1.1 Adult Education: Historical Background

Historically, adult and mass education could be considered older than formal schooling. Gatherings addressed by saints, sages, gurus or performing artists had the purpose of educating the people—a tradition quite well known in India. These educative meetings were mainly in the form of oral discourse to make the people conscious of their moral and social obligations. Later, owing to changes around the world, literacy skills came to be felt as an important aspect of adult/mass education.

Up to the end of the world War I, there was little progress, though agencies of Adult Education had, to some extent, been in operation. Thus, night schools were already working in the more advanced provinces of Bombay and Bengal, conducted by teachers of day schools for an extra allowance. Number of night schools in Bombay province rose from 134 in 1882 to 362 in 1891-92 which later declined to 107 in 1901-02. Though the number rose again to 923 in 1912, it reached the lowest figure, 111 in 1917. By 1882, Bengal Province had over 1000 night schools and the number increased to 1587 in 1896-97. However, the number of these adult schools started falling by the early decades of the present century and came down to 886 in 1917. In Madras Province, the number of adult schools declined from 312 in 1880 to 291 in 1881-82. Number of schools later rose to 1437 in 1896-97 and once again declined to 775 in 1901-02. When the Department of Education was established in 1862, in the Central Provinces, the opening of adult schools was part of its programme. By 1869-70, adult classes were running in several districts. There were about
32 unaided adult schools in 1870-71. By 1882, the number of adult schools declined to a total of 12 out of which were three government schools, eight aided schools and one unaided school. Another adult education project launched in the C.P. was the education of the policemen. By 1865-66, there were two police schools in each district of the province. In the Punjab Province, adult schools were started in Lahore about 1860s. However, after a few years these schools slowly faded away. In Cochin, the Education Code 1911 made provisions for night schools for the benefit of the working classes. By 1915, there were 19 night schools in Cochin. In 1912, Mysore made a unique attempt at mass education by opening night schools in some villages which had primary schools and established a network of circulating libraries. Nearly six to seven thousand literacy classes were running in the State at this time. A magazine called vignana (Science) was also started to popularise scientific knowledge. As soon as Diwan Visvesvaraya who initiated the scheme left, all his schemes were set aside one by one and finally in 1948 what remained as 75 adult education classes were handed over by the Education Department to the Mysore State Adult Education Council.

The above account, albeit brief, of adult education in India is by no means complete in itself. Attempts at adult education were far wider in nature, like the cooperative societies in the rural areas which were functional since 1905. In spite of somewhat widespread efforts, adult education in India made little progress till the end of world war I. The later history of adult
education in India up to independence in 1947 is divided into four periods.

1916-27

The earlier half of this period was a time of economic depression which began to improve towards the later half. However, there were important factors working in this period which helped in the progress of adult education. Renewed political activity in the post war years, discussion on franchise and other controversial political matters helped to awaken public consciousness. Indian soldiers returning home from war brought with them a leaven of awakening consciousness. This was further helped by the growth of the cooperative movement. Cooperative societies in India grew from 1926 in 1910 to 80,182 by the middle of 1926. In the Punjab, where the hold of the cooperative movement was greatest, over 100 night schools were working, mostly in rural areas. In 1922, with an enrolment of 1783 students. Teaching work in these schools was done by local teachers for a small honorarium contributed by the local cooperative credit society and sometimes a literate cultivator carried on the teaching work. In some cases the District Boards came forward to help these rural schools.

In 1921-22 the Punjab government for the first time made budgetary provision for adult literacy and helped the opening of many night schools. As a result, the number of night schools and enrolment increased.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of night Schools</th>
<th>No. of Pupils</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1922-23</td>
<td>630</td>
<td>17,776</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1923-24</td>
<td>1528</td>
<td>40,883</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1924-25</td>
<td>2372</td>
<td>61,961</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1925-26</td>
<td>3206</td>
<td>85,371</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1926-27</td>
<td>3784</td>
<td>98,414</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Royal Commission on Agriculture in India (1928) wrote:

It is interesting to note that in the rural areas in the Punjab, there has been an intimate connection between the literacy movement and the cooperative Department. The Department starts the schools and when their success is assured, they are handed over to the education Department. Thus of the last 4 figures in column No. 3 of the table above agriculturists number 17469, 35679, 48984 and 58800 respectively.

