 by Action-Aid. It proved to be both more effective at teaching people read and write and much more effective at linking literacy to wider development. It has now been taken up in more than twenty countries around the world, and by many different organizations (Archer and Cuttingham, 1996).

This approach was also initiated in Nepal in 1995 under the leadership of Action-Aid, Nepal. Now, it is adopted by many non-governmental organizations (REFLECT Bulletin, No. 1, 1997 and Bhattarai, Basnet and Bhattarai, 1998).

1.7.1.2 Implementation Procedures of REFLECT

INGOs viz. Action-Aid, United Mission to Nepal, Plan International, Redd Barna, Helvetas, Luthern World Federation, Save the Children, Japan and some NGOs are using REFLECT approach. Each of them implements their programme through field offices or offices at grassroots level or local NGOs in selected districts. While implementing REFLECT the following activities are carried out:

**Orientation Programme and Training:** In the process of implementation of REFLECT, an orientation programme in which representatives of different INGOs and NGOs participate is organized at regional or national level. Likewise, REFLECT trainers' training is organized to prepare trainers for conducting facilitators' training.

**Selection of Adult Education Classes/Circles:** AE class selection is rather time consuming and multi-stage process vis-a-vis that of governmental
AEP. In the beginning discussion should be held with the local community and let them know what REFLECT is. The location of class should be fixed only when the community understands the conduct of REFLECT and takes responsibility of its management (REFLECT Bulletin, No. 3, 1998).

**Selection and Training of Facilitators:** Instead of selecting facilitators by NGOs themselves as in governmental AEP, its responsibility is given to the community where the AEP will be conducted. Only those individuals who meet the minimum criteria are selected as facilitators. Moreover, a tripartite understanding is made among the community, the facilitator and the NGO regarding the smooth conduct of the AEP.

The facilitators are trained to apply REFLECT approach in AEP without using primers. Meanwhile, it would be better to organize, at least, one day orientation programme for those community members who are involved in the AEP to let them know what roles they should play to make programme a success (REFLECT Bulletin, No. 3, 1998).

**1.7.1.3 Text Materials**

In a REFLECT programme there is no textbook- no literacy primer- no pre-printed materials except a manual for the literacy facilitators. Each literacy circle/class develops its own learning materials through the construction of maps, matrices, calendars and diagrams that represent local reality to systematize the existing knowledge of participants and promote the detailed analysis of local issues (Archer and Cuttingham, 1996 and REFLECT Bulletin, No. 1, 1997). More importantly, in REFLECT the participants have got opportunity to learn in their own mother tongues thus making their learning faster (Bhattarai, Basnet and Bhattarai, 1998).

**1.7.1.4 Delivery System**

The key word approach, problem posing method and participatory approach are used in REFLECT focusing on social issues and real life situation. In REFLECT, dialogue is central to the whole process. While
imparting literacy and functional messages, the starting point for discussion is
the participants' existing knowledge. Ready made codifications and key words are

1.7.1.5 Monitoring and Evaluation

It was found that evaluation of impact of REFLECT centres was
carried out in 1996. The feedback of this evaluation provided the REFLECT
practitioners to get insight into the REFLECT processes (REFLECT Bulletin,
No. 3, 1997). Similarly, NGO/INGO staff pay field visit for regular monitoring
and evaluation of REFLECT classes. However, lack of monitoring and
evaluation was felt by the facilitators (REFLECT Bulletin, No. 6, 1998).

1.7.2 Women's Empowerment Project

1.7.2.1 Introduction

The USAID funded Women's Empowerment Project is an innovative,
reproducible, and sustainable model linking an action-oriented literacy
program, sound micro-credit and micro-enterprise training, and facilitation
support to more women along a continuum from literacy, to saving, to
borrowing, to successful entrepreneurship (Odell, 1999). PACT, Nepal and
The Asia Foundation (TAF) are implementing this programme in Terai region
of the country. The former is responsible for the literacy and economic
components of this programme while the latter is undertaking a component on
rights, responsibility and advocacy. It is believed that the women who
complete this programme will be able to take action that improve their own
well-being and that of their families and communities. (Odell, 1999)

1.7.2.2 Implementation Procedure

This programme is being implemented through approximately 250
local NGOs, including one that manages the development of materials for the
women's groups and the training of trainers.

At start-up, the NGOs identify existing women's savings and credit
groups among their constituencies. Each NGO has Empowerment workers
(EW) who serve as resources to the women's groups for both technical and
empowerment issues. Each EW works with 10-12 women's groups consisting of at least 12 members in each.

It is considered that literacy training is essential to micro-finance activity. It not only helps women improve their reading, writing and math skills, but the messages embedded in the literacy course lay the groundwork for the emergence of a strong, demand-driven micro-finance system. As the women practice together and share their experiences, they learn to make decisions and take more control over their lives.

Once the women complete three-month empowerment literacy and six-month legal literacy, they begin a nine-month self-instructional series on saving, credit and the fundamentals of micro-enterprise development that guides them in building a credit program using their own savings and launching or growing micro-enterprises (Odell, 1999).

1.7.2.3 Provision of Text Materials

PACT has developed a series of primers and self-instructional materials on savings, credit and the fundamentals of micro-enterprise development. The literacy primer entitled Hamro Samooh (Our Group) is developed based on key word approach.

1.7.2.4 Delivery System

Unlike in other literacy programmes, WEP uses no facilitators. To facilitate the learning, an empowerment worker who visits once a week provides necessary instructions to women group. Within the group, participatory approach is used to generate discussion and to facilitate the participants to gain language and numeracy skills. (It is assumed that there will be, at least, a literate woman in each group.) Furthermore, the programme is further complemented by PACT's adoption of a participatory approach for delivering program interventions to women clients through Monthly Mobile Workshop. This workshop which is conducted in each month is participated by two representatives from each of ten to twelve groups (Representatives participate in rotational basis.) and the EW who works with those groups. The workshops are conducted by WEP trainers and reinforce what the women are
learning while also tracking the groups' progress and providing technical support for the economic participation programme.

1.7.2.5 Monitoring and Evaluation

WEP is being run under the joint partnership of PACT and TAF. There are three regional offices and 21 field offices in 21 districts where WEP is in operation. These offices are responsible for programme implementation, and monitoring and evaluation activities. As mentioned above, EW visits the women groups once a week for monitoring and evaluation. During his visit, necessary instruction/feedback is provided. For M and E, EWs use the forms prepared by the central office. Apart from these field visits, as mentioned above, Monthly Mobile Workshops are organized as a form of M and E activity. To assess the learning progress of the participants at the end of basic literacy, tests developed by the central office are given. Those who secure 40% of the total full marks are declared pass. Then they move on to legal literacy and economic participation.

1.7.3 Empowerment Education Programme

1.7.3.1 Introduction

Luthem World Federation, Nepal commenced Empowerment Education Programme (EEP) in 1997. Its mission is to identify and work with disadvantaged households and communities which cover bonded labourers (Kamaiya), scheduled caste people, landless farmers, tribal people and women. EEP is specially designed to make the disadvantaged people literate and empower them through developing the capability to identify their own problems, to analyze their causes and to solve them (Empowerment Education Programme Directory, 1999).

1.7.3.2 Implementation Procedure of EEP

EEP is being conducted in five districts through the grassroots level offices of Luthem World Federation, Nepal. Its implementation procedure is more or less similar to REFLECT.
1.7.3.3 Text Materials

There is no primer for the participants. But, Empowerment Education Programme Manual has been prepared for the facilitators. The list of subject of concern, codes, pocket charts, letter and number cards and blocks are also provided to the facilitators.

1.7.3.4 Delivery System

EEP has two components — empowerment and literacy.

**Empowerment:** Freire’s problem posing method is used for empowerment with the following processes:

1. Description of code in the form of picture, role play, songs, story etc.
2. Analysis of the code
3. Relate the code with real life problem
4. Analysis of the related problem
5. Analysis of the root causes of the problem
6. Formulation of Action Plan

**FIGURE 1.2**

Processes of Empowerment

**Literacy:** Because literacy is sine qua non for empowerment, activities related to reading and writing, and discussion are to be carried out simultaneously. The major specialty of this programme is that the discussion leads to the identification of such key words the first letter of which should be in the proper sequence of Nepali alphabets. This method helps enable the
participants to learn all the vowels and consonants, which in turn help them to read and write joined letters, words, sentences and paragraphs. Similarly, the knowledge and skills of reading and writing, and numerals and computations will be delivered (Empowerment Education Programme Directory, 1999).

1.7.3.5 Monitoring and Evaluation

As reported by the concerned official, a detailed calendar of operation and monthly working schedule are prepared. The field and central level officials visit the classes for monitoring and evaluation. They do so against the pre-determined calendar of operation and monthly working schedule.

1.7.4 ADRA's Adult Education Programme

1.7.4.1 Introduction

ADRA, Nepal has developed its own model of AEP based on the Women Education Programme of NNEC. It differs from those of other INGOs specially in rigorous "Implementation Procedure" and "Monitoring and Evaluation."

1.7.4.2 Implementation Procedure

While implementing basic level adult education programme ADRA asks the Village Development Committee (VDC) to inform the former on the need of AE classes with preliminary site selection. If the VDC needs AE classes it selects the sites jointly with Health Sub-centre based on the predetermined site selection criteria. The VDC writes to the ADRA for required number of classes with the list of potential participants. The local supervisors selected on the basis of predetermined criteria are entrusted to check the reality as mentioned in the VDC's letter. The role of local supervisors is made crucial from the very beginning of AEP. Similarly, the facilitators are also selected and trained. Furthermore, AEP local support committees are formed for the smooth conduct of AEP. Supervisors, facilitators and AEP support committees are informed about their roles and
responsibilities. More importantly, commitment from their part to help the effective conduct of AEP is ensured. Similarly, the participants are committed to attend the AE classes regularly and punctually.

1.7.4.3 Text Materials

A primer called Mahila Shaksharta prepared by Basic and Primary Education Project is provided to each participant, which is based on key word approach.

1.7.4.4 Delivery System

Freire's problem posing method is being used in the existing AEP. In the beginning of AE class, pre-test is administered and its scores are recorded for comparing with the post test. After a few weeks treatment, the next test is administered to provide feedback to both the facilitator and participants of each class so that they can take further step to improve the delivery system. Similarly, tests are administered as and when required.

1.7.4.5 Monitoring and Evaluation

The ADRA officials, the local supervisors and the AEP support committee members perform the monitoring and evaluation of AE classes. Specifically, the local supervisors are required to prepare field visit schedule and act accordingly. Besides, to ensure that they have really made the field visits, they need to present their field visit reports to the head office along with the letter of attendance from the local support committee and the facilitator.

In his first field visit he makes a general observation of site and discusses with the local support committee members. In the second visit, the class of the facilitator is observed and feedback is provided. In the subsequent visit, he observes the class and checks whether he has improved as per his previous feedback. If necessary, he gives demonstration lesson to the facilitators. Based on his report, the classes not functioning well may be cancelled.
Moreover, the members of support committee check whether the AE classes are running regularly and help to regulate the class. Upon their recommendation, the facilitators are paid their remuneration. The facilitators are paid based on the number of days they have conducted the classes.

1.7.4.6 Evaluation and Certification

For the participants' evaluation, tests developed by the ADRA office are sent to AE classes through the local supervisors. The successful participants are provided with literacy certificate (This sub-section is prepared based on the informal interview with the senior programme officer of ADRA.)

1.8 Assessing Effectiveness

According to "Webster Universal Dictionary, 1970," effectiveness refers to the quality of being effective. Effective means bringing about an intended result. Effectiveness and efficacy are synonyms. In educational research, the relative effectiveness of the treatments given to subjects is studied comparatively. An example on the comparison of the relative effectiveness of two methods of teaching reading presented by Best and Kahn (1992), in their book "Research in Education" is reproduced here:

The experimental group is taught by the initial teaching alphabet method and the control group by the traditional alphabet. At the end of a year a standardized reading test is administered and the mean score of each group is computed. The effectiveness of the experimental group method as compared to the effectiveness of the control group method is evaluated through the test of the significance of the difference between two means.

Similarly, Kerlinger (1983) presented similar hypothetical examples of assessing the relative efficacy of two and more than two methods of teaching. Shrestha, et al. (1999) also view that student's achievement level is the basic indicator of the effectiveness of the system. While stating in a broader perspective, educational effectiveness is concerned with whether or not a specific set of resources has a positive effect on achievement and how large this effect is (Husen and Postlethwaite, 1994).

In this study, a single treatment in Nepali language, other things presuming the same, is given to basic level adult education classes of Nepali
mother-tongue speaking group and four non-Nepali mother tongue speaking groups such as Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu and Tamang. The treatment includes the application of problem posing and key word approach along with the single primer "Naya Goreto" series. The medium of treatment/instruction is Nepali and the primer is also written in Nepali language. The results expected are participants' achievement in literacy, their attitudinal change and the use of literacy and functional knowledge and skills in their daily life activities.

The investigator is interested to assess the relative effectiveness of the single treatment delivered in Nepali language with the use of single primer in basic level adult education classes speaking Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu and Tamang mother tongue speaking groups in bringing about intended results.

1.9 Concept of Model

In recent literature of the behavioral sciences, the term "model" has taken on wider and more varied meanings (Van Dalen, 1966). The student cannot long pursue graduate studies without encountering the term model, an expression used very freely with many differing meanings (Travers, 1969).

According to "The Dictionary of Education," a model is a graphic or three-dimensional scale representation of an object, principle, or idea (Good, 1973). When trying to understand or explain some complex social process or situation we may consider simplified ways of picturing it – perhaps using a diagram, or mathematics, or a verbal summary or analogy (Rowntree, 1981). In conformity with this view Kerlinger (1983) considers the word 'model' is a synonym for a paradigm, but a "paradigm" evades the value connotation of 'model'. Diagrams, graphs and verbal outlines are paradigms which are used in the sense of structure and a guiding model particularly in connection with research design.

In general, it entails finding a structure that enables one to present concepts in such a way that researchers can gain useful insights into their phenomena (Van Dalen, 1966). From this perspective, a model is an analogy, a way of representing a particular phenomenon (Travers, 1969).
Furthermore, the American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language, 1992 defined model as a systematic description of a system, theory, or phenomenon that accounts for its known or inferred properties and may be used for further study of its characteristics: a model of generative grammar; a model of an atom; an economic model. Similarly, the International Dictionary of Education defined model as a means of transferring a relationship or process from its actual setting to one in which it can be more conveniently studied (Page, et al. 1977). The Oxford Dictionary, 1989 has presented the definitions of model in several perspectives (Simpson and Weiner, 1989).

It defined 'Model' in terms of 'representation of structure' as a simplified or idealized description or conception of a particular system, situation, or process (often in mathematical terms; so mathematical model) that is put forward as a basis for calculation, predictions, or further investigation. It also defined 'model' in terms of 'type of design' as style of structure or form or pattern of material structures and of immaterial things, system, institutions etc. In term of 'an object of imitation' this dictionary defined 'model' as a person, or a work, that is proposed or adopted for imitation.

The definition of model put forward by Bhatnagar and Agarwal (1995) is rather similar to those presented by Simpson and Weiner (1989) mentioned above. Bhatnagar and Agrawal (1995) defined model as a comprehensive plan of work prepared carefully before it is implemented.

From above discussions variety of models appeared. Chapanis, thus, classifies models as replica models and symbolic models. A replica model looks like the object or phenomenon that is represented (Travers, 1969). A replica of a real object, usually can be reduced or increased in size, e.g. a model of the solar system or a model of the heart (Rowntree, 1981). The architect's plans for a new school building provide yet another example of a model (Travers, 1969).

Symbolic models, on the other hand, use abstract symbols to represent either parts of an object or the relationship among phenomena. A symbolic model of perception and communication provided by D.E. Broadbent shown in Figure 1.3 is an example of a symbolic model. This model is able to represent some of the events that have been observed in experimental studies of perception (Travers, 1969).
FIGURE 1.3. Symbolic Model of the Processing of Information Received by the Human Organism. (Source: Travers, 1969)

As identified by Kaplan (1964) and Tatsuoka (1968), the following five types of models have been mentioned in the International Encyclopedia of Education, second edition, Volume-7, 1994:

1. **Analogue Models:** A common and important class comprises those models that are related to a physical system, and it is perhaps not surprising that such models should be widely used in the physical sciences, relatively uncommon in the social and behavioral sciences, and rare in the fields of education. Such models are referred to as analogue models.

2. **Semantic Models:** Semantic models provide a conceptual analogue to the subject matter under consideration rather than a physical analogue. Because they are expressed in verbal form, they provide a valuable explanation of the subject matter that, in general, is readily understood. A 'model of school learning' proposed by Carroll (1963) is an example of a semantic model. The model contains five elements; three of which are associated with the individual student; and two of which arise from external conditions. Carroll initially formulated the model in the following words:

   Factors in the individual are (a) aptitude, (b) ability to understand instructions, and (c) perseverance. Factors in external conditions are (d) opportunity and (e) the quality of instruction.

3. **Schematic Models:** A schematic model is like a map and generally serves to group and cluster constructs into an ordered relationship. It serves as a link between theory and the real world. Many psychologists have sought to develop models of intelligence. The most detailed model is that advanced by Guilford (1967) for the "Structure of Intellect" in three dimensional grid.
4. **Mathematical Models:** While mathematical models have been used increasingly since the early 1960s in the behavioral and social sciences, including uses in psychology that have a bearing on educational problems, there have been very few uses of mathematical models directly in the fields of educational research.

5. **Causal Models:** Since the early 1960s there has been an increased use of models and model buildings in educational research, especially through the use of causal models. The procedures employed for the development of causal models enable the investigator to move from a verbal statement or a semantic model of a complex set of interrelationships between variables to a more precise one in which the principles of path analysis and a set of structural equations are employed.

Models of the home environment: Williams (1976) has made a significant contribution to the understanding of the manner in which the home environment might operate to influence the development of intellectual ability of a child through the construction and estimation of causal models to describe the situation.

The first model shown in Figure 1.4 (from Eckland, 1971) is the standard deprivation model which is commonly employed to account for relationships between parental socio-economic status, the educational environment of the home, and the child's intelligence. This model denies the possibility that the child could inherit from its parents genetic material that might influence the growth of the child's intelligence. Thus while this model is widely used in educational research, although rarely in an explicit form, it can be argued to be deficient.

A second causal model is shown in Figure 1.5 in which provision is made for the possibility that the child has inherited from its parents genetic material that will affect in part the intellectual ability of the child. The second model denies the possibility that the child might influence the type of educational environment provided by the parents as a consequence of the child's level of intellectual ability.

A third causal model is shown in Figure 1.6 in which provision is made for the reciprocal influence between the educational environment of the home and the child's intelligence.
Besides aforementioned concepts of model, there are also models of teaching. A model of teaching has been defined in various ways. One of the most comprehensive definition runs as "model of teaching can be defined as an
instructional design which describes the process of specifying and producing particular environmental situations which cause the students to interact in such a way that a specific change occurs in their behavior (Chauhan, 1979). Joyce and Weil (1997) defined a model of teaching as a description of a learning environment. This concept is based on the idea that the core of the teaching process is the arrangement of environments within which the students can interact and study how to learn. Joyce and Weil (1997) further state that the models of teaching are really models of learning. As we help students acquire information, ideas, skills, values, ways of thinking, and means of expressing themselves, we are also teaching them how to learn. We measure the effects of various model of teaching not only by how well they achieve the specific objective toward which they are directed (for example, self-esteem, social skill, information, ideas, creativity) but also by how well they increase the ability to learn, which is their fundamental purpose.

Moreover, Srinivasan (1977) presented a model of three alternative approaches to the traditional informational model of non-formal adult learning. Such a comparison reveals a progression form a subject-centered or didactic model at one end to a learner-centered and expressive model at the other. Arranging them along a continuum as in Figure 1.7 enables us to understand the difference among them more clearly.
### FIGURE 1.7  
Curriculum Models: A Continuum

As shown in Figure 1.7, the simplest way to differentiate between the self-actualizing approach and other approaches is to compare the functions of teachers, learners, and materials or stimuli and by analyzing principal concerns, or "areas of emphasis" (Srinivasan, 1977).

Similarly, Aryal (1994) suggested a few desirable elements of a people-oriented paradigm of non-formal education development by borrowing two
terms, Enfranchisement and Empowerment from the conflict school and two terms, Enablement and Enlightenment from the functional school. Enfranchisement means that the beneficiaries of the programme must be made a legitimate party to have a say about what they need to learn and "significant others" should not colonize their brain. Empowerment signifies that the clientele needs to be empowered to formulate its own goals as well as to evaluate its own learning processes and products. Enablement refers to the creation of skill efficiency among the participants that can help them earn their bread. Enlightenment means that adult education programmes should aim at getting the achievements of mankind reinterpreted and reconstructed.

Based on aforementioned discussions of related literature on model, some implications have been drawn for developing a proposed model of AEP in this study. A model is a work, that is proposed or adopted for imitation. It is considered as a comprehensive plan of work prepared carefully before it is implemented. Furthermore, a model is a simplified and systematic description of a system, theory or phenomenon that is put forward as a basis for further investigation. When trying to understand or explain some complex social processes or situation one may consider simplified ways of picturing it — perhaps using a diagram, or mathematics, or a verbal summary or analogy. In the field of education there has been an increased use of models and model buildings through the use of causal models which enable the investigator to move from a verbal statement or a semantic model of a complex set of relationships between variables to a more precise one.

1.10 Review of Related Studies

The review of related studies helps the investigator to gain insight into the problem to be studied and to get information on the related problems and issues. Several studies on basic level Adult Education Programme (AEP) were found to have been conducted in Nepal, India and other developing countries. The review of these studies has been presented under the following aspects of AEP:
1.10.1 Literacy Achievement of Adult Education Participants


Belbase and Shrestha (1973) remarked that though attempts had been made from various levels and stages to conduct adult education programme in Nepal since 1951, no objective and scientific study was found to have been undertaken to assess its effectiveness. In 1973, Belbase and Shrestha conducted an evaluation study of adult education programme which was considered as first of its kind. One of the objectives of this study was to give an achievement test to a sample of adult participants. The test was administered in adult classes of Bhaktapur district. Sixty participants took the language test and only 51 of them took the numeracy test. Based on the test results, the participants were placed in three categories. First, the participants scoring 80% and above were considered as equivalent to standard II of primary school. Fifty seven percent of participants were able to come under this category in language whereas 24% of them came under this category in numeracy. Second, the
participants scoring 60 to 79% were considered as standard I of primary school. Twenty eight percent participants in language and 45% participants in numeracy came under this category. Third, the participants scoring below 60% were considered as failure from the standpoint of literacy. Fifteen percent participants in language and 31% participants in numeracy fell under this category. Based on these test results it was inferred that most of the participants were able to acquire language skills. However, they were weak in numeracy as compared to language.

Research Centre for Educational Innovation and Development (CERID) had conducted a study in 1980 to assess the relevance and effectiveness of the Functional Adult Education Programme (FAEP) which the Adult Education Section, Ministry of Education had operated in various districts of Nepal since 1978 (CERID, 1982c). One of the objectives of the study was to determine the participants' achievement level in literacy. The study revealed that out of 175 adult participants, 59.43 were found to be adequately literate and of these 31.43 percent had attained a very high level of achievement. More specifically, the FAEP made 62 percent adults literate in the reading and writing aspects of language. In arithmetic, 56 percent adults were literate. This indicated that a greater percentage of adult were made literate in language area than in arithmetic. This study had also drawn conclusions with respect to the achievement pattern of the participants by sex and language. In the area of reading and writing of the language component and in arithmetic, the performance level of the male and female adults did not indicate a comparatively greater difference. So far as the level of achievement in literacy in concerned, Nepali-speakers were found to do better than non-Nepali speakers in both reading and writing, and arithmetic of the literacy programme. The study implied that the favourable effect of Nepali as the first language is established by above findings on the achievement of adults in total AEP. This situation leads one to conclude that the functional adult literacy classes were not geared properly to the needs of the majority of adult participants. Moreover, this study recommended to improve the teaching of arithmetic, to provide instructional materials and supplementary reading
materials to the participants in time and to extend the duration of the six-month AEP.

New ERA, another research centre in Nepal, had conducted several evaluative studies on Functional Adult Literacy Programme for various projects. First of them was "An Evaluative Study of Functional Adult Literacy Programme of Integrated Hill Development Project," conducted in 1983 (New ERA, 1984). One of the objectives of this study was to assess programme achievement in terms of basic literacy skills acquired by adults on completion of the functional literacy course. This study concluded that achievement in the reading aspect was quite higher than those of writing and arithmetic for basic participants whereas the advanced participants' achievement in arithmetic was higher than in reading and writing. In this study, out of the total 139 basic participants, only 21 percent were found in fully literate and literate categories. Among the fully literate and literate participants, 69 percent were those whose mother tongue was Nepali. It was observed that among the illiterates, majority of them were of mother tongue other than Nepali. In case of advanced participants, out of 196 participants only 29 percent were found fully literate and literate categories. Fully literate and literate participants included nearly half of those adults whose mother tongue was Nepali. Of the total illiterates of advanced programme, majority (73 percent) were of non-Nepali mother tongue speaking participants.

CERID (1986) assessed the effectiveness of the AEP conducted under the project "Education for Rural Development in Seti Zone" of Nepal on the basis of the level of literacy of the participants among other things. A literacy test on some aspects of language and arithmetic was administered to AE participants of Doti and Bajhang districts. An analysis of the test results showed that the AE participants had acquired a considerable level of achievement in the literacy test. As the mean score of 29.86 out of 48 indicated 62.20 percent acquisition, this level of achievement could be appropriately regarded as satisfactory. Examining the average distribution pattern of scores on reading, writing and arithmetic, the learners' achievement in the reading
component was found to be very satisfactory because the mean score in reading was approximately 77 percent. Similarly, the achievement on the writing component might also be considered as satisfactory (nearly 67% achievement). However, the average score on arithmetic component was found to be 50 percent. It revealed that the adult learners were found to be rather deficient in numeracy as compared to the level of skills they have acquired in reading and writing. Hence, this study recommended to improve the contents of teaching arithmetic and to allot more time to exercises on arithmetic.

New ERA conducted another evaluative study to assess the programme's achievement after the two years of implementation of "Literacy Training for Women and Post Literacy Income Generation" (New ERA, 1987 a). In response to an item of a questionnaire, it was found that language was the skill gained by all the respondents of one district and 96 percent of the respondents of the other district. However, the participants showed little confidence in numeracy skills.

New ERA conducted the next study to assess changes in the literacy and numeracy skills of the participants in a Village Panchayat called Tanki Sinwari of Morang district with a sample of 59 participants who took both pretest and posttest (New ERA, 1987 b). The study concluded that the difference between the mean scores of the pretest and posttest was statistically significant at the 0.05 level with respect to total reading skills. In relation to total writing skills, the total average scores improved from 0.83 to 5.98 as a result of the programme. Similarly, the participants had demonstrated dramatic improvement in numeracy sub-test which was designed to assess numerical identification and the transformation of words into digits. Again, with respect to four simple rules of arithmetic, the test results revealed that an improvement from a mean score of 3.41 in pretest to 14.56 in posttest out of a possible score of 20. According to the classification made by this study, 55.93 percent of the total participants came under the categories of fully literate and literate. However, the weakness of this programme was the higher dropout rate. Out of 156 who took the pretest, 97 (i.e. 62.18 percent) participants were found to have dropped out from the programme.
New ERA replicated the above study in Dingla Village Panchayat of Bhojpuri district. Only 93 out of 185 participants who took both the pretest and the posttest were the samples of this study (New ERA, 1987 c). The study revealed that the participants demonstrated marked improvement in reading skills, writing skills, identification of numbers and transformation of words into numerical figures, and four simple rules of arithmetic. Significant difference was found between the mean scores of pretest and posttest at the 0.01 level in four areas mentioned above. According to the classification made by this study, out of 93 participants, 55.91 percent were found in fully literate and literate categories.

New ERA (1989) carried out an evaluation study of the literacy campaign launched by His Majesty's Government in the Surkhet valley. One of the objectives of this study was to assess the achievement level of the adult participants. The study concluded that in terms of literacy achievement level, about 23 percent of adults attained full literate status and another 29 percent achieved literate status. The study revealed that there was no significant difference between the achievement level of male and female participants. The study also showed that adult participants had demonstrated better performance in language than in numeracy. But their performance was found less than satisfactory in such critical areas as comprehension, free expression and numeracy. The drop-out rate was almost 50 percent.

Belbase (1989) conducted a programme review study on non-formal education in Dhading district under Dhading District Development Project (DDDP). One of the specific objectives of this study was to assess the level of achievement of the participants as regards 3Rs, functional aspects, and increased participation through NFE courses. For this purpose, the achievement tests developed on the basis of the primer "Naya Goreto" series were conducted among randomly selected sample of ten neo-literates from each of the twelve NFE centres. The study revealed that about 70% of those who attended the NFE centres were young and adult females, out of which about 57% were found literate. All of those youth and adults who attended
NFE centres in DDDP area, about 67% of them seemed to have acquired and retained literacy; whereas 33% relapsed into illiteracy. The neo-literates were, however, found weak in the skills of writing and reading with comprehension. This revealed a lack of quality in the teaching-learning process. The study also found that the number of literates in Tamang group was greater than the number of literates in Newar, Magar, Chepang and Kumal groups.

An evaluation study of literacy programme of Small Farmer's Development Programme (SFDP) and Production Credit for Rural Women (PCRW) was undertaken in selected districts of Nepal by New ERA (1990). One of the objectives of this study was to evaluate the efficiency (completion rate) and effectiveness (achievement level) of the literacy programme. An achievement test was administered at the end of the programme. Based on the results of literacy achievement test, the study concluded that about 50 percent of SFDP and 40 percent of PCRW participants demonstrated satisfactory level of achievement. The study revealed that adult participants of both SFDP and PCRW had demonstrated satisfactory performance at lower level cognitive tasks such as recognition of simple words and sentences, and writing simple words and sentences. However, their achievement levels in paragraph reading, comprehension and free expression were quite low. The study further revealed that the achievement level of both SFDP and PCRW participants in numeracy was low. Adults between 15 to 35 years achieved significantly higher than either under-age children or adults above 35 years, thus proving the efficacy of the present literacy programme for this age group. This study also showed that there was no significant difference between the achievement levels of the male and the female participants in the language sub-test and the total literacy test. Again, male adults had scored higher than females in the numeracy sub-test. In this study the aggregate data showed a slightly higher average achievement level in language, numeracy and total literacy for Nepali speaking participants than for non-Nepali speaking participants. The difference was statistically significant. Furthermore, the completion rates were 58 percent in SFDP and 61 percent in PCRW thereby arriving at an efficiency ratio of 59 percent.
Manandhar (1993) concentrated his study in language issue in adult literacy programme in which three non-Nepali mother tongue speaking groups - Maithili speakers of Siraha district, Magar speakers of Palpa district and Tharu speakers of Dang district were taught to learn Nepali language using the primer "Naya Goreto (New Path -- First Step)." The investigator assumed that many of the words, sentences, and visual aids used in the existing primer are meaningless to non-Nepali speaking communities and the primer represents only the middle hill areas of the country. Upon the administration of a simple test, the study concluded that even though the words and sentences for the test had been compiled from the existing primer, the recognition as well as the understanding level among non-Nepali speakers was very low. As the study showed only 34 percent of the total sample could recognize almost all the selected words. This is considerably low in itself. Besides, only 9.3 percent of the total sample could understand the meaning of all the words that they had read. A similar disparity can be seen for sentences. Seven percent recognized all the sentences, but only 8 percent could understand those sentences. As their recognition level is low, in the same way understanding is also poor. This study also compared the achievement of AE participants of Dang and Siraha districts of Nepal in the recognition and understanding of the words and sentences. It concluded that the total score of the participants (Tharu MTS group) of Dang district was greater than that of the participants (Maithili MTS group) of Siraha district. Furthermore, the study recommended to develop different literacy materials for different MTS groups or to develop multiple versions of the existing primer "Naya Goreto" which should reflect the major ethnic or geographic variations and to provide a variety of reading materials and supplementary readers to the participants.

Karmacharya (1995) undertook an evaluative study of local pilot project launched in Sarlahi district of Nepal to promote literacy among youth and adults. One of the objectives of this study was to compare the effectiveness of two newly developed non-formal education (NFE) textbooks based on a curriculum grid which was prepared on the basis of APPEAL training materials for literacy personnel with the existing literacy primer "Naya
Goreto" series. Among 74 centres which used "Naya Goreto" and 18 centres which used newly developed textbooks, only eight centres from each group were selected randomly for this study. Based on achievement test scores during observation, it was found that male participants were found better in "Naya Goreto" group. In case of new textbook group, no significant difference in achievement was found between male and female participants. The study concluded that the centres with "Naya Goreto" was slightly better in comparison with the centres with new textbook. The study also revealed that the female participants were in favour of female facilitators.

National Non-formal Education Council (NNEC, 1995) found that 29% of the participants scored above 75%, the scores of 40% of the participants remained in between 40 to 74% whereas the scores of 31% of the participants were found below 40% in literacy achievement. The total number of participants who took the test was 283. The study also collected suggestions from different responding groups for improving the literacy programme. The participants suggested to appoint female facilitators to improve the regular attendance of female participants in literacy class. Kumari (1988) also concluded that adult learners preferred teachers of their own sex. Similarly, the participants preferred nine-month literacy programme with skill training.

Smith, Comings and Shrestha (1995) in their study on evaluation of literacy programme effectiveness in Nepal found that literacy levels were low or nonexistent at the beginning, the participants gained some amount of skills in the first few weeks, and the literacy classes overall were successful at increasing participants' reading and writing skills, but how much skill the participants achieved varied from class to class (i.e. centre to centre). The study further concluded that because HEAL participants (Health Education and Adult Literacy Project of World Education) acquired significantly more literacy skills in a six-month + three-month course with fewer hours of instruction than did BPEP participants (Basic and Primary Education Project) in a nine-month literacy course with more hours of instruction, there is a strong indication that additional hours of instruction above and beyond the six-
month basic course leads to increased literacy skills, if this meant a three-month post-literacy course offered several months after the end of the basic literacy course, rather than a nine-month continuous course.

Smith, Comings and Shrestha (1996) conducted a research study with the objective of determining the effectiveness of literacy classes run by the governmental and non-governmental organizations as part of the Nepal National Literacy Programme in terms of literacy skills achievement, drop-out rates, and individual characteristics. Because some literacy classes were conducted for 6 months and some for 9 months, the study also compared the effect of these two different types of programmes that varied only in the duration. The study found that drop-out rate was 24 percent. The study revealed that participation in a six-month plus three-month programme of instruction led to the greatest level of literacy acquisition, equivalent to approximately 3.5 years of primary schooling. The study further concluded that one of the factors in retaining literacy skills and increasing communicative competence seemed to be reinforced by radio listening opportunity. This conclusion was supported by the fact that the mean literacy score of those participants who did live in a family with a radio was 47.64 and that of the participants who lived in a family without a radio was 42.18. The difference between these two means was found significant at the 0.05 level.

Duijnhouwer (1996) conducted evaluation of CARE Nepal's literacy programme. The study, inter alia, assessed the literacy retention of the former participants three years after finishing basic level classes (BLC) and advanced level classes (ALC). In this study four former literacy centres in Mahottari district and the equal number of centres in Solukhumbu district were selected. Forty nine randomly selected women from those centres took a literacy retention test. The study found that the literacy retention as measured three years after completing ALC was encouraging. Almost half of the test takers (47%) scored more than 40 points on a maximum of 90 points. A smaller percentage (22%) seemed to have lost most of their literacy skills. The study further states that instruction in the mother tongue improved the results of literacy classes.
Meyers (1996) mentioned in his study the experiment of Language Experience Approach (LEA) into basic literacy classes in three districts of Nepal. LEA activities were introduced from the very beginning of the classes, and continued throughout the 6-month course. The initial findings were promising. In the 20 classes where LEA was piloted in one district, there were only 8% dropout, compared to the 22% drop out in the control group. Learners in these classes spoke a mix of Maithili and Nepali, and staff reported that the students learnt Devanagari quickly when using their own words. Learners in adult literacy classes, who could actually see their writing made public, might also feel motivated and inspired to continue learning. The investigator further reported that research on the impact of Learner Generated Material (LGM) method in basic literacy classes which pointed to improved learning and lower drop out would have a direct impact on policy decisions and future funding.

CERID (1997) conducted a study with the objective of assessing the impact of adult education on individuals in rural communities of Nepal. The study was undertaken in three districts representing three ecological belts: Mountain, Hill and Terai region of the country. The samples for the experimental group were drawn from a group of people who participated in the non-formal AEP and the samples for the control group were selected from a group of people who did not participate in AEP. The study revealed that the experimental group (25%) was confident in reading and comprehending the posters and getting needed information on health, agriculture etc. On the other hand only 9.5% of the people of the control group expressed their confidence to do so.

Tuladhar (1998) undertook a study in some selected districts of Nepal to compare the level of achievement between the learners who learned literacy through the Key Word Approach (KWA) and those who learned through Language Experience Approach (LEA). The major findings of this study were as follows: (a) The KWA group performed better in the achievement test. The KWA had its own Primer and the facilitators' guide whereas the LEA did not have any of them. A training guide for LEA had been prepared, but had not been tested and improved systematically. (b) The LEA was better with the
group where literacy was taught by their mother tongues. The study states that in LEA, the learners use their own mother tongue in the literacy classes, which makes them comfortable in the class. (c) District variation existed in the literacy achievement.

Sharma (1991) conducted an intensive study on a sample of 175 learners from 18 adult education centres of 3 districts of Punjab for her Ph.D. study. The study revealed that in the overall reading test, the performance of the learners was satisfactory. The learners could read small names, primer, posters and signboard but experienced difficulties in readings from a newspaper. About 50% learners had acquired proficiency in writing. They could write names and small sentences in letters. The skills to write money order forms were developed by about 20% learners only. The learners were good in computations. More than 88% learners acquired computation skills that could be used by them in everyday life.

Molhotra (1993) conducted a study on learning outcomes among adult learners in the Union Territory of Chandigarh for her Ph.D. work. With respect to measuring literacy achievement, a written test developed by Regional Resource Centre, Panjab University was administered to 200 learners from the labour colonies, city centers and the villages of U.T. of Chandigarh. The major conclusions were as follows: (a) Majority of the respondents fluently read all the four sentences given in the test. (b) Majority of the learners correctly recognized and wrote the names of all the four pictures given to them in the question. (c) A large number of sample adult learners successfully matched the list of words given to them. (d) It was encouraging to see that a large number of learners were able to make words with all the 3 alphabets given to them. (e) Almost cent percent respondents were found to be excellent in their arithmetic skills for they rightly counted the number of objects given in the question. The study further concluded that the goal of reading and writing, the need to be efficient in child care and home management and the goal of general awareness had a positive effect on the learning outcome of the learners. Furthermore, it was found that the difference in the learning styles used did not
make significant difference in the learning outcomes of the adult learners. However, high level of persistence results in high level of learning outcomes.

Kumari (1994), among other things, analyzed the learning outcomes of the adult learners under the Adult Education Programme - Total Literary Campaign in Panipat district, Haryana and Union Territory of Chandigarh in her Ph.D. study. In the achievement test, 50% adult learners from Panipat district, Haryana and 52.5% from UT of Chandigarh had attained the literacy skills i.e. reading, writing, arithmetic by scoring 70 and above scores out of 100. In reading ability, 79% learners from both the places attained reading skills by scoring 50 and above scores. Furthermore, it was found that Panipat respondents were better in writing and arithmetic skills than their counterparts in Chandigarh. The study suggested that introduction of short-term vocational courses like tailoring, embroidery, cane works, candle making, soup-making should be included and the instructors should be trained in preparing simple aids like charts, posters etc. Similarly, Natarajan (1982) also recommended to stress on such functional skills so that the learners could be able to increase their earning.

One of the objectives of an experimental research undertaken by Rath (1994) was to study the effect of adult education programme on the development of literacy skills of reading, writing and numeracy on the workers of a factory in Orissa. In this study single group pretest posttest design was used. The study concluded that the AEP had positive impact upon illiterate workers in learning literacy skills. Male and female workers did not differ significantly in learning of literacy skill. It was also concluded that AEP had applicability as well as positive impact upon both male and female workers.

Kiran (1994) conducted a study to evaluate the AEP in some selected districts of Punjab for her Ph.D. work. One of the objectives of that evaluative study was to examine the learners' achievement. The findings of this study were as follows: The learners' ability to read was fixed to small words and names. Very few could read a letter. Even the general ability of the learners in writing simple words was not very high. A few learners were able to fill in the
money order form. Regarding the arithmetic skills, only a few could use the technique of simple addition and subtraction. The overall achievement of learners in 3Rs was found to be low on the whole. This study stated that the materials had to be locally relevant and had to suit the needs, interests and requirements of the learners.

A study was conducted to evaluate the AEP in the Union Territory of Chandigarh with a sample of 120 participants of 12 centres by Seghal (1986). He found that about 25% of the learners performed reasonably well on the reading, writing and arithmetic tests administered to them.

Walia (1989) conducted a study to evaluate the performance of AEP in rural areas around Chandigarh. Her study revealed that the performance of the learners in arithmetic was better as compared to reading and writing ability. The reading ability of learners in sentence was found to be poor as nearly 67% of them could not respond at all. Out of the rest, 20% could read with pauses and 13% could read without pauses correctly. However, in reading words only 22% could not respond at all. In written test 88% males and 80% females could write their names and age correctly. In writing their address and occupation only 28 percent males were successful. The results of arithmetic skills were quite satisfactory as only 21% of the total learners both male as well as female could not do anything.

Saini (1990) conducted an experimental research with a final sample of 49 participants in experimental group and 27 participants in control group. One of the objectives of this study was to find out the effect of intelligence, socio-economic status (SES) and treatment on the adult learners' literacy, functionality and awareness. The study concluded that the variable of treatment contributed to significant differences in learning of literacy. The variable of intelligence did not contribute to significant differences in the learning of literacy, functionality and awareness. Similarly, the variable of SES did not contribute to significant difference in the learning of literacy, functionality and awareness. The urban adult learners did better in learning literacy, functionality and awareness as compared to rural adult learners.
Choujar (1990) conducted a study to evaluate the functioning of AEP of Janata colony centre in U.T. of Chandigarh. A literacy test in reading, writing and arithmetic skills was given to the learners. This study, among other things, concluded that performance of the learners was better in arithmetic as compared to reading and writing skills. Furthermore, this study revealed that the female participants expected training regarding productive skills like sewing, knitting etc. so that they could be able to earn some money.

Rao (1981) as cited by Sharma (1991) conducted that (a) alphabetic method was better than sentence method, (b) reading ability preceded the literacy skills, and (c) the adults could acquire the needed functional literacy skills of the class III plus in about four months.

Seth (1882) as cited by Sharma (1991) conducted a study on motivation in adult learners participating in functional literacy programme in Delhi. Among other things, this study assessed the impact of programme in terms of gains in literacy skills and social awareness. The study concluded that there was significant relationship between gains in literacy skills and continuing participation in the programme.

Kundu (1984) under Kurukshetra University Adult Literacy Centre, with a view to implementing the three components of the adult education programme namely, literacy, functional skills and social awareness, took up the responsibility of teaching illiterates on the campus and migrant workers in the immediate neighborhood. To begin with, the adults were divided into four groups on the basis of their levels of literacy. Group A comprised adults who were completely illiterate. They were given the knowledge of number from 1 to 1000 and then shifted to group B which comprised adults who had already acquired the knowledge of numbers. They were then given the knowledge of Hindi alphabet and were taught the construction of simple words. They were then shifted to group C which comprised adults having knowledge of words and were taught to read and write sentences. Group D comprised individuals who were neo-literates and were able to read and write Hindi. Later, on their request, they were also acquainted with the English alphabet, common words
and sentences. The total number of illiterates in all the groups attending literacy centre was 213.

Over one year's endeavour to hold literacy classes for class-IV employees of the university and migrant workers yielded interesting results which, though quite pertinent, cannot be held valid for generalization for the larger cross-section of adult population because the sample was too small and included only a typical category of learners. Nonetheless, the present experiment offers definite insights into the nature of AEP and reinforces the need to take up essential administrative decisions and teaching-learning strategies, training and evaluation programmes to implement the scheme on a surer basis.

Kundu (1984) conducted an experiment to assess the effectiveness of five methods of adult learning. In the experiment he grouped 100 adult learners into five groups on the basis of age, socio-economic status, sex, degree of achievement and social differentiation. These five groups were taught through five different methods. Group A was taught with the traditional method. Group B was taught with the alphabetic method. Group C was taught with the known to unknown method. Integrated literacy was used in group D and each one teach one method developed by the University of Bombay was adopted in group E. The groups were rotated so that each group A, B, C, D and E could be exposed to five different methods. To evaluate the efficacy of those methods, an evaluation sheet based on multiple choice items was prepared. After rotation and the administration of the test the four methods namely, (a) the traditional method, (b) the alphabetic method, (c) the known to unknown method, and (d) integrated literacy method yielded almost the same results. It was only the Bombay Model that yielded higher scores and some insights.

Shrivastava (1980) as cited by Kundu (1984) undertook a study to find out the effects of using the dialect of the adult learners in the initial stage of a programme in which the final aim was for the learner to acquire functional literacy skills in the standard regional language. The study compared the gains in functional literacy skills when the initial exposure to written text material
was in the dialect with the gains when the initial exposure was in the standard regional language, which was not the learner's first language. The subjects of the study were 369 learners chosen from those enrolled in an adult education programme in Rajasthan. They were divided into two groups. The first group of learners - the dialect group- was instructed in reading and writing skills at the basic literacy level, first in the mother tongue and then in the standard regional language. The other group the regional language group went through the programme beginning to end in the standard regional language. In this study, the dialect was Wagadi, and the standard regional language was Hindi, both in Devnagari script. The achievement of the two groups was measured through a functional literacy skills test designed for this study. The results showed that the overall functional literacy scores of the two groups were not significantly different. The overall functional literacy score was the sum of the scores on the component parts of literacy: reading, writing, comprehension, and numeracy. A further analysis showed that the Dialect Group had better scores than the Regional Language Group in writing and numeracy, but there was no significant difference in reading and comprehension scores. Teacher's record and assessment of the groups showed that the Dialect Group of the learners took fewer days to reach the basic literacy and numeracy level than did the Regional Language Group of learners. Teachers also rated the Dialect Group better than the Regional Language Group both in maintaining interest and in achievement although the perceived superiority in achievement was not substantiated by the research results.

Venkataiah (1977) conducted a study on the impact of farmers functional literacy programme in Andra Pradesh. To assess the impact of the literacy programme on the attainment of literacy skills was one of the objectives of this study. The major findings were as follows: (a) There was significant difference in the achievement of literacy skills between the experimental group and the control group. But there was no significant difference between the adult participants and the third standard school children with regard to the achievement of arithmetic skills. (b) Age and literacy skills were significantly related to each other and the age of the participants was
inversely related to the acquisition of the literacy skills. (c) There was positive association between the caste of the participants and their literacy skills. (d) The mean literacy achievement score increased significantly with the increase in the size of land holding of the participants. (e) There was a significant increase in the literacy achievement and acquisition of modern agriculture knowledge with the increase in the socio-economic status of the participants.

Shanker (1972) as cited by Pati (1996) conducted an experiment in functional literacy teaching through Naya Savera method. The experiment was carried out to find out literacy attainment of two groups of adult literacy class participants. The sample consisted of ten classes out of which two were treated as 'control group' and the remaining eight were 'experimental group'. The experimental group was further divided into two groups of which one group was given training for six months while the other was given training for nine months with the same syllabus. Tests were conducted to determine the literacy attainment of the participants. It further concluded that extending the period of training resulted in better writing speed but not reading speed.

The Directorate of Adult Education of the Ministry of Education and Social Welfare conducted a quick assessment of Rural Functional Literacy programme in Lucknow district in U.P. in November-December, 1970. This was an ex-post facto investigation with experimental and control groups and was conducted in four blocks covering sixteen villages and 320 respondents. The programme was found to be efficacious (a) in developing literacy skills of varying degrees of utility and (b) in effecting certain attitudinal changes among the participants (Pati, 1996).

Braham (1978) as cited by Pati (1996) and Kundu (1984) undertook an experiment to study the impact of functional literacy in the rural areas of Haryana and Delhi. The experimental group had 594 participating farmers of both sex in functional literacy classes. The control group had 200 illiterate adult farmers of both sex who were not participating in functional literacy programme and were drawn from villages other than those where functional literacy centres were functioning. The study revealed that functional literacy
programme had brought about a positive and significant change in the knowledge, attitude and adoption behaviour of the participants with respect to high yielding varieties programmes.

The first and the second appraisal of the National Adult Education Programme (NAEP) in Rajasthan state was conducted by Rao, et al. (1980) and Pestonjee, et al. (1980) at the Indian Institute of Management, Ahamedabad. The first appraisal pointed out that fifty to sixty percent adults per centre were definitely becoming literate. In spite of various limitations in the implementation process, the NAEP in Rajasthan was doing well. Similarly, the findings of the second appraisal revealed that the NAEP in Rajasthan had been running, by and large, satisfactorily (Pati, 1996).

Thakur (1993) reported a case study which was conducted to evaluate the performance of NAEP at the Tamar block in Bihar state on the basis of sample data and make constructive and pragmatic recommendations for further improvement. With respect to learners' literacy level, the study revealed that the performance of about 50 percent of the learners in their ability to write and do simple calculations was poor. The performance is somewhat better in their ability to read. The study also revealed that (a) the proportion of learners having poor performance in reading, writing or simple calculation were significantly smaller in centres started on April 1, 1979 than those in centres opened on June 1, 1979 or July 1, 1979, and (b) the proportion of learners having poor performance in reading, writing or simple calculations did not differ significantly between centres opened on June 1, 1979 and July 1, 1979.

Archer and Cottingham (1996) reported the experiences of three REFLECT (Regenerated Freirean Literacy Through Empowering Community Techniques) pilot projects in Uganda, Bangladesh and EL Salvador. In Bangladesh the results of the external evaluation established that the REFLECT approach was much more successful at teaching literacy and numeracy than the methods used in the control group. REFLECT groups scored 43% better in reading, 79% better in writing, 64% better in numeracy and 15% better in visual literacy. It was further noted that in the control
groups, performance was better in the upper age group while in the REFLECT groups performance was better in the lower age group.

In case of Uganda, the same basic literacy and numeracy tests, based on a standard design used elsewhere in the country, were conducted with learners in both REFLECT groups and control groups. It was found that all learners in 24 sample REFLECT circles passed the test except for one learner. In the control group only 55% of learners passed. The average score of REFLECT learners was 55%, with half of the learners scoring over 50%. This compares with an average score of 36% in the control groups.

In case of EL Salvador, the REFLECT approach had been applied in varying degree across the different literacy circles. Therefore, the evaluation was focused on the eight literacy circles where REFLET methodology had been applied. For comparison purpose the literacy classes of the municipal programme of CIAZO were taken. The results revealed that in overall terms 43% of those who were enrolled successfully completed the course in CIAZO'S municipal programme as compared to 65% in the COMOS REFLECT circles. The results regarding the self-evaluation of learning by the learners themselves showed that (a) 91% of REFLECT learners expressed satisfaction with their reading as compared to 42% of control group learners, (b) 94% of REFLECT learners expressed satisfaction with their writing as compared to 71% of control group learners, and (c) 82% of REFLECT learners expressed satisfaction with their numeracy skills as compared to 57% of control group learners.

The studies reviewed above can be classified into four categories viz. evaluative studies on AEP, language issue in AEP, relative effectiveness of two or more than two literacy approaches and experimental research in AEP. Most of the studies were evaluative in nature. Each of these studies has included the measurement of literacy achievement of the participants as one of its objectives. For this purpose, majority of them had administered the achievement test at the end of the programme to find out the achievement level of the participants. However, because of not administering pretest most of the
studies could not provide information on gain in literacy achievement. In a few experimental studies, pretest-posttest and control - experimental group design was used.

Most of the studies conducted in Nepal have categorized the final test takers of AEP in four categories viz. fully literate, literate, semi-literate and illiterate. Regarding the AEP in Nepal, the drop-out rate ranged from 40 to 62% and among the final test takers the proportion of the participants who were "literate" and "fully literate" ranged from 45 to 57%. Concerning the language issue, some studies revealed that imparting literacy skills to illiterate adults was less effective in second language than in first language.

No significant difference was found between the achievement level of male and female participants. Most of the studies conducted in Nepal showed that the participants demonstrated better performance in language than in numeracy whereas in some studies conducted in India, it was found that the learners did better in numeracy than in language.

Studies conducted in Bangladesh, Uganda and El Salvador showed that Regenerated Freirean Literacy through Empowering Community Technique (REFLECT) in which no primer was used, was superior to the existing AEP in which primer was used.

Only one study the review of which was mentioned above revealed that only the effect of treatment contributed to significant differences in learning of literacy whereas the effect of intelligence and socio-economic status did not contribute to significant differences in the learning of literacy.

1.10.2 Attitudinal Change and Achievement in Functionality

Most of the studies conducted in the field of adult education have included literacy achievement, attitudinal change and attainment of functional knowledge and skills. The review of findings related to attitudinal change and achievement in functionality drawn from those studies is mentioned below:
CERID (1982 c) concluded that overwhelming majority (over 89%) adults were found to have acquired adequate knowledge on the concepts and values of social reforms, health and hygiene, and modern agricultural practices from the literacy classes they had attended. The social reform included the knowledge about the importance of taking part in village development activities, the importance of giving education to both boys and girls, the evils of polygamy and child marriage, the importance of resolving problem through discussions and the need for eradicating caste prejudices. The health and hygiene consisted of the knowledge about the importance of keeping one's home and surroundings clean, the need and the technique of making pit latrines, the importance of making the water clean and safe for drinking, the importance of child care, the ways of treating common diseases and preparing nutritious baby food. Under agricultural practices the adults had acquire some valuable knowledge and skills on how to use compost manure, how to lay out a kitchen garden, how to use insecticide, how to grow fruits, wheat and maize, and why and where to plant trees. The knowledge received on family planning by the adults was comparatively less than that of other functionality aspects.

The impact of the AEP under the project "Education for Rural Development in Seti Zone of Nepal" was evaluated on the basis of the attitude of the AE participants towards development (CERID, 1986). In order to find out the attitude of AEP participants, a three-point Likert-type, 20-item attitude survey instrument was developed and administered to the relevant respondents who were located in the project area. The analysis of the attitude scores showed that the attitude developed by the adult education participants towards development and its related aspects was considerably positive. A further analysis of results showed a considerable positive attitude towards some of the important aspects of development, viz. agriculture, health and sanitation which are also the mainly focused aspects of the project activities. But the more publicized success of the female education, school and village clearing programmes appeared to have remained less attractive in the minds of the villagers in the project areas.
New ERA (1987b) concluded that the functional aspect of the literacy programme produced radical change in knowledge and attitudes of the participants. This study found a significant shift in attitude of the non-Nepali speaking participants towards tree plantation from protest to protest. The participants realized that tree plantation was the best method to control land slides and floods. New ERA (1987b) and (1987c) revealed a positive attitude towards educating girls after completing the adult education programme. Both of these studies also revealed that participants were found to have acquired functional knowledge related to treatment of diarrheal disease, measures of flood and landslide control, effects of polygamy, the consequences of having many children, measures for treating minor burns, measures for sanitation at and around the house, measures to prevent food contamination, causes of deforestation, dietary proscriptive measures for pregnant women, ideas related to childcare, reasons for protecting food from flies, advantages of smokeless stove and advantages of educating girls.

New ERA (1989) revealed that a sizable number of adult participants have acquired useful functional information in such areas as cleanliness and importance of latrine, oral rehydration and kitchen garden in their literacy classes. However, the coverage of other important functional areas, such as family planning and afforestation in literacy programme was found to be quite limited.

New ERA (1990) developed an attitude scale to assess the attitude of the participants towards education and functional aspects. Based on the results, the study concluded that in general, adult participants had expressed strong positive attitude towards sanitation, family planning and mother-child welfare, education of girls, adoption of new technology and improved practices, and the importance of united efforts in the development of the village community. The study stated that increased social awareness of the participants was one of the concrete outcomes of the literacy programme. In this study a high proportion of supervisors had noted a change in the attitude of adult participants as a result of the literacy programme. Supervisors' observation on attitudinal change was substantiated by the high score of the participants on attitude scale.
Women Education Programme (WEP) I was a type of basic level adult education programme exclusively designed for women of 14 to 45 age group. It was evaluated internally in 1991 in three sample districts (BPEP, 1993). The evaluation study revealed that WEP intervention brought a positive attitude and inculcated substantive functional knowledge in women participants. Behavioural changes were observed in cooking habits (42%), giving up smoking (18%), maintaining house-accounts, preparing Oral Rehydration Solution, sending their children to school (specially girls) and maintaining cleanliness.

Smith, Comings and Shrestha (1995) reported that a health knowledge test was used in their study to judge the effectiveness of the HEAL (Health and Adult Literacy) project in helping women acquire knowledge about a number of health issues, including oral rehydration, family planning, birth spacing, water sanitation, immunization and AIDS. Independent t-test results showed that the significant difference between groups existed between the HEAL (six months plus supplementary health materials) and the control group. Similarly, the difference between PCRW (Production Credit for Rural Women) subjects and the control subjects was not significant, nor was the difference between HEAL and PCRW after the basic course. However, the HEAL three-months post literacy course did make a significant difference in health knowledge gain.

Venkataiah (1977) concluded that the experimental group had significantly higher knowledge in modern agricultural practices and more favourable attitude towards improved agricultural practices and adult literacy than their counterparts in the control group. Similarly, this study found that the participants of higher land size holders' group and higher socio-economic status showed more favourable attitude towards improved agricultural practices and adult literacy. Again, the study revealed that the younger the participants, the greater was the possibility of imbibing favourable attitude towards improved agricultural practices and adult literacy. Moreover, the higher caste groups showed more favourable attitude towards higher agricultural practices than the lower and the scheduled castes.
Brahma (1978) as cited by Pati (1986) conducted a study with the purpose of finding out the impact of functional literacy component of Farmer Training and Functional Literacy programme on the farmers with regard to their knowledge, attitude and adoption behaviour towards high yielding varieties programmes, besides their attainments in literacy skills. The study revealed that the functional literacy programme had been instrumental in bringing about a positive and significant change in the knowledge, status, attitudinal level and adoption behaviour with respect to high yielding varieties programme of participating farmers.

Sharma (1991) concluded that about 80% learners thought of adult education not beyond literacy. There was less than 20% learners who related adult education to acquire information on social, political, cultural and economic issues besides the ability to improve job skills. The learners could not realize that literacy would enhance their self-respect, make them more self-reliant, more aware of their deprivation, exploitation and causes of their own deprivation. Besides, the learners have not been able to do well on awareness test. The study revealed that only 50% centres in the university system and 20% in the state provided occupational information to the learners.

Rath (1994) concluded that AEP had positive impact upon awareness since workers' awareness scores were higher in post-test session in comparison to pretest session. There was no significant difference between male and female workers on awareness. The study revealed that the comparatively lower performance of scheduled caste and scheduled tribe workers in acquiring awareness might be because of their lower socio-economic background than general workers. The study further confirmed that AEP had positive impact on workers in changing their attitude positively towards adult education. Male and female workers did not differ significantly on their attitude towards AEP. Moreover, AEP had positive as well as universal impact upon all sections of people on working skills.

Saini (1990) found that variable of intelligence did not contribute to significant differences in the learning of functionality and awareness. Similarly
the variable of socio-economic status did not contribute to significant differences in the learning of functionality and awareness. There was difference between the urban and rural adults in the learning of functionality. Likewise, there was difference between the urban and rural adults in the learning of awareness. In both cases, the results were in support of urban adults.

The State Resource Centre of Tamil Nadu undertook a study to analyze the learners' attitude towards literacy in Adult Education Centres of Tamil Nadu and Pondichery (Mariappan, 1982). The data were collected through interview. The study revealed that ninety six percent men and ninety four percent women expressed their positive attitude and their desire for literacy. More importantly, this study gave the following suggestions to make the AEP more effective: (a) In order to arouse and sustain the interest of adults in learning, more time in the centres may be spent in group discussions, panel discussion, role plays, problem dramas, sharing of experiences, finding solution to common problems etc.. (b) An increase in the honorarium of the animators may help them to work with increased energy and fervour. (c) Frequent and surprise visits by the government functionaries may arouse the interest and enthusiasm of the animators to teach and that of the learners to learn.

In a study conducted by Chouhan and Rai (1984), two separate attitude scales were used to find out the attitude of tribal and non-tribal farmers towards adult literacy and improved agricultural practices. A sample of 200 male farmers was drawn through purposive and random sampling method. There were 100 farmers in tribal group and the same number in non-tribal group. Again, two groups were formed from those 200 sample farmers. The small farmers' group consisted of 100 farmers and the marginal farmers' group had 100 farmers. The study concluded that the attitude towards adult literacy was significantly more favourable among non-tribals than tribals and significantly more favourable among small farmers than marginal farmers. Similarly, the attitude towards improved agricultural practices was significantly more favourable among non-tribals than tribals and significantly more favourable among small farmers than marginal farmers.
Most of the evaluative studies on AEP reviewed above dealt with the functional messages and skills acquired by the participants and attitude of the participants towards education and/or functional aspect(s) after the treatment of AEP. Some of these studies were found to have administered attitude scale or interview or questionnaire at the end of the AEP. Some of them also had experimental and control group. The participants in experimental group in some studies and the participants in other studies had favorable attitude towards education and/or functional aspect(s). Because all the studies did not administer pretest, these studies could not provide information on gain in attitude measurement. Moreover, all the studies except one revealed that majority of the participants had acquired awareness and/or functional aspect(s) in considerable amount. One of the studies reviewed above indicated that the variables of intelligence and socio-economic states did not contribute to significant differences in the learning of functionality and awareness.

1.10.3 Use of Functional and Literacy Knowledge and Skills in Daily Life Activities

A few studies which dealt with or included the use of functional and literacy knowledge and skills acquired by the participants in AEP in their daily life activities were found. The review of such studies is mentioned below.

CERID (1982 c) revealed that a majority of adults (74%) were found to have put into practice the knowledge and skills they had learnt about keeping their homes and environments clean.

An analysis of the field visitors' reports which were based on their observations was made for an appraisal of the village environment where adult literacy classes were held in the previous years (CERID, 1986). The results, in general, showed some change, but not to a great extent, in the villagers' life style specially in the field of construction and use of latrines, rubbish pits and compost pits.

New ERA (1987a) reported that literacy, to some extent, was practiced by reading available books, writing letters and helping children at home. A few
of the participants were employed as day care centres' teachers. Goat raising and grocery shopping were the main income-generating activities started by the neo-literate women in different post-literacy learning groups with some loan from the learning fund. This study suggested to extend the duration of the AEP up to, at least, eight months and to include the income generating activities so that the participants become confident that they would be able to earn money after completing the AEP.

Belbase (1989) found that about 86% neo-literates acquired a knowledge of functional skills and a majority of them said that they had put this knowledge into practice by digging compost pits, constructing pit latrines, using new agricultural practices, family planning, health and sanitation. Specifically, this study showed that a high proportion of respondents of various caste/ethnic groups viz. Brahmin and Chhetri (Nepali speaking group) and Tamang (Tamang speaking group) had pit latrine and pits for compost fertilizers. Again, the respondents of various caste/ethnic groups speaking Nepali, Magar, Tamang and Newar mother tongues had kitchen gardens. It also revealed that the participants were in favour of separate class for female participants and female facilitators for female classes. They expected more functional messages and skills from the AEP. Moreover, this study recommended to select NFE centres based on the specific needs of various ethnic groups and disadvantageed communities, to extend the duration of the existing AEP up to nine-month, to extend the duration of facilitators' training and to provide better incentives to the facilitators. Similarly, this study recommended that the programme of post-literacy and continuing education be arranged for promoting retention of literacy skills of the neo-literates and the local leaders be made responsible for ensuring the regular functioning of NFE centres.

New ERA (1990) found that despite shortcomings in the implementation and low internal efficiency of the literacy programme, the use and impact of literacy skills, albeit to a limited extent, presented an encouraging picture. More than 50% of the participants have used functional
skills in their daily life activities. Adult participants had reported improvement in the use of safe water, immunization, and visits to health post. The study found that adult participants used health knowledge and skills more than any other skills. However, about one-fourth of the total participants had used reading and writing skills in their daily life. The use of numeracy skills was found to be minimal.

Karmacharya (1995) found that the local pilot project conducted to promote literacy among youth and adults in Sarlahi district had positive impact on the daily life of the participants specially in the field of health habit, frankness in dealing with others, reading habit and education of children.

Duijnhouwer (1996) found that impact of literacy classes on adoption of functional activities was varied. It was revealed about two thirds of the selected group of women in Mahottari and Solukhumbu districts of Nepal had planted trees on private land and knew how to prepare jeewan jal (Rehydration solution) whereas only one third made pit latrines. The interviewed women of both districts responded that they felt confident in talking to strangers.

The findings mentioned by Leve, Leslie and Manandhar (1997) in a report on 10-year retrospective literacy and empowerment were as follows: Reading, writing and basic math help participants to read the documents that appear in their life, write letters, make purchases, run shops and initiate income-generating activities, and work as women's' group leaders, project enumerators, and community health volunteers.

CERID (1997) found that the control group had mainly been involved in agriculture while the experimental group seemed to adopt some more new areas for source of income. Hence, the income level is different in between two groups of people who participated and did not participate in AEP. The study found that both groups were joining the community organizations, although the percentage of the control group was small in comparison to the experimental group. Similarly, more people from the experimental group seemed to keep record of accounts like household related papers, expenses and
others. In terms of sending sons and daughters, there seemed still some control group respondents (19%) who believed boys should go to school and girls did not need to go to school whereas the experimental group believed both boys and girls should get equal opportunity to go to school.

Rath (1994) concluded that AEP had positive as well as universal impact upon all section of people on working skills viz. workers' punctuality towards duty, workers' attention at the time of work, workers' cleanliness during operation of machine and packing of cotton packets, workers' ability of clear communication and workers' cooperation among themselves during working period and training period.

Luitel (1996) conducted a study based on case studies with six Maithili mother tongue speaking women of a village in Nepal who participated in the literacy programme. This study concluded that literacy had been able to generate an undercurrent of an empowerment process among the Maithili women due to their exposure to a written culture which differed from their oral culture. To be literate itself has become a power for them in the largely illiterate society. Their knowledge of reading and writing made them able to write their signature in the bank and for official matters. They were able to read the bus number and the place where the bus was going. Their reading ability also helped them to read the labels on goods in shops, reading posters and sign boards etc. It was also reported that the knowledge provided to women was limited to areas of the household, health and sanitation and had little impact in their day to day practice. To some degree, they were not able to use knowledge in practice because of family structure.

A few studies reviewed above dealt with the use of functional and literacy knowledge and skills acquired by the adults in AEP in their daily life activities. These studies except one reported that most of the adults were found to have used the functional and literacy skills in their daily life which they had acquired in AEP. In other words, they were able to take due advantage from functional and literacy skills acquired in AEP in one form or another. Some of
these studies also revealed that a few adults after completing AEP started income generating activities.

1.10.4 Related Studies on Model of Non-Formal Adult Education

Very few studies were found to have undertaken on 'Model of Non-formal Adult Education'. The review of these studies (Aryal, 1977; Malhotra, 1990; Lamichanne, 1992) is mentioned below:

Aryal (1977) conducted a study on "The Perspectives of Non-formal Education as a Strategy for Development". The dissertation was prepared at the theoretical level. The investigator concluded that two reciprocally conflicting perspectives had got dominance in contemporary thought of non-formal education. These were liberationism (conflict school) and reformism (functional school). He argued that it would be mere theory to make non-formal education as a means of generating knowledge and skills for development or to make it as a means of generating consciousness for social liberation. He believes that the knowledge, skills and consciousness all are needed for development.

Most importantly, the investigator developed a paradigm entitled "The Paradigm of Empowered Participative Development" (or the EPD construct) based on a number of sub-constructs. The paradigm is presented in Figure 1.8.
FIGURE 1.8
A Paradigmatic Representation of the Criterion Referents used for the Assessment of the Constructs on NFE Development
(Scale for the Variables: Low to High)

This Paradigm has three dimensions. The 'Goal' and 'Control' dimensions jointly represent the power-element and the 'Distributivity of Knowledge' represents the potential distributive efficiency of knowledge. The investigator is of the opinion that several NFE programmes may fall under dimensions as revealed by any one of the eight triangles. This paradigm indicates the empowerment of people on both the participation dimension and the dimension of cognition defines the scope and potential for non-formal education.

Malhotra (1990) conducted a study to identify the learning needs of the rural and tribal youths of Bihar and to propose a programme of response based on the identified learning needs. The proposed programme of response was being predicated in order to increase the impact and import of the AEP in human resource development process with a view to catalyzing national development. The proposed qualitative change in the AEP can be brought
about in three main phases PUBLICITY, ATTRACTION and REMODELING which are sequential and interactive in nature and which comprise the proposed "PAR MODEL". PUBLICITY - the first phase of the model included measures to publicize the AEP through the use of mass media, folk media and distribution of leaflets, folders, brochures, pamphlets and booklets. ATTRACTION - the second phase consists of steps to enhance attraction of the illiterate youths towards AEP. To achieve this objective, changes were to be made in the areas of content, instruction, physical conditions and vocational training. Moreover, tribal language and culture should be given recognition in primers and mother tongue should be adopted as medium of instruction especially in the context of tribals. The learning needs identified in the whole rural youth sample were literacy, numeracy, social awareness and vocational training. REMODELING - the third phase of the model dealt with the strategies to make the present AEP more efficacious. Under this phase the strategic thrusts were to be made in content, instruction, physical conditions, vocational training and administration. The functionaries had suggested that modifications should be made in the administration of the AEP to make it more effective and need based. Better cooperation among staff at different levels was a vital function of the administrative system which would be achieved by an uninhibited flow of information consisting of a bi-directional feedback involving the AEP and allied agencies, interstrata and intrastrata functionaries of AEP resulting in "closed loop" integrated system.

Lamichanne (1992) undertook a study with a view to develop a conceptual framework of non-formal education having the potential for improving the quality of life among the illiterate adults of Nepal. Having critically examined the current perspectives of non-formal education programmes viz. Radical Emancipatory, Liberal Emancipatory, Human Resource Development and Rural Development, the investigator drew relevant ideas from these perspectives for Nepal. Then, a new conceptual framework of non-formal adult education was proposed with focus on learning
requirements for the empowerment of illiterate rural adults for an improved existence. The model framework is presented in Figure 1.9.

Development of critical perceptive power through conscientization, oriented to organized negotiation-prone movement for system-centered change

Integration of learning and doing by drawing on basic developmental needs of a given context

Building developmental skills in individuals through technical/vocational training resulting in increased GNP

Building psychological power to arouse one's own inner frontier of capabilities through self-directed participant-centered learning

**FIGURE 1.9**

**Integrated Empowerment Framework of Non-formal Adult Education**

As shown Figure 1.9, the empowerment as it relates to the illiterate rural adult population of Nepal, consists in generating various abilities for achieving humane qualities of living. In this connection, forms of empowerment may be envisaged differently such as, empowerment through fostering critical perspective ability, empowerment through recognizing one's own innate talents and self-worth, empowerment through acquiring socially and economically gainful skills, and empowerment through implementing the acquired skills by closing the gap existing between people and services.

Only three studies which dealt with model of non-formal adult education were found for review purpose. One of them which was prepared at the theoretical level suggested to include knowledge, skills and consciousness in non-formal education. This study developed a paradigm of non-formal education which indicated that the empowerment of people on both the participation dimension and the dimension of cognition defines the scope and
potential for non-formal education. The second study suggested that the proposed qualitative change in the AEP could be brought about by PAR model. The three main phases of this model were Publicity, Attraction and Remodelling. The third study developed a new conceptual model framework of non-formal adult education with focus on learning requirements for the empowerment of illiterate rural adults for an improved human existence.

Besides the studies mentioned above, a few studies which, in one way or another, provided some relevant information for developing a proposed model of AEP were identified. The findings of three of them are given below:

Ministry of Education and Culture (1991) while preparing Basic and Primary Education Master Plan, 1991-2001 recommended to include skill-oriented programme/vocational training in order to motivate the participants, to replace the current quota-based system of NFE centres by demand-based system, to use multi-lingual approach or develop different sets of materials in major well developed languages of Nepal and to make a provision of better incentive system for facilitators. Moreover, Ministry of Education (1997) proposed the concept of collaborative monitoring at the village level.

CERID (1996) undertook a study to find out the causes of declining adult participation in NFE literacy programme. The study found that in the beginning, the adults' participation was satisfactory. But the study revealed that the programme had not been able to motivate adults and retain them. As a result, the drop-out rate went high. The study identified that the inconvenient location of the adult literacy classes, inappropriate teaching methods and poor facilities provided to the participants were the causes of declining adult participation in literacy classes. Moreover, the higher castes had a higher participation and the lower castes, a much lower participation.

In order to improve the adults' participation, the study recommended to provide appropriate training to the facilitators so that they can motivate the adults for the lessons and subsidiary activities. It suggested to provide a variety of reading materials and extra facilities, such as money, clothes etc. to the
participants of ethnic minorities. This study also suggested to include the income generating activities in the AEP so that the participants would be able to earn money after completing the AEP.

1.11 Rationale of the Study

Nepal is a multi-lingual country where people speak 32 mother tongues (CBS, 1998). As per the census of 1991, Nepali speakers were 50.31\% of the total population. Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu and Tamang mother tongue speakers were about 11.85, 7.46, 5.37 and 4.89 percent respectively (CBS, 1998). Nepali mother tongue speaking people are residing in all the districts of the country whereas the people speaking other mother tongues live in some districts.

The Nepali in the Devnagari script is the official language in Nepal (Ministry of Law and Justice, 1997). It is the medium of instruction in the kingdom of Nepal (Education Act, 1971 and Education Regulation, 1992, the fifth amendment). In conformity with this, the primers being used in adult education programmes are prepared in Nepali language. The primer called Naya Goreto- Pahilo ra Doshro Paila (New Path- Step I and II) written in Nepali language is being used in the basic level Adult Education Programme (AEP) of Nepali and non-Nepali mother tongue speaking groups.

The existing AEP has been in operation since 1985 and no substantial improvement has been made in it (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1991). NEC (1992) states that (i) the AEP is not evolved in response to the need and demand for the targeted groups, and (ii) no attempt has been made to diversify its contents from geographical and ethnic standpoint. Manandhar (1993) found that the primer (Naya Goreto) of the existing AEP was not suitable to all language groups and ethnic groups. Similarly, Tuladhar (1998) also revealed that the primer, being developed in the hill culture, and in Nepali language only, could not yield to effective outcome in the literacy programmes in other parts of the country where the people do not share the culture and language with that of the primer. In this context, the following questions need to be
answered: Whether the use of single primer written in Nepali language brings about the same result in the adult education classes of Nepali and different non-Nepali mother tongue speaking groups? Whether there will be significant differences between the achievement level of adult education classes speaking Nepali and different non-Nepali mother tongues? Have these adult education classes been able to bring about the same level of positive attitude in the participants speaking different mother tongues towards social practices, education and functional aspects? Furthermore, it is still unanswered how far the treatment of single primer written in Nepali language given to adult education classes of different mother tongue speaking groups has been effective to enable the participants to use the knowledge and skills related to literacy and functionality in their daily life.

A few studies (CERID, 1982c; New ERA, 1990; Manandhar, 1993; Smith, Comings and Shrestha, 1995) were undertaken to get preliminary answers to some questions raised above. As revealed by the first study (CERID, 1982c), Nepali speaking adults made better progress than non-Nepali speaking adults in the language sub-test, arithmetic sub-test and total literacy test. The study states that the Nepali speakers were found to have an advantage over non-Nepali speakers because of the favourable effect of Nepali as the first language to them (CERID, 1982c). However, this study did not specify the achievement of different non-Nepali speaking groups separately. According to the next study (New ERA, 1990), no significant association was found between language spoken at home and literacy achievement. In case of adult education classes run by Small Farmers Development Programme, Nepali speaking participants demonstrated a slightly higher performance than non-Nepali speaking participants. The finding was just opposite in adult education classes run by Production Credit for Rural Women, with non-Nepali speaking participants performing slightly better than Nepali-speaking participants. But aggregate data indicated slightly higher average achievement level for Nepali-speaking participants than for non-Nepali speaking participants. The difference was statistically significant. This study states that the relationship between language group and literacy achievement appears to
be very complex and requires careful as well as in-depth investigation (New ERA, 1990).

The third study (Manandhar, 1993) states that the use of the single primer "Naya Goreto" regardless of differences in culture, language and location of the target group, began to draw the attention of literacy practitioners throughout the country. However, it could not give a clear comparative picture of effectiveness of the use of the single primer in different mother tongue speaking groups. It rather recommended to conduct a more in-depth analysis in a wider scale in this language issue (Manandhar, 1993). Similarly, Smith, Comings and Shrestha (1995) also suggested to conduct a study on this language issue. Furthermore, NEC (1992) recommended that (i) programme models designed by non-governmental organizations should be studied, and attempts should be made to apply creative and successful ones to other areas as well, and (ii) requisite studies and research should to mounted and model materials should be evolved to create reading materials in Nepali and other languages/dialects of Nepal. In this context, it is quite relevant to get the answers of the following questions: What should be the structure of a better AEP and its implementation strategy? What type of support system is required for effective implementation of AEP? How should the implementation of AEP be monitored and evaluated? To the knowledge of the investigator, no comprehensive study, which deals with the foregoing problems and issues, has been undertaken.

Having reflected upon the aforementioned questions, problems and issues of the existing AEP, and the preliminary findings and recommendations of the related studies, a strong need was felt to undertake a study for assessing the effectiveness of the existing AEP being run under National Non-formal Education Council in different mother tongue speaking groups. Furthermore, a proposed model of AEP which addresses the inherent weaknesses of the existing AEP and which is relevant and applicable to multi-lingual rural areas of Nepal, needs to be developed.
1.12 Statement of the Problem

In view of the above background and rationale the present study is entitled as "Effectiveness of Adult Education Programme in Nepal: A Proposed Model for Rural Areas."

1.13 Objectives of the Study

The general objective of this study was to assess the effectiveness of basic level Adult Education Programme (AEP) in which a single primer called "Naya Goreto" written in Nepali language was being used for adult education classes of Nepali and non-Nepali mother tongue speaking groups. The specific objectives of this study were as follows:

1. To determine the effectiveness of the single primer written in Nepali language being implemented in the adult education classes of different mother tongue speaking groups based on the literacy achievement,

2. To compare the attitudinal change of the adult education participants speaking different mother tongues towards social practices, education and functional aspects,

3. To assess the effectiveness of AEP based on its impact on functional activities and use of literacy skills in the daily life of the adults who had completed AEP, and

4. To develop a proposed model of AEP applicable and relevant to the multi-lingual rural areas of Nepal in terms of:

   4.1 Structure of adult education programme,

   4.2 Implementation strategy,

   4.3 Support system and

   4.4 Monitoring and evaluation.
1.14 Hypotheses of the Study

The null hypotheses tested in this study were as follows:

**Literacy Achievement**

1. There are no significant differences between the mean gain scores obtained by Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu and Tamang MTS groups in reading and writing Nepali language.

2. There are no significant differences between the mean gain scores obtained by Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu and Tamang MTS groups in numeracy skills.

3. There are no significant differences between the mean gain scores obtained by Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu and Tamang MTS groups in language and numeracy as a whole.

**Attitudinal Change**

4. There are no significant differences between mean gain scores of Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu and Tamang MTS groups in relation to their attitudinal change towards social practices.

5. There are no significant differences between mean gain scores of Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu and Tamang MTS groups with respect to their attitudinal change towards education.

6. There are no significant differences between mean gain scores of Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu and Tamang MTS groups with respect to their attitudinal change toward sanitary practices.

7. There are no significant differences between mean gain scores of Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu and Tamang MTS groups with respect to their attitudinal change towards health practices.

8. There are no significant differences between mean gain scores of Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu and Tamang MTS groups with respect to their attitudinal change towards conservation of forest and tree plantation.
9. There are no significant differences between mean gain scores of Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu and Tamang MTS groups with respect to their attitudinal change towards agricultural practices.

10. There are no significant differences between mean gain scores of Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu and Tamang MTS groups with respect to their attitudinal change towards mother-child welfare.

11. There are no significant differences between mean gain scores of Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu and Tamang MTS groups with respect to their attitudinal change towards social practices, education, sanitary practices, health practices, conservation of forest and tree plantation, agricultural practices and mother-child welfare as a whole.

Impact of AEP on Functional Activities and Use of Literacy Skills

12. There are no significant differences between the mean scores of Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu and Tamang MTS groups with respect to the activities related to awareness performed by them.

13. There are no significant differences between the mean scores of Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu and Tamang MTS groups with respect to the activities related to sanitary practices followed by them.

14. There are no significant differences between the mean scores of Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu and Tamang MTS groups in relation to the modern health practices followed by them.

15. There are no significant differences between the mean scores of Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu and Tamang MTS groups in relation to the usefulness of knowledge and skills gained in AEP for the works of agriculture and income generation.

16. There are no significant differences between the mean scores of Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu and Tamang MTS groups in relation to the activities carried out for conservation of forest and tree plantation.

17. There are no significant differences between the mean scores of Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu and Tamang MTS groups in relation to the activities related to mother-child welfare performed by them.
18. There are no significant differences between the mean scores of Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu and Tamang MTS groups in relation to the impact of AEP on their overall functional activities of their daily life.

19. There are no significant differences between the mean scores of Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu and Tamang MTS groups in relation to the use of reading skills acquired in AEP in their daily life activities.

20. There are no significant differences between the mean scores of Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu and Tamang MTS groups in relation to the use of writing skills acquired in AEP in their daily life activities.

21. There are no significant differences between the mean scores of Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu and Tamang MTS groups in relation to the use of numeracy skills acquired in AEP in their daily life activities.

22. There are no significant differences between the mean scores of Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu and Tamang MTS groups in relation to the use of overall reading, writing and numeracy skills acquired in AEP in their daily life activities.

23. There are no significant differences between the mean scores of Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu and Tamang MTS groups in relation to the impact of AEP on the functional activities and use of literacy skills in their daily life.

1.15 Delimitations of the Study

This study has the following delimitations:

1. This study deals with the six-month basic level adult education programme (adult basic education) for illiterate adults of 15-45 years organized only in rural areas.

2. This study focuses only on six-month basic level adult education programme which is run by governmental or non-governmental organization and which uses the primer "Naya Goreto-- Pahilo ra Doshro Paila" (New Path - Step I and II).
3. During field visit three types of AE classes in terms of the participants speaking different mother tongues were found. Of them, AE classes exclusively with the participants speaking sample mother tongues were included in this study.

4. Literacy achievement test does not include oral/spoken test.

1.16 Significance of the Study

In a developing country like Nepal, a majority of people live in the rural areas and mostly are dependent on agriculture. Ignorance, inability, fatalistic outlook and self-depreciation of the rural farmers are some of the elements that impede rural development in developing countries (Freire, 1972 and Aryal, 1987). Moreover, the oppressed consciousness of these rural farmers would deter them from making the full utilization of their potentialities (Mainali, 1988). Owing to this, they are bogged down in what Freire (1972) describes the "Culture of silence" and temporarily lose or underutilize the capacity of comprehending why they are caught in poverty. Illiteracy is the main cause of such a worst situation. In 1991, 39.6% of the total population in Nepal were found to have been literate (CBS, 1995). It is estimated that the literacy rate in Nepal has reached 48% in 1998 (Ninth Plan, 1998). It indicates that Nepal has to make a stride to root out illiteracy. Eradicating illiteracy, thus, has been the subject of growing concern for numbers of governmental organizations (GOs), non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and international non-governmental organizations (INGOs). These NGOs and INGOs have been conducting basic level adult education and non-formal education programmes in their own ways in limited districts (Refer to sub-section 1.7 for more details). To co-ordinate the NFE activities of these organizations, to formulate policies regarding NFE and to manage NFE programmes, National Non-formal Education Council (NNEC) was established in 1992 under Ministry of Education. NNEC's six-month adult education programme with the primer "Naya Goreto" written in Nepali language has been conducted massively in all 75 districts of the country for last three years. Apart from making adults literate, this AEP has incorporated
functionality and social awareness as its integral parts. This programme should have been almost equally suitable and useful for all mother-tongue speaking groups. However, the related studies and the results of the present study showed that this presumption did not hold true.

Because this study assesses its relative effectiveness in different mother-tongue speaking groups, this study will serve as a useful and meaningful point of reference to NNEC to increase illiterate adults' spontaneous participation, to reduce dropouts and to provide literacy and functionality knowledge and skills in a better way. Furthermore, it helps the GOs and NGOs in the design and implementation of adult education programmes. Similarly, this study will be of significance for the INGOs to provide technical and financial support to enhance Nepalese AEP. This study has developed a proposed model of AEP for multi-lingual rural areas of Nepal which could be the field of further research for interested research scholars.