CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

The qualities of a nation's people have an important influence on its prosperity and growth. Human beings are the sources of ideas, decisions, actions and innovations. In the forward of the Seventh Five-Year Plan, the Late Prime Minister of India Sh. Rajiv Gandhi has observed: "Development is not just about factories, dams and roads. Development is basically about the people. The goal is the people's material, cultural and spiritual fulfilment. The human factor, the human context, is of supreme value. We must pay much greater attention to these questions in future". Eradication of illiteracy is an indispensable component of human resource development. Literacy is an essential tool for communication and learning, for acquiring and sharing information, a precondition for individual's growth and for national development. Harbison (1965) has rightly remarked: "the wealth of a country is dependent upon more than its natural resources and material capital; it is determined in significant degrees by the knowledge, skills and motivation of its people".

It has been recognised that the quality of labour force is just as important as or even more important than the quantity. An untrained labour force, howsoever many hours it works per day, will yield only a lower per capita output. It is obvious that an illiterate worker engaged in a semi-skilled job can not improve his efficiency or adapt himself
to modern techniques without acquiring basic literacy and numeracy. It needs no repetition that ignorant people can not build up, operate and maintain an elaborate modern economy. Indian Education Commission (1964-66) has remarked that there can be no hope of making the country self-sufficient in food unless the farmer himself is moved out of his age long conservatism through a scientific based education, becomes interested in experimentation and is ready to adopt techniques that increase yields. The same is true in case of industry.

Education has been regarded as a very powerful agent for increasing the potential of human resources. If this processing is effective, the nation's productivity and self-reliance increases. Therefore, to raise the productivity of a nation, education of the citizens is essential. Hence, the concern for education of every single individual on the globe is indispensable. On the other hand, looking from the individual's point of view, universalisation of minimum essential education is necessary. Empirical researches showed that though school is the most popular system for providing education, it has become costlier and incapable of providing education to all. Schools do not contribute significantly to the performance of the child in a real life situation. It is becoming a hindrance in the way of social change and helping the society to perpetuate itself with all the social evils. Such a view has been supported by Ivan Illich in 'Deschooling Society', Paulo Freire in 'Cultural Action for Freedom' and
'Pedagogy of the Oppressed'. So the ineffectiveness of formal schooling as well as financial constraint attracted the attention of concerned thinkers to suggest a supplementary system to cope with the problem. As a result, adult education, correspondence education, open education, informal education, recurrent education came into existence and continued to be tried in one form or another in different parts of the world.

A. The History of Adult Education

One of the longest running purposes for which education has been offered to adults has been to teach them to read and write. The history of literacy began almost 5000 years ago when writing was invented. There were active campaigns to this end in Europe in the eighteenth-century, through-out the nineteenth and in twentieth centuries. Now, advanced countries are becoming aware that a new effort is required for their own native-born citizens. In many developing countries, the drive for literacy is otherwise known as adult education. The history of adult education has been described in three dimensions as follows:

1. Diffusion of Literacy in Europe

Cippola (1969) stated that: "with the emergence of the nation-state, in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries in Europe, and areas of European settlement, it became meaningful to speak of literacy policies. Literacy apparently advanced rapidly in Europe from the fifteenth century onward and by the middle of the nineteenth century, it is estimated
that more than half of the adult population could read". The emergence of vernacular languages in written form, which gradually displaced Latin, provided scope for popular literacy. The industrial revolution also provided an impetus for literacy. So, the programme of literacy was the consequences of cultural, social, economic and technological forces. The spread of literacy in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries rescued science from the sterility of the universities and brought it into the workplace where applied and experimental sciences, the precursors of modern sciences, came into being. Conversely, in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, science was harnessed to technology and provided the motivation for literacy. The nature of work and the manner of life were so altered that the abilities to read and write and calculate became essential economic skills and not merely scholarly attributes. The eighteenth and nineteenth centuries were auspicious for literacy. By the end of the nineteenth century, the state had emerged as the dominant force in education, the school as the main instrument of education policy. The Soviet Literacy Campaign inaugurated in 1919, was perhaps the first example of a state policy directed for the eradication of illiteracy among both adults and school going children. The Soviet Literacy Campaign is a fascinating and instructive chapter in the history of education. Following the second World War, literacy programmes and campaigns became more common throughout the world. As President Nyerere of Tanzania explained: "First we
must educate adults. Our children will not have an impact on our economic development for five, ten or even twenty years".

ii. UNESCO's Contribution Towards Adult Education Programme

A historical perspective revealed that adult education concept has been changing in international conferences. The conference of 1929 (Cambridge University) and 1942 (Conference of Denmark, Elsinore) held a narrow view of adult education and equated it with "Liberal Education", meant for a few privilege upper and middle classes. UNESCO as the organization of the United Nations System, most immediately became concerned with the problem of illiteracy. In 1946, Julian Huxley, who was to become UNESCO's first Director General, called the attention of the preparatory commission of UNESCO to the "existence of immense number of people who lack the most elementary means of participating in the modern world". In 1960, in Montreal Conference, adult education was seen as less a marginal enterprise serving the personal interests of relatively few people and more as an essential component of any nation's policy for coping with the pressure of change and improving the quality of life. It transcended both liberal and vocational education and included any organised attempt to educate adult, no matter what the level or what the purpose. Envisaging illiteracy as a curse afflicting humanity as a whole, the General Assembly of the United Nations adopted a resolution in 1961 on international co-operation for the eradication of illiteracy throughout the world. This resolution invited UNESCO to make
a general review of the question and to submit to the General Assembly a survey of mass illiteracy in the world together with recommendations on measures which might be taken with the framework of the United Nations for cooperation in the eradication of illiteracy. Following the submission of a report by the Directorate-General of UNESCO with reference to the foregoing resolution, the General Assembly of the United Nations adopted a resolution on the 11th December, 1963, entitled "World Campaign for Universal Literacy". The Resolution, contained separate recommendations to state governments in whose territories, mass illiteracy was no longer a major problem as well as to non-governmental organizations active or interested in the field of education. The resolution of the General Assembly decided to take up the world campaign for universal literacy as a major activity in the development Decade. The responsibility of the world campaign was entrusted to UNESCO by the General Assembly. With the help of an international committee of experts on literacy convened in Paris from 1st to 10th April, 1964, UNESCO prepared a world literacy programme which was placed before the 13th General Conference of UNESCO held in Paris in October-November, 1964. The conference proposed to initiate in 1966 a Five-year Experimental World Literacy Programme designed to pave the way for the eventual execution of a world campaign in this field. Member-states were encouraged to contribute technical and financial assistance to the less fortune states to whom mass illiteracy is a key problem. The
13th General Conference of UNESCO also accepted the invitation of the Iranian Government to hold in 1965-66 a world congress on eradication of world illiteracy in Teheran to which member states and Associate-Members of UNESCO would be invited. The conference stated that: "Rather than an end in itself (functional), literacy should be regarded as a way of preparing man for a social, civic and economic role that goes far beyond the limits of rudimentary literacy training consisting merely in the teaching of reading and writing. The very process of learning to read and write should be made an opportunity for acquiring information that can immediately be used to improve living standards. Reading and writing should lead not only to elementary general knowledge but to training for work, increased productivity a greater participation in civic life and a better understanding of the surrounding world, and should ultimately open the way to basic human culture". UNESCO, The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and various national governments were engaged for conducting Experimental World Literacy Programme (EWLP).

The Third International Conference on Adult Education, convened in Tokyo, 1972 invited UNESCO to investigate the desirability of elaborating on international normative instrument setting out the principles and fundamental problems of adult education. A preliminary draft of the recommendation on the Development of Adult Education was subsequently prepared and sent to all UNESCO member states for comment in the year 1975. It undertook to define the
theory and practice of adult education in the context of life-long learning and to mobilize political support for action at the national level. Thirty-six member states, twelve of which were developing countries, responded with comments bearing on matters of both the form and substance of the preliminary draft. A revised draft was then prepared taking these comments into account and submitted to a special committee of technical and legal experts, which met in Paris in June, 1976 and was attended by specialists from 69 countries and some to international organisations. At the final meeting, a text was approved which consisted of a preamble and 67 articles divided into 10 chapters. After a slight modification, this text was unanimously adopted on 26 November, 1976 by the UNESCO General Conference at its 19th session, held in Nairobi, Kenya.

The recommendation on the development of adult education is a document which is broad in scope to the extent that it seeks to cover all those aspects of adult education which lend themselves to regulations. The adoption of the recommendation has led a certain number of countries to hold special meetings, to publish reports and to prepare studies comparing the state of adult education under specific conditions, to the principles enunciated in the normative instrument. The authentic text of the recommendation adopted in the five working languages used by the UNESCO General Conference (Arabic, English, French, Russian, and Spanish), has been translated into many other languages. Two years
after the adoption, the governments of 22 countries presented to UNESCO special reports on the action taken for the follow-up of the recommendations. In 1982-84, within the framework of the preparation of the Fourth International Conference on Adult Education (Paris, March 1985), information was collected among UNESCO members states on the follow-up, from 1977 onwards to the recommendation. Seventy six replies amounting to approximately 2000 pages were received. Their detailed analysis was made available to participants in the above mentioned conference.

iii. Adult Education in Indian Context

Adult education in India has its own history. It existed even in ancient times in one form or the other although not called by this name. The objectives of ancient and modern period are same, yet complexities of modern society makes the attainment of these objectives difficult. There is a strong case for undertaking a systematic study of the growth of nonformal education, including adult education in India, beginning from Upanishadic times to the Modern period. Bhowmik (1981) divided the entire period into three phases: classical (1500 B.C. to 1951 A.D.), block (1952 to 1975 A.D.) and contemporary (1975 A.D. onwards). However in the present study, ‘the development of adult education in India’ has been categorised into two periods as follows:

(a) Pre-Independence Development of Adult Education (During British Period)

During British period, on the basis of development, the adult education could be divided into different phases:
from 1854 to 1918, 1918 to 1927, 1927 to 1937, 1937 to 1942, and from 1942 to 1946. The period from 1854 to 1918 was named as period of infancy. In 1912, Dewan of Mysore started number of night schools. There were 241 night schools in Madras, 134 in Bombay and 1000 in Bengal. In the same period, news paper became popular and moreover, travelling libraries stimulated the reading interest. The period from 1918 to 1927 was known as period of start. During this period, co-operative societies multiplied and night schools were started for the illiterate adults. These schools were run by local school teachers. By 1927, there were 3,784 night schools with 98,414 adults receiving education. R.N. Tagore made Shantiniketan as the centre of social education. The period from 1927 to 1937 was named as period of decline because during this period, as name indicated, the movement of adult education began to lose its ground due to political disturbances and economic depression. The number of night schools remained 585 and enrolment came down to 12,696. During the period from 1937 to 1942, Indian National Congress came in power and mass literacy movements were launched in many states. The main work was done by Adult Education Association in Delhi, Rural Development Department in Uttar Pradesh, Mass Literacy Committee in Orissa and Advisory Adult Education Board in Bombay, etc. Only one Indian Journal of Adult Education came out in this period i.e. in December 1939. "Each one, Teach one" heard so often was popular during these days. The period from 1942 to 1946 again was regarded
as a period of decline. Indian Adult Education Association, established in 1940, made some humble efforts in the direction of holding biennial conferences by arranging talks, collaborating with UNESCO and giving expert opinion to field workers. But during the war, after downfall of congress government there was again a set-back to the adult education programme.

(b) Post-Independence Development of Adult Education

Post-independence development in adult education was marked by the contribution of the first five year plan to eighth five year plan, National Policy on Education-1986 and Programme of Action 1986. After independence, the immediate development was characterised by gradual emergence of the concept of social education. In 1948, at its 14th meeting, the Central Advisory Board of Education expressed the view that the Organization of Adult Education in India had become imperative. At the 15th meeting of the Central Advisory Board held at Allahabad, a new impetus to the movement was given by Maulana Azad, the then Education Minister, who called it 'Social Education'.

The First-Five-Year plan made a provision of five crores rupees for adult education in organizing community centres, literacy classes, libraries and Janta Colleges. The most developmental aspect of this period was the launching of the community development programme in 1952. Fifty-Five lakhs of adults enrolled in adult literacy classes and twelve lakhs in the classes run by developmental departments in various
blocks. This plan also opened 63,000 community centres, 55,000 youth clubs and 450 school-cum-community centres. During Second Five Year Plan (1956-61), 43,294 adult education centres started in providing literacy programme and 7,40,110 adults were made literates. There were 41,211 youth clubs with 8,95,700 members and 8,487 Mahila Mandals with 26,38,000 members. National Fundamental Education Centre was formed to train district social education organisers. This centre produced audio-visual materials and co-ordinated works in different number of adult literacy classes. The Third Five-Year Plan (1961-66) made a total provision of about Rs. 25 crores for adult education. Out of this amount, about Rs. 92 lakhs were alloted to the centre, Rs 540 lakhs to the states and Rs. 19 crores for adult education, under the Community Development Programme. Correspondence Courses were started by the Delhi University in 1962 for adults for further education. The University of Poona, Mysore and Rajasthan also set up Adult Education Departments. The most significant development in the field of Adult Education during this period was the establishment of the National Board of Adult Education with Dr. V.K.R.V. Rao as its chairman. Functional Literacy Programme was launched during Fourth Five-Year Plan (1969-74). A total expenditure of about Rs.11 crores on scheme of adult education was sanctioned. The programme was intended to cover one hundred districts which were selected by the Ministry of Food and Agriculture for high yielding variety programme. State Governments were
instructed to organise functional literacy classes and farmer's training for the success of agricultural production programme. The National Board of Adult Education, Directorate of Adult Education as a part of Ministry of Education and Youth services were also established in 1970-71. A sum of Rs. 35 crores were allocated for the scheme of adult education during Fifth Five-Year Plan (1974-79). Main emphasis during this plan were the linking of adult education with key national tasks, strengthening the motivation of adult, expansion of book production programme, establishment of national and regional training institutes, strengthening of libraries and young clubs as centres of informal education. The introduction of National Adult Education Programme (NAEP) was the main contribution of Sixth Five Year plan (1980-85). The Ministry of Education, Govt. of India inaugurated the NAEP in close collaboration with all the state governments and political parties. On 2nd Oct., 1978, the NEAP aimed at extension of educational facilities to the entire population of approximately a hundred million illiterates with special attention to the 15-35 years age group. Women, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes were given priority in the programme. It aimed at educating 65 million people in the age group of 15-35 years at a cost of more than Rs. 200 crores in the next five years i.e. 1978-83. This programme promised to bring a social revolution by creating a large enlightened adult population ready to participate in national reconstruction. One of the objectives of NAEP was also to
bring the educational community closer to the vast majority of our country man who are still deprived of the basic minimum of life. It also emphasised the correlation between working, living and learning. The central and state Government were jointly proceeded for proper planning, production of teaching learning materials, implementation and evaluation of adult education programme. The NAEP was also integrated with other community programmes such as family planning, child development services and community development programmes. The outline of NAEP rightly pointed out that the problem of poverty and illiteracy are two aspects of struggle against one without at the same time waging a fight against the other. Literacy, functionality and awareness were three basic components of NAEP. These were the basic tools for performing any sort of task and helpful to adults for suitable adjustment in the environment. Literacy and numeracy skill is helpful for reading, writing and day-to-day calculation. Similarly functionality helped the adults for effective and efficient functioning in work situation which resulted in the improvement of economic conditions. Awareness aspect of NAEP covered various areas such as social, health, environmental, population explosion, economic and educational. Eradication of adult illiteracy and the development of a programme of continuing adult education was the major thrust areas in the Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-90). To attain the formidable task for making literate of about 90 million illiterate adults age-group 15-35 by 1990,
mass involvement of social institutions, voluntary organisations, students, teachers, employers and the community was essential. Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) was linked with this objective. Active participation of village Panchayats, Mahila Mandals, Community Centres, Nehru Yuvak Kendras (NYK) and National Service Scheme (NSS) were required to eradicate illiteracy. The illiterate mass were motivated for this programme through holiday meetings and publicising by posters, films and broadcasting. A Network of libraries and development of literature for new-literates were initiated as a follow-up programme to avoid relapse into illiteracy. As a part of the post-literacy and follow-up service, short-duration condensed training courses were organised for upgrading the skills of new literates and increasing their awareness of various social events. Technical and vocational skill-based courses were planned to provide training in functional skills relating to economic activities for the benefit of adult learners through Shramik Vidyapeeths and other similar institutions. The existing programmes on Rural Functional Literacy, State Adult Education Programmes and other training programmes for adult learners were consolidated in the new mass involvement programmes of adult education.

The National Literacy Mission (NLM) proposes to launch total literacy campaigns in 350 districts by the end of the Eight Five Year Plan (1992-97) which will cover about 80 million illiterates in the age group of 15-35 years. The
strategies proposed to be adopted during the Eighth Five Year Plan to achieve this objective would be - Reorganisation of project pattern by giving due consideration to small projects, insisting area specific and time specific action plans, adopting improved pace and content learning (IPCL), innovative technique mobilising and involving community with the programme and improving measurement pattern;

1. Mass mobilisation for eradication of illiteracy through a well planned national literacy campaign by organising Jathas;

2. Mass programme for functional literacy to 80 million adults;

3. Involvement of voluntary agencies for complete eradication of illiteracy in well defined areas by running Jana Shikshya Nilayams (JSNs) and other programmes of continuing education, organising training programmes for instructors/preraks/supervisors and preparing and publishing learning materials;

4. Mobilisation and enrolment of adult illiterates belonging to SC/ST of 41.6 million out of total illiterate population of 110 million;

5. Emphasis on women adult illiterates by emphasising on enrolment and retention of women illiterates in various programmes of adult education;

6. Post-literacy and continuing education for new-literates coming out from both centre-based and voluntary-based programmes through JSN;
7. Development of media and communication for environment building and spreading message of literacy; and
8. Technology demonstration and management information system for adult education programme.

The nation-wide debate on the new education policy made it clear that the past efforts to institutionalise post-literacy and continuing education were inadequate and there was an urgent need to create structures and facilities for this purpose. Taking this view into consideration, the NPE (1986) laid an emphasis on importance of adult education and continuing upgradation of skills with a view to produce required number of manpower resources. The NPE (1986) proposed a systematic programme of adult education linking with national goals such as: alleviation of poverty, national integration, environmental conservation, observation of small family norm and promotion of women's equality. It was stressed that the universities and colleges should improve upon pedagogical aspects of adult literacy for the eradication of illiteracy through continuing education, population education, extension work covering all community programmes and the developmental programmes. Programme Of Action (POA) to operationalise National Policy on Education, envisaged Mass Programme for Functional Literacy (MPFL) by involving youths, teachers, students, workers, universities, colleges, schools, trade union, panchayati raj agencies, voluntary agencies, other representative organisations of people and individuals. In addition to Mass Programme for
Functional Literacy, National Literacy Mission, Area Development Approach, Jan Shiksha Nilayams and National Technology Mission were organised to remove illiteracy from the country.

The University Grant Commission on the basis of guidelines of National Policy On Education (1986) decided that universities and colleges should adopt an area development approach for their integrated community development activities including adult education under the third dimension. It also decided to rationalise the number of adult education centres run by them so as to consolidate and concentrate their activities in a specific area for obtaining better results and better utilisation of resources. The area development goals were covering broadly the programmes such as: (a) eradication of illiteracy including the mass programme for functional literacy and post-literacy programme, (b) continuing education programmes for development of basic learning skills and professional knowhow, and (c) science for people including transfer of science and technology. The government of India decided in February, 1988 to establish Jan Shikshan Nilayams (JSN) all over the country in a phased manner with the objective of institutionalising post-literacy and continuing education. JSN included programmes which were being organised as part of Farmer’s Training Programmes, Rural Radio Forum and Charcha Mandals, Youth Class, Mahila Mandal, Mobile and Village Library System, Rural Reading Rooms etc. The basic objective
in the planning of post-literacy and continuing educational programme to ensure retention of literacy skills, provision of facilities to enable the learners to continue their learning beyond elementary literacy and create scope for application of their learning for improvement of their living conditions. Technology Mission was a new concept in development of drinking water, immunisation, literacy, telecommunication, oil seeds and dairying. The National Literacy Mission Authority laid suitable emphasis on technology demonstration with a view to brightening up the atmosphere of the adult education centres. This exercise included better light arrangements, simple and attractive learning materials and improvement in other learning technologies. The authority proposed to utilise solar energy for better light in the adult education centres. The authority identified 40 districts on the basis of two parameters well endowed and less endowed. The authority proposed to enhance motivation of the learners by providing audio visual materials including films and slides, literacy in technology education materials, magazines and newspapers.

B. The Concept of Adult Education

There is not one but a variety of concepts of adult education or to put it another way, the term 'adult education' has a multiplicity of uses depending upon content and intention of the users. Many countries have had no concept of adult education as a distinct sector of education. Countries or languages lacking such a concept, described
educational provision for adults from many different perspectives. For example, from the perspective of class, such term as "people's or popular education", "people's school" were used. Such terms as "vocational education", "trade union education", "social education ", "citizenship education", described the concept in terms of function. Other terms were seen from the perspective of initial education, for example," further education", "continuing education", "recurrent education", and "life-long education". In some countries the term "non-formal education" has been used as "social education".

i. The Concept of Adult Education in India

Adult education received recognition and encouragement as a movement in India for the first time under the Congress Ministry in 1937-39. In the beginning, the programme of adult education meant adult literacy since the programme was limited to 3Rs i.e. teaching people to read, write and to learn the elements of simple arithmatic. With the dawn of independence, the concept of adult education was changed from 3 Rs to "Social Education" by the first Education Minister of Free India, named Maulana Abdul Kalam Azad. He wanted that adult education should prepare every citizen to play his part effectively in a democratic social order. The Central Advisory Board of Education in its 15th meeting held at Allahabad in 1949 accepted social education as the goal for the education of adults. The concept of "social education" included literacy, extension education, general education,
leadership training and social consciousness. Farmers' Functional Literacy Programme was launched in 1967-68. This was an inter-ministerial programme in which the Ministry of Education was made responsible for functional literacy, the Ministry of Agriculture for farmers' training, and the All India Radio for Farm Broadcasting. The efforts of this three-pronged programme were to be integrated with a view to educating and informing illiterate farmers about high-yielding varieties of seeds and a package of improved agricultural practices. The Education Commission (1964-66) suggested not to equate literacy with mere ability to read and write. Literacy, it is to be worthwhile, must be functional. The commission has stated: "the function of adult education in a democracy is to provide every adult citizen an opportunity for education of the type he wishes and he should have for his personal enrichment, professional advancement and effective participation in social and political life". The National Adult Education Programme (NAEP) was launched in 1978 with the objective of making literate approximately a hundred million illiterates with special attention to the 15-35 age-group. In emphasizing the correlation between working, living and learning, the NAEP borrowed heavily from Gandhi's ideas on basic education (Nai Taleem). The conceptual framework of the NAEP was concretized around three aspects of its programme content: (i) Literacy; (ii) functionality; and (iii) awareness.
Programme of action for implementation of the National Policy on Education (1986) speaks of the literacy and adult education programmes as under: "Programmes of labour welfare will give special attention to literacy and adult education. Employers will be required, if necessary by law, to organise literacy and skill development programmes for all of their employees. Welfare funds for various categories of workers will be used for running literacy and adult education programmes and due attention given in the various schemes for organised workers."

The National Literacy Mission (NLM) is the recent idea of adult education in India which was launched for total literacy programme throughout the country. Total Literacy campaign is area-specific, time-bound and voluntary-based programme which has transformed a fully government-controlled programme into a mass campaign.

ii. The concept of Adult Education in Abroad

Adult Education has been the poorest and often the most neglected sector of the education service even in developed countries as stated by World Bank (1975). Literacy in the third world can be categorized in to four inter-related developmental models or strategies: (i) the fundamental education approach; (ii) the intensive selective functional approach; (iii) the conscientization approach; and (iv) the mass campaign approach. Vernor (1964) stated quite emphatically that "adult education" is concerned with the education of adults. It is, he suggests, 'a relationship
between an education agent and a learner in which the agent selects, arranges and continuously directs a sequence of progressive tasks that provide systematic experiences to achieve learning for those whose participation in such activities is subsidiary and supplemental to a primary productive role in society. In some of the countries, there has been a growing acceptance of the view that adult education should include all non-vocational studies such as music, art and drama, arts and crafts of all kinds, languages and physical educations, while at the same time, retaining the division of further education into "Preparation for Work" and "Learning for Leisure". UNESCO Directory of Adult Education (1951) distinguished between vocational and non-vocational education as: adult education is taken to mean forces of study and other activities which are undertaken voluntarily by mature people (i.e. over the age of 18), without direct regard to their vocational value.

In the United Kingdom, adult education is used within a liberal education framework, sometimes carrying with it implications of a front-end model of education. For these reasons, it is more desirable to employ the term "education of adults" because this may refer to any educational process undertaken by adults, whether liberal, general or vocational, and located in the sphere of adults, further or higher education or outside the institutional framework entirely. The terminology also implies that education is not completed at any stage in the life span, and indeed that the education
of adults may begin in the period of initial education, and for some people, it continues up to post-compulsory sectors. The term 'education of adults' is a broad term and one that encourages the development of a separate sphere of study within education.

Paterson (1964-65) claimed: "our adult education views derive as do our general views on education, from political, moral, religious and philosophical views and all of these stem from the historical experience of each society". Liveright & Haygood (1969) defined: "adult education is a process whereby persons who no longer attend a school on a regular and full-time basis (unless full time programme are especially designed for adults), undertake sequential and organised activities with a conscious intention of bringing about changes in information, knowledge and understanding or skill, appreciation and attitudes, for the purpose of identifying and solving personal and community problems".

Another view seeking to be all embracing and inclusive of all types of education for adults as stated by OECD (1975) is: "Adult education refers to any learning activity or programme deliberately designed for adults. Its ambit is taken as spanning non-vocational, vocational, general, formal, non-formal and community education and it is not restricted to any particular level". According to Legge (1982), this view has not been accepted in Britain as contributors to the Rural Report (1973) claim that "value of adult education is not solely to be measured by direct
increases in learning power or productive capacity or by any other materialistic yardstick, but by the quality of life it inspires in the individual and generates in the community at large. International Commission on Education, UNESCO (1972) defined adult education as "for a very large number of adults in the world today, it is a substitute for the basic education they missed. For many individuals who received only a very incomplete education, it is the complement to elementary or professional education. For those whom it helps respond to new demands which their environment makes on them, it is the prolongation of education. It offers further education to those who have already received high level of training. And it is a means of individual development for everybody". Simson (1972) cited an example of an explicit statement of adult education values by quoting a specification arrived at by a conference organised by the 'Danish Ministry of Education'. The conference resolved that in adult education: (a) the teacher must retire from leadership, (b) the participant themselves must plan curriculum, (c) the students must make their own rules, (d) they themselves must settle conflicts that arise, (e) they must be urged constantly to revise their plans and relations, (f) they must be urged constantly to revise their plans and regulations. Freire (1972) is of the opinion that the only type of adult education worth the name is the one that liberates the individual from all types of bondage - political, economic, social and cultural. It is thus a
cultural action for freedom. The individual is to literate himself, to discover himself, and to become himself. The teacher is a mere catalyst or animature and the method of teaching is not by instruction but by engagement in authentic dialogue in which the learner is the chief participant". Delker (1974) made a distinction between adult as a major continuing mode of behaviour, and adult education as the organised and sequential learning experiences designed to meet the needs of adults". The most comprehensive defining was stated by UNESCO (1976) "the term 'adult education' denotes the entire body of organised educational processes, whatever content, level and method, whether formal or otherwise, whether they prolong or replace initial education schools, colleges and university as well as in apprenticeship whereby persons regarded as adults by the society to which they belong, develop their abilities, enrich their knowledge, improve their technical or professional qualifications and bring about changes in their attitude or behavior in the two-fold perspective of full personal development and participation in balanced and different social, economical and cultural development. Adult education embraces all forms of educative experiences needed by men and women according to their varying interests and requirements, at their differing levels of comprehension and ability, and in their changing roles and responsibilities throughout life". Titmus (1980) stated in everyday life, however, the expression "adult education", is often used in another sense as a collective
term covering the institutions and procedures by which adults are enabled and encouraged to experience the process. For many people this mechanism is called adult education. Vernor (1982) is of the personal opinion that education for adult is not just a prolongation of, or substitute for, studies at schools or university. It relates to the systematic development of his mind or of his manual and professional expertise which he chooses to undergo. When he has become fully responsible for his own behaviour and economic well-being. This distinction has a marked bearing not only upon what he learns but how he learns. According to Coomb (1973), adult education should include the acquisition of "positive attitudes, sufficient functional literacy and numeracy to read with comprehension of a national newspaper or magazine to write a legible letter ....... and to handle important common computations .......... a scientific outlook and an elementary understanding of the processes of nature, functional knowledge and skills for earning a living, functional knowledge and skills for civic participation".

It is evident on the basis of above given definitions that adult education is a systematic and organised activity which brings about modification in one's way of life, attitudes, level of functionality, develops in him various technical and professional skills, provides new information, knowledge, understanding covering his own professional and finally improve his social, cultural and economic life. Adult education is not merely confined to give the knowledge of 3RS
but it includes much more than that. It includes all those programmes which are having relevances with the life of adults. All those contents and experience are included in adult education which are related to adults' environment and add to their professional efficiency and income. Adult education is not an alternative, it is a permanent national necessity, an inseparable aspect of citizenship, and therefore, should be both universal and lifelong. It conveys a sense of compensation-compensation for the lack of educational facilities in early childhood. It is a field of activity characterized by diversity and instability. New goals, new forms of action continually appear and modify the concept.

(c) **Literacy**

Literacy is one of the basic components of adult education programme as mentioned in conceptual views in India and Abroad. The education commission (1964-66) suggested not to equate literacy with the mere ability to read and write. Literacy, if it is to be worthwhile, must be functional. The World Conference of Education Ministers on the eradication of illiteracy organised by UNESCO at Tehran (1965) concluded that rather than an end in itself, literacy should be regarded as a way of preparing man for a social, civic and economic role that goes far behind the limits of rudimentary literacy training, consisting merely in the teaching of reading and writing. The process of learning to read and write should be made an opportunity for acquiring information.
that can immediately be used to improve living standards, reading and writing should lead not only to elementary general knowledge but to training for work, increased productivity, a greater participation in civil life, a better understanding of the surrounding world and should ultimately, open the way to basic human culture. Freire (1972) states literacy is not an end in itself, but a means, in one case for economic development and in the other, for social and cultural transmission. UNESCO (1962) defined a person is literate "who can, with understanding, both read and write a short simple statement on his everyday life" where as an individual who is functionally literate is able to "engage in all those activities in which literacy is required for effective functioning of his group and community and also for enabling him to continue to use reading, writing and calculation for his own and the community's development". It will be observed that calculation (or numeracy) is included in the definition of functional literacy, but not of literacy. Literacy is to schooling and the history of school does not suffice to explain the history of literacy. The United Nations Population Commission defined literacy as ability both to read and write a simple message in any language.

A person is considered semi-literate, who can read with understanding but not write a simple statement on his everyday life. Literacy Discussion held in Tehran by UNESCO (1971) stated: "when literacy training makes it possible for people
to learn to do a job, it can appropriately be called functional literacy”. Bhola (1990) links literacy to survival and says, that linking literacy with survival is not exaggerting or hard-selling literacy. He goes on saying that survival, of course means to outlast, to remain. Survival has a normative ideal and has many aspects. It is not mere existence but a life of acceptable quality. Survival is also economic survival, social survival, political survival and cultural survival.

During the last three decades, the population of the country has been increasing at the exponential growth rate of more than two percent per annum. While the expanded educational facilities pushed up the number of literates, it has not been able to keep pace with the increasing population. The number of illiterates has simultaneously increased though at a declining rate of growth. A statement of population, literates, illiterates of the age group five and above for 1961, 1971 and 1981 and of the age-group seven and above for 1981 and 1991 is given in Table-1.2. Similarly, literacy scenario of 1981 and 1991 for the age-group seven and above of all the States and Union Territories was given in Table-1.1.
<table>
<thead>
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<td>Gujrat</td>
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<td>74.57</td>
<td>52.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Jammu &amp; Kashmir</td>
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<td>44.18</td>
<td>19.55</td>
<td>N.A</td>
<td>N.A</td>
<td>N.A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Karnataka</td>
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<td>58.72</td>
<td>33.16</td>
<td>55.98</td>
<td>67.25</td>
<td>44.14</td>
</tr>
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<td>Kerala</td>
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<td>87.74</td>
<td>75.65</td>
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<td>Madhya Pradesh</td>
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<td>37.15</td>
<td>48.26</td>
<td>51.57</td>
<td>44.78</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Mizoram</td>
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<td>79.37</td>
<td>68.40</td>
<td>81.21</td>
<td>84.06</td>
<td>78.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Nagaland</td>
<td>50.20</td>
<td>50.52</td>
<td>40.28</td>
<td>61.10</td>
<td>66.09</td>
<td>55.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Orissa</td>
<td>40.96</td>
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<td>25.14</td>
<td>48.55</td>
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<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Punjab</td>
<td>48.12</td>
<td>55.62</td>
<td>39.64</td>
<td>57.14</td>
<td>63.68</td>
<td>49.72</td>
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<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Rajasthan</td>
<td>30.09</td>
<td>44.76</td>
<td>13.99</td>
<td>38.81</td>
<td>55.07</td>
<td>20.84</td>
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<tr>
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<td>27.35</td>
<td>35.63</td>
<td>64.34</td>
<td>47.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Tamil Nadu</td>
<td>54.38</td>
<td>63.05</td>
<td>40.43</td>
<td>63.72</td>
<td>74.08</td>
<td>52.29</td>
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<td>Tripura</td>
<td>50.10</td>
<td>61.49</td>
<td>33.01</td>
<td>60.39</td>
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<td>Uttar Pradesh</td>
<td>33.33</td>
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<td>41.71</td>
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<td>25</td>
<td>West Bengal</td>
<td>48.64</td>
<td>59.93</td>
<td>36.07</td>
<td>57.72</td>
<td>67.24</td>
<td>47.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Union Territories

| 1     | A & N Islands              | 63.16         | 70.23| 53.15  | 73.74         | 79.68| 66.22  |
| 2     | Chandigarh                 | 74.81         | 78.09| 69.31  | 73.73         | 82.67| 73.61  |
| 3     | Dadra & Nagar Haveli       | 32.70         | 44.69| 20.33  | 39.45         | 52.07| 26.10  |
| 4     | Daman & Diu                | 59.91         | 74.45| 46.51  | 73.58         | 85.67| 61.38  |
| 5     | Delhi                      | 72.93         | 79.28| 62.57  | 76.09         | 82.63| 68.01  |
| 6     | Lakshadweep                | 68.42         | 82.24| 55.32  | 79.23         | 87.06| 70.88  |
| 7     | Pondicherry                | 65.14         | 77.09| 53.03  | 74.91         | 83.91| 65.79  |

* 1991 census has not been conducted in Jammu & Kashmir. N.A. Stands for NOT AVAILABLE
Table 1.1

Literacy Scenario in India from 1961-1991 on Age-Group, Sex and Habitation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Population in millions</th>
<th>No. of illiterates</th>
<th>No. of literates</th>
<th>Percentage of literates</th>
<th>% of Literate in Urban-Rural Areas</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total Male Female</td>
<td>Total Male Female</td>
<td>Total Male Female</td>
<td>Urban Rural Difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>5+</td>
<td>372.84</td>
<td>267.32</td>
<td>105.52</td>
<td>28.31</td>
<td>54.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>5+</td>
<td>468.60</td>
<td>307.19</td>
<td>161.41</td>
<td>34.45</td>
<td>60.22</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981°</td>
<td>5+</td>
<td>581.78</td>
<td>340.75</td>
<td>241.03</td>
<td>41.42</td>
<td>67.34</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981°</td>
<td>7+</td>
<td>541.04</td>
<td>305.31</td>
<td>235.73</td>
<td>43.56</td>
<td>67.20</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981**</td>
<td>7+</td>
<td>688.16</td>
<td>328.88</td>
<td>359.28</td>
<td>52.21</td>
<td>73.01</td>
</tr>
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</table>

* Excludes Assam where 1981 census was not held.

** Excludes Jammu and Kashmir where 1991 census was not held.

(Data from Literacy Mission, May, 1993, Vol. XVI, No.5.)
D. Productivity

All working people (be a farmer, a carpenter, a blacksmith, a technician, an engineer, a nurse, a doctor, a trade union leader, a government official, a shopkeeper, a businessman, an industrialist or an industrial worker) are interested in productivity. Frederick & Jr. (1977) have explained that "productivity is fundamental to progress throughout the world. No war, no treaty, no discovery, no single invention can match the achievement of a people who are inspired to produce." As Lenin rightly remarked, the productivity of labour is in the final analysis, the most important, the main tool for the victory of the new order. Low productivity in one of the major weaknesses in the Indian economy which results not merely from inefficiency in the age of capital but equally from the low level of skills and low per capita output of labour. While India claims to having the third largest scientific and technical manpower in the world, bulk of them who perform technical jobs have hardly any training before their recruitment. Of the 240 million population which constitute the productive workforce of the country, more than 60% are illiterates, bulk of whom constitute unskilled workers. Achieving the goals of maximising productivity has significant implications in terms of development of the country's human resources.

Productivity is a relative concept and the emphasis on labour productivity and capital productivity would vary from country to country from time to time and from industry to
industry according to the level of development and the relative scarcity of the different factors of production. Quesnay (1976) was the first man to put forward the idea of productivity. In 1833, Little defined productivity as a "faculty to produce". Smith (1937) considered the idea as implicit in the concept of division of labour. The same approach was followed by Ricardo (1919). Oxford English Dictionary (1982) defined productivity as "the quality or fact of being productive" while "productive" means "having quality of producing or bringing forth International Encyclopaedia of Social Sciences (1968) defined productivity as a class of empirical output-input ratios that is widely used in economic history, economic analysis and economic policy. Parumal (1975) defined productivity as "performance as well as turnover". Carrol & Tasi (1978) defined productivity as the level of performance relative to same standard. In strict mathematical sense, productivity is interpreted as profit. Solomon (1959) believed that "people employ the same term and mean different things". Thus, the term productivity carries a multiplicity of connotations. Seigel (1955) stated: "beginning with personnel efficiency of labour and output derived from a composite bundle of resource to being synonyms of welfare. Salter (1960) identified productivity with time. OEEC (1955) stated "productivity is a measure of economic soundness of the means". OEEC (1960) stated "the term labour efficiency and productivity connote almost the same meaning". OEEC drew a sharp distinction between labour efficiency and
productivity in respect of their quantitative and quantitative differences. Hence, the former may be defined as an attitude or capacity, the quality of the entity whose productivity is under review, while the later introduces the idea of relationship between product and factors.

Performance is distinguished from productivity. Performance refers to an employee's actual manifest behaviour at work. "Productivity' on the otherhand, is the output of such behaviour when the employees interacts with other resources of the organisation. It is increasingly recognised that higher productivity is not an end in itself but a means of promoting social progress and strengthening the economic foundations of human well-being. However, productivity should not be confused with "production". 'Production' is merely volume of output. Increase of production does not necessarily mean increase of productivity, though higher productivity will lead to higher production. In a broad and fundamental sense, the drive of increasing productivity implies the full, proper and efficient utilization of the available resources of men, machines, materials, money, power, land, etc. It implies development of an attitude of mind and a constant urge to find better, cheaper, quicker, easier and safer ways of doing a job, manufacturing a product, and providing a service. It aims at the minimum utilization of resources for yielding as many goods as possible. Evidently, productivity of workers largely and ultimately depends on the quality of the workers. Formally, the word 'productivity' stands for the
ratio between the 'output' of wealth produced, in the form of goods and services, and the 'input' of resources used up in the process of production. Organization of European Economic Community (OEEC) defined Productivity as, "the ratio between production of a given commodity measured by volume and one or more of the corresponding factors, also measured by volume". Primarily the possibility of varying the costs, OEEC drew a sharp distinction between labour efficiency and productivity in respect of their qualitative and quantitative differences. Hence, the former may be defined as an aptitude or capacity, the quality of the entity whose productivity is under review, while the later introduces the idea of relationship between product and factors. Duane (1947) stated productivity may be called a better index of efficiency which will depend upon the type of plant available.

i. Types of Productivity

There are various concepts used in different contexts and for specific purposes in expressing productivity in terms of factor. Mehta (1965) stated that the definitions generally by the modern economists for operational researches may be reckoned in terms of total and specific productivity. ILO (1954) defined total productivity as "the ratio between the output of wealth produced and the input of resources used up in the process of production". The term 'output includes all goods & services' which consist of not only industrial and agricultural products but also the services of doctors, teachers and those engaged in shops, offices, transport
undertaking and other service industries. ILO (1957) stated that the production in relation to a given factor will give an idea of the specific productivity of the factors concerned. It is therefore, possible to speak of the productivity of capital, investment, or raw materials, according to whether output is being considered in relation to capital, investment, or raw materials, etc. So, labour productivity is the ratio of total output to total labour input (wages, salaries, and other benefits). Capital productivity is the ratio between total output and total capital input. When the productivity is measured for a separate factor, it is called factorial productivity and it can be determined provided two basic conditions are satisfied, Viz, both input and output are expressed in terms of suitable units and it is possible to correlate each input factor with specific output. Marginal productivity means the additional output realized by employing one more unit of labour.

ii. Determinants of Productivity

One of the major determinants of productivity is the quantity and quality of labour, both skilled and unskilled, in productivity process. Health and nutrition, literacy and social values and customs influence the quality of labour. Illiteracy and low educational standards affect productivity in two ways: by reducing the supply of educated labour force and by decreasing the ability of workers to follow instructions and learn new ways of doing things. Capital in
no less important factor in productivity than human power. Kendrink (1956) remarked that in industries in which capital has been substituted for labour at a relatively high rate, productivity has also advanced more rapidly. It is said that the greater the use of capital in an enterprise, the higher is the productivity. Shen (1961) stated that better technology results in higher productivity enabling greater output with given capital and other resources or the constant output with a smaller use of resources. Rastogi (1965) noted "improvement in working conditions is also the factor responsible for higher productivity". Adequate light in the work-place, better layout of the machines, automation, better weather control, better maintenance of the machines, better measures of security contribute to productivity favorably. Davis (1951) stated that the term incentives refer to an outward stimulus that activates a need or bring the motive to work. Ganguli (1960) Stated that incentive plays a significant role in determining the degree of performance. Productivity is influenced by the climate of business, the value system and the social atmosphere in which it is conducted and the conscious or unconscious impulses which typically guide business activities. Marshall (1936) considered labour productivity as industrial efficiency determined by climate and race, the necessaries of life, food, clothing, house room and firing, rest, hopefulness, freedom and change influence of occupations, influence of townlife, training, education, skill, general and specialised
ability and apprenticeship. Marx (1887) described that labour productivity is determined by the technological as well as social factors. Productivity also depends upon the type of plant available as mentioned by Duane (1947). Workload, working and employment conditions and human element (ILO, 1956), the system of wage payment (ILO, 1953), the costs of inefficient management and non-availability of economic, physical and civic securities to workers. Florence (1924), Dunn and Stephens (1972) described general and specific factors in productivity based on classifications provided by Reynolds and Sutermeister, respectively. The general factors classified by Reynolds (1964) include factor proportions, rate of technical progress, managerial ability and performance and capacity and performance of workers. Capacity and performance of workers form a factor in productivity because of their divergent knowledge, training, attitudes, skills, health and physical strength and allied factors. Dunn and Stephen pointed out that there are three categories of specific factors in productivity including employee ability, employee motivation and situational factors. Productivity is markedly determined by ability factors including knowledge and skill. Training and development are needed to increase the ability of human resources to enhance their productivity. In developing countries, ability factors are of utmost significance because of prevalence of labour intensive industries. From the above discussion, it is understood that factors affecting labour productivity are numerous, complex
and extricably interwoven, therefore, the task of evaluating the influence of each individual factor is beset with almost insuperable difficulties.

iii. **Measurement of Productivity**

Probably the ILO was the first international organisation in the world which dealt with the measurement of productivity. The productivity of a nation or a company is difficult to measure, because so many interrelated variable factors influence the end results. It is quite easy to say productivity is output divided by input. But it is difficult to define output and input. Productivity can be more correctly stated as the relationship between achieving a result and the time it takes to accomplish it. Hence, productivity is result divided by time. Time is a good common denominator as an hour is a specific interval of time on this planet. The less time it takes to realize our objective, the more productive we are. Improving productivity means compressing more good results into a unit of time. But increasing productivity is largely an individual matter. When we try to measure the achievement of a country, it becomes much more difficult. Chaterjee (1957) stated that productivity can be measured in terms of units of output in standard hours. The index of productivity as stated by Nayar (1964) can be mentioned in terms of output in money value per labour hours. Rajgopal (1964) gives a more detailed explanation of productivity. He deals with three measures of productivity, such as physical output per manhour, value of
output per manhour and value added by manufacture per man hour. The classists were interested in productivity measurement because they wanted to determine, or explain the distribution of social income among the groups which produce it as mentioned by Editor's Notes (1961). Productivity measurement was also deemed to help in measuring the progress of a society over a period of time and comparing societies with respect to economic efficiency. Rostas (1948) stated that three alternative methods of productivity measurement have been used for international comparisons. The global method is mainly based on the comparison of the total volume of output and total employment in a given industry of the different countries. The simple method is completely based on the comparison of the performance of a few number of selected mills in a particular industry producing identical products under broadly identical conditions. The net output value method is based on a comparison of the value of the net output per head in the two countries. Fourastie (1957) advocates the use of both direct and indirect method of productivity measurement. The direct method is used in the workshop and on the factory floor within a single farm or in a group of farms, while the indirect method is used outside the firm with the help of the general statistical year books of the various countries, monthly or Quarterly publications by national or international institutions. The formula of productivity measurement which have been evolved from time to
time depended upon the availability of data and the purpose in view. Some of the formula are:

a) **Productivity formula based on "Economic unit"**

\[
\text{Value of Output} \quad = \quad \frac{\text{Value of Input}}{}
\]

b) **Productivity Formula Based on "Physical Output"**

The formula based on physical output may be adopted for measuring productivity at the industry level. In case of industries manufacturing a single product, the measurement of productivity is simple. Algebraically, productivity is measured by \( q/m \) where 'q' is quantity or units of output produced, and 'm' is number in man-hours worked. A change in productivity between two periods can, thus, be written as:

\[
q_1/m_1 \quad / \quad q_0/m_0
\]

where suffixes 0 and 1 denote the base year and the current year respectively. But this formula is useful to a limited extent because majority of the industries manufacture different types of products.

c) **Productivity formula based on the "price method"**

Price method is direct method of productivity measurement which can be used for time series analysis of total productivity trends. The formula is:

\[
\text{I volume of products} \quad \text{or} \quad \text{I price of Factors} \\
\text{I value of Factor} \quad \text{I price of products}
\]
d) **Productivity formula based on the "Real Price Method"**

The Formula is

\[
\frac{\text{Quantity of Product A}}{\text{Number of working hours}} \times \frac{\text{Hourly earning from labour}}{\text{Price of Product A}}
\]

\[=
\]

e) **Formula as labour productivity**

Labour is considered as an important factor in productivity and labour productivity is measured in several ways as:

i) **Output per man hour**: This is possible when output is uniform with regard to quality and design and can be expressed in terms of physical units or in terms of money.

ii) **Actual time versus standard time**: When it is possible to set standard time by work measurement or time study methods, a comparison of actual time with standard time provides a suitable index for labour productivity.

iii) **Added Value Method**: Added value for a product is taken as the difference between its sale value and material costs. The formula is:

\[
\text{Labour Productivity} = \frac{\text{Added Value for the product}}{\text{Total wage cost}}
\]

or

\[
\frac{\text{Sales value minus material cost}}{\text{Total wages cost}}
\]

E. **Significance of the Study**

The Declaration of Perse Polis, the Declaration of Dar es Salam of Julius Nyerere and UNESCO recommendations of adult education, all attest to the fact that adult education
is now seen not as something occasional and peripheral, but in the major stream of economic, social and political advance, or if you will, in the centre, the very core of development. International conference on Adult Education and development (1976) believes that mass poverty, and mass ignorance and illiteracy are recognised by most governments, and their citizens as among the major problems of the present day and that most governments have assumed responsibility for combating them through developmented plans and programmes.

The role that adult education can play in bringing about economic and social development has been clearly stated by V.K.R.V. Rao (1966) that "without adult education and adult literacy, it is not possible to have that range and speed of economic and social development which we require nor it is possible to have that content or quality or tone to our economic and social development that make it worthwhile in terms of values and welfare. A programme of adult education and adult literacy should, therefore, take a front place in any programme for economic and social development. Rao stated that there are three main reasons for postulating the link between adult education and economic development. First, the basic ground for economic development is knowledge and desire for the better ways of living on the part of people. The second condition which is essential for economic development is readiness on the part of the people to accept the new ways of production and not to be tied with traditional methods and ways of production. The third requirement for having the
necessary background for economic development and the necessary cultivation of the human factor for the purpose of economic development. It is evident from the above discussion that adult education is of paramount importance for the economic development of our country. The relationship between literacy and economic development is convincingly supported by empirical evidence of Bowman & Anderson (1963) who found that all countries with 1955 per capita incomes of USA $ 500 or more had literacy rates exceeding 90 percent where as countries with per capita incomes below USA $ 200 had literacy rates below 30 percent. It would hazardous either to formulate a literacy policy which is not articulated with wider national development goals or conversely, to propose a national development policy which implies inadequate provision for education and literacy". President Nyerere of Tanzania explained: First we must educated adults; our children will not have an impact on economic development for five, ten or even twenty years. The attitude of adults ........ on the otherhand, have an impact now. The people must understand the plans for development of this country; they must be able to participate in changes which are necessary .............". In the report on the world social situation (1961), it has been stated that while it is difficult, or even impossible, to make exact measurement of the costs and benefits of the results of literacy programmes, and to distinguish causes and effects in statistical trends, it is recognised as a historical fact that there is a close
co-relation between literacy and national income. This is apparent from the fact that growth rates of national income are highest in countries with least illiterates in their labour force.

It has been recognised that manpower of any society constitutes the human capital of that society and economic development will take place only when human capital acts upon the material capital in a scientific way and in some definite proportion. It is thus essential that for the development of human capital, at least, in developing nations, the ignorance must be done away with so that the individual develops to his fullest capacities and becomes a potential for contributing his full share to the economic developmental process. In this regard about Indian scene, Gode writes: "Literacy programme unrelated to working and living conditions of the workers to the challenges of environment and the developmental needs of the country cannot secure an active participation of learners, nor can it be an instrument of development and progress.

Illiteracy is not a fatality, it is not even pre-ordained. No body is born illiterate; illiteracy is no body's choice or making. Illiteracy is the product of time as much as poverty, destitution and bondage are and it is curable and correctable. An illiterate is just the victim of a situation. She/he did not have the opportunity of going to school at the tender, formative years of life or having gone to school and dropped out of the system not of his own violation, but on
account of instructable social and economic compulsions. Illiteracy is a growing phenomena and unless hipped in the bud is likely to grow further and pose a menace to development, to human evolution and growth.

Illiteracy is one of the strongest obstacles to productivity and considered as the 'Open sesame' to modernisation. Khater, Mansour & Outub (1976) mentioned that illiteracy is an impediment to production. As stated in report of Indian Education Commission (1964-66), illiteracy is a mass phenomenon which needs economic and social development of the country. In the same manner, Mahatma Gandhi said that mass illiteracy is India’s sin and shame which should be wiped out. The universal declaration of human rights, article 26 of which states that everyone has a right to education, applies equally to the adults of the future as to those of the present. The existence of vast masses of illiterate people in our country, which prides itself on its noble traditions of learning, is humiliating. Approximately 49% of the world’s illiterate population in the age-group 15-19 would be in India by the year 2000. Out of 98 countries listed in a study on current literacy situation in the world, only 28 countries have illiteracy rates higher than that of India. India would enter the twenty-first century with the world’s largest number of adult illiterates in the age group 15 years and above (296 millions) which would be even more than the total number adult illiterates we have today (245 millions). Regarding this dismal situation, Prof. K.G.
Saiyadain remarked: "If someone were to prepare a literacy map of the world and colour the illiterate areas of the earth black, India will, to our shame, look like a dark continent. This is a state of thing which makes me feel both ashamed and indignant—ashamed that a country which prides itself as one of the oldest cultural traditions in the world should have come to this pass; indignant because we have been content to put up with this blot on our reputation for so long." In the words of Indian Education Commission (1964-66), "The price which the individual as well as the nation pays for illiteracy is high, although one grows accustomed to the persisting malady and becomes insensitive to the harm it does. The circumstances of modern life condemn the non-literate to live an inferior existence. He has little prospects of reasonable income and remains isolated from sophisticated social processes such as democratic government and commercial marketing. The uneducated is not really a free citizen. Illiteracy as a mass phenomenon which blocks economic and social progress, affects economic productivity, population control, national integration and security and improvement in health and sanitation. Najmi (1971) has rightly pointed out that: "people of this country remained dependent upon others even for reading and writing their own letters, for making their accounts and for entering into correspondence with their Kins and authorities. But as we witnessed the dawn of freedom, we realised that our people were ignorant because they were illiterates".
In order to eradicate illiteracy, the crucial and paramount role of adult education has been realised throughout the world. Strenuous efforts have been made by different nations to improve the functions of adult education so that illiteracy will be wiped out completely from this world. Sivaswamy (1992) in the publication titled, "Can Literacy wait?" has viewed that world bank studies have established the direct and functional relationship between literacy and productivity on the one hand and literacy and the overall quality of human life on the other. Thus, there is need for intensive action for the eradication of literacy. It has been further viewed that literacy can not wait for things to improve. It has to be taken up simultaneously as part of a new nation building strategy alongwith health, construction, labour welfare, agricultural and industrial, and women and children's programme.

We are living in a democratic country and democracy without education is meaningless. No democracy can function in a society where the voters are ignorant about their rights, duties, responsibilities and national aspiration. Brubaker (1962) is of the view that democracy is not the from of government but mode of living of enlightened people. The people will be enlightened only if they are educated and adult education is an important component of any system of education. In the word's of Dr. Zakir Hussain "The supreme aim of adult education in relation to democracy should be the widening of horizon of social, cultural, vocational and
physical knowledge of the citizens so that the country might produce happy and prosperous citizens, wise electors, ingenious artisans and artists". Adult education is balancing the interaction in the community. In the words of Kothari commission (1964-66): "The function of adult education in a democracy is to provide every adult citizen an opportunity for education of the type he wishes and he should have for his personal enrichment, professional advancement and effective participation in social and political life." In the words of C.L. Kundu (1984): "The all-inclusive purpose of education in a democracy is to assist the continuous growth and development of every individual, the fulfilment of maximum potentiality in directions considered desirable by the society. The problems and situation which adults face in the growth and development can be grouped into four major areas set forth by the Education Policies Commission as the objective of self-realisation, economic efficiency and civic responsibility. These are good for education of persons of all ages in a democratic culture.

The present study has been undertaken with an attention to see the effect of adult education programme on workers' productivity, working skills, literacy and attitude. The Government of India in Eighth Five-Year Plan and Review Committee of NPE-1986 have highlighted the importance of adult education programme with the aim of making illiterate adults literate. Very few studies might have been conducted in this field which can show the relationship of adult
education with productivity. This field is yet to draw attention of researchers. The present study is a step towards this direction and has been stated as: "Adult Education Training and Productivity - A Study of Workers in Orissa".