In Bombay, 27 schools were maintained in 1922, out of funds placed by Sir V. D. Thackersey at the disposal of the Central Cooperative Institute. These were circulating schools stationed at each centre for two years. The classes opened two hours daily in the afternoon. Generally, local buildings and teachers were utilized. In order to earn a grant from the Thackersey Fund, the school had to show an attendance of at least 20 persons between 16-40 who should be members of a cooperative society or children of such members. Teaching was given in the three R's, elementary general knowledge and cooperative accounting. The Government of Bombay also maintained primary schools for adults in urban as well as rural areas. In 1926, there were 116 schools for adults.
in rural areas.

In Bengal, in 1926 there were 926 adult schools and 100 continuation schools. Besides, cooperative societies were running 9 40 adult schools.

The U.P. Government, in 1921, offered a subsidy to six municipalities for the development of a system of night schools for adults. In the Central Provinces, the manager of the Empress Mills was running seven schools for adults, specially members of the depressed classes, with the help of the local Y.M.C.A. (Young Men's Christian Association).

About 1924, Travancore Government made regulations to recognise night schools for purposes of grant in aid. According to these rules a night school had to give instruction for two to three hours daily, for at least 100 school days in a year, to 20-40 pupils. The course lasted two years and comprised instruction in the three R's, Hygiene, First aid and History. A teacher who had no other work was paid Rs. 5 p.m. whereas a part-time teacher was paid Rs. 3 p.m.

This was a period of some progress in adult education. The trend was different from the earlier period as it brought cooperative movements, individuals, municipalities and mills in the field of adult education along with the government and bureaucracy.

1927 - 37

Economic depression experienced during the period resulted in the decline of adult education. As usual, activities like
adult education were the first casualties to expenditure cut down. The period was also politically disturbed and communal bitterness was on the increase. Most of the new adult schools working in the previous period were abolished because of financial stringency.

The rapid progress made in the Punjab in the previous period, registered a nose-dive decline in the present period. By 1931-32 the number of schools had come down to 585 with the enrolment figure at 12,696, a figure lower than that of 1922-23. There were only 189 schools with 4,988 students by 1936-37. However, experiments in village libraries showed some progress during the period. In 1930, there were 1,590 village libraries generally attached to Middle schools in rural areas, acting as cultural centres, for checking relapse into illiteracy and for providing convenient meeting places where lectures on various topics could be delivered to peasants. A similar scheme of village libraries, was started in C.P. and Berar in 1928.

Compared to other Provinces, adult education was progressive in the Presidency of Bombay during the period. The number of adult schools increased from 143 in 1932-33 to 180 in 1937. There were 6,299 students enrolled in these schools in 1937. This increase was due to two reasons. In the first place, the government had begun to take interest in the education of adults, and secondly, several associations such as the Rural Reconstruction Association and the Adult Education league of Poona, the City of Bombay Literacy Association, Sewa Sadan, and the Social League did substantial work in the field.

7
In 1927, Cochin started four village libraries on an experimental basis for the promotion of adult education. These libraries were attached to government Malayalam primary schools. By 1930, there were 134 night schools in Cochin with a total enrolment of 10,220 pupils. Most of the night schools were run by private agencies.

About 1935, Travancore government was giving annual maintenance grants to the existing private rural and urban libraries. Moreover, Education Department started to establish libraries and reading rooms in departmental primary schools.

1937-42

This was a period marked with popular Ministries coming to power in the provinces and adult education was to take a new look and orientation. There was great enthusiasm all around. Some leaders went about from place to place and village to village teaching letters or spreading the message of literacy. In some places primary schools were closed for two to three months and teachers were sent into the rural areas to teach the peasants to read and write.

Popular governments accepted adult education as a definite responsibility and organised work began in this area. The new syllabus of adult education was not confined to mere literacy, but included some civic education also. The media of education were extended to include publications, posters, cinema shows etc.
A Mass Literacy Movement was launched in Assam in September, 1940. The Education Department opened literacy and post literacy classes in every sub-division and within a year there were 1,840 classes including 47 for women. Village libraries, reading rooms, clubs and circulating libraries were opened during the period.

Bengal had schools run by village associations sponsored by the Rural Reconstruction Department, which controlled adult education in the province. These schools ran on the system of Mushtibhiksha, that is, from the proceeds of the handful of rice collected from house to house as traditional charity. The number of classes rose from 10,000 in 1939 to 22,574 in 1942 with an enrolment of 5,30,178. The Bengal Adult Education Association prepared the primer which was bought by the government and distributed to night schools.

In Bihar, the main body controlling the literacy movement was the Mass Literacy Committee. The literacy work under the scheme was supplemented by the Adult Education literature produced by the government and by the establishment of village libraries. Four thousand village libraries were established between 1930-40. However, the literacy campaign began to slacken after the popular Ministry resigned in 1939 - 40. In the place of 50,820 classes in 1938-39, there were only 18,878 classes in 1939 - 40 which further got diminished to 13,534 by 1941-42.

Bombay government appointed an Advisory Adult Education Board in 1938 to secure public cooperation, and collect funds for literacy work. Library Development Committee, appointed by the
government of Bombay in 1939, recommended a network of libraries and grants were paid to registered libraries under this scheme. In 1941-42, training of adult education workers was being conducted for two weeks in summer and winter vacations at government training institutes at five divisional centres. During the period there were about 3072 classes, besides the 3100 classes run by the Bombay City Adult Education Committee established in 1939.

Orissa government established a Provincial Mass Literacy Committee in 1939 to monitor the literacy work. However, the number of literacy classes diminished from 1168 in the beginning of the period to 433 by 1939-40.

A Continuation Committee was set up by enthusiastic teachers in the Punjab in 1937 under the leadership of Laubach, a missionary, to do experimental work in literacy and for preparing adult literature on Laubach lines. The Punjab government took keen interest in the work of this committee and contributed towards its expenses. In the decade 1931-41, the Punjab made great advances in literacy compared to other parts of the country. There were about 600 travelling libraries to which the government distributed books other than the books distributed to literacy classes.

The U.P. government created the Education Expansion Department in 1938 and entrusted it with the responsibility of adult education which hitherto was under the Rural Development Department. Attention was not only given to the spread of
literacy but also to its maintenance through a system of libraries and reading rooms. By 1941-42, government had opened 1040 libraries and 3600 reading rooms in the rural areas and grant was being given to 506 private libraries in the rural area.

Literacy work started in some Indian States during this period. In Baroda, compulsory primary education was introduced as an experimental measure in the town of Amreli and in nine villages of the taluka in November 1893. Later, in 1906, primary education was made compulsory throughout the State of Baroda. By 1920s, about 10 night schools were functioning for the benefit of adults in the State. Public libraries were established in 1910 which was followed by travelling libraries, a few years later. Literacy work was started in Baroda State in June 1939 and during the next two years 1648 classes were conducted. These classes were attended by 23,916 adults of whom 9,562 received their literacy certificates.

In Cochin, an Adult Education Association was formed in 1940-41. During this period Cochin government was giving grant in aid to village libraries to encourage private enterprise for the spread of adult education. There were 160 village libraries in the State.

Jamia Millia Islamia, Delhi, started a separate department for adult education and opened literacy centres. University Union, Mysore, trained some 600 students to conduct literacy classes for the adults. This was also the period which showed
marked increase in the number of libraries. Indian Adult
Education Association was founded in this period. The founding of
the Association was definitely to give new directions to adult
education work in India in the years to come. It could be said
that adult education work during 1937 - 42 did contribute to the
advance of 70% in literacy figure for India in the decade 1931-41
along with other educational forces and movements.

1942-47

Adult education suffered a set back during the period: world
War II; political uncertainty looming over the country after the
1942 national movement, social ripples arising out of
increasingly ascending communal tendencies, all had repercussions
on adult education. It became increasingly difficult to maintain
the tempo of enthusiasm for literacy campaign as experienced in
the previous period.

Adult education work slackened and number of schools and
classes declined in places like Assam, Bengal, Bihar, Punjab
Bombay and the U.P. Adult education work in Indian States was
also not so impressive compared to the work done in the previous
period. States like Mysore and Travancore perhaps, were
exceptions as they carried on with the literacy work. In 1943-44,
the government of Mysore increased the grant to the Mysore State
Literacy Council which enabled it to expand the scope of adult
education activities. In Travancore, there were 124 state
libraries by 1946-47. The All Travancore Library Association had
72 aided private libraries affiliated to it.
With the Indian National Flag displacing the colonial flag in 1947, were adult education and adult literacy to gain importance on the national agenda? The next section is a brief description of various efforts at adult education/literacy in independent India.

1.1.1 Since Independence

So far adult education was pursued at Province/State levels. In the wake of independence in 1947, it was felt desirable to have a general scheme of adult education which could be adjusted to regional needs. Accordingly in 1948, the Central Advisory Board of Education set up a committee to frame such a scheme.

Social Education

The committee, (CABE, 1948) recommended that whereas both literacy and general education were included in adult education, greater emphasis was to be laid on general education to enable every Indian to participate effectively in the new social order. The report of the committee influenced the governmental policy with regard to the content and material of adult education. Adult education was no longer to be confined to literacy, but was to include education in citizenship, health and even agriculture and handicrafts. At the 15th meeting of the C.A.B.E. in 1949, to mark the change in the scope of adult education, a new name was given, Social Education.
While social education concept replaced adult education by 1949, it was to serve in:

- Promoting social cohesion.
- Conservation and improvement of national resources.
- Building cooperative groups and institutions.
- Inculcating social ideology.

The age group to be covered by the social education programme was 12-40.

The course to be followed by social education classes was spread over 180 hours.

The number of students in a social education class was fixed at 30, under one teacher.

Primary/secondary school teachers were to be ordinarily recruited for social education work. Services of suitable volunteers were also to be utilized.

According to the All India Report of Social Education for 1947-51, hardly three per cent of the age group 14-40 passed through social education courses for the period. In 1952, social education became a part of the Community Development Programme. An experiment worth mentioning in this context was The Gram Shikshan Mohim of Maharashtra started in 1959. This movement was a step towards mass mobilisation in the field of adult education and eradication of illiteracy. It was started in the Satara district of Maharashtra as an experiment. Village and taluka propaganda meetings were organised by the State Department of
Education with the assistance of primary school teachers. The villagers provided accommodation, necessary equipments and assisted in the organisation of classes and maintenance of regular attendance. Later, the Satara experiment was extended to the entire state of Maharashtra in 1961. There was no systematic follow up programme which resulted in large scale relapse of neo-literate to illiteracy.

Farmers’ Training and Functional Literacy

The Farmers' Training and Functional Literacy programme started in 1967-68 was an inter-ministerial project implemented jointly by the Ministries of Agriculture, Education and Information and Broadcasting. Under the High Yielding Varieties Programme (Green Revolution), the Ministry of Agriculture had to train farmers to improvise the farming practice. It was difficult to implement such developmental projects when illiteracy was widespread. Hence, functional literacy programme was introduced to help illiterate farmers not only to acquire literacy in terms of reading and writing skills but also to enable them to perform satisfactorily all those functions which are necessary for them in the High Yielding Varieties Programme, such as:

1) to read and prepare their own input cards;

2) to write simple letters;

3) to complete simple application forms for loans;

4) to keep simple accounts of the farm operations;
5) to read and understand labels on fertilizer bags and pesticide packages and

6) to read and make use of simple extension bulletines, rural newspapers, etc.

The programme of functional literacy had covered about 30 lakhs farmers during the Fourth Five year Plan (1969-74). Although the long term objective was to establish one project in each district (400), by 1977 only 140 projects could be covered. This programme had to be discontinued due to very small coverage and lack of financial support.

Non - Formal Education

This programme was started in 1975 with the objective of providing non formal education (NFE) to young people relevant to their environment. It aimed at increasing functional skills of the learners so as to increase their productivity and social participation. NFE was designed to have diversified curriculum related to the environment and social cultural and economic needs of each learner group. Government of India provided assistance towards the implementation of the programme in one district in every state to start with, each district organising 100 classes with a total enrolment of 3000 young people per district. The states were expected to start the programme in at least one other district out of their own funds.
National Adult Education Programme (NAEP)

A nation wide programme of adult education called National Adult Education Programme (NAEP) for removal of illiteracy in the 15-35 age group was launched on 2nd October, 1978, by the government of India. The target for this programme was to educate 100 million adults within a time frame of five years. The NAEP had three main components - awareness, functional development and literacy. These components were not exclusive to one another and had to be integrated to achieve the objective of the NAEP. Literacy meant acquisition of the skills of reading, writing and numeracy. Functional development aimed to equip the learners with various functional skills and upgrade the existing skills so that they could function effectively both in their life and work situations and improve economic conditions. The social awareness component aimed at knowing, understanding and taking action on issues which affect the individual, the community and the society, so as to improve their quality of life.

Rural Functional Literacy Project (RFLP) was another centrally sponsored scheme started in 1978 for rural areas. The Farmers' Functional Literacy Projects and Nonformal Education Projects were merged into it. By 1987, there were 513 RFLP projects throughout the country, each having up to a maximum number of 300 adult education centres, each centre having 25-30 learners. State governments also took up centre based projects under the State plan funds on the lines of RFLPs.
Universities and colleges also took part in the NAEP started in 1978. In all 92 universities and 2,138 colleges in 18 States and 2 Union Territories have been involved in this programme. Adult and Continuing Education Departments were already functioning in Universities since 1969. By March 1985, 74 Universities and 2088 colleges were involved in the programme (adult literacy). Under the NAEP, Universities and colleges undertook to conduct more than 25,000 adult education centres till June, 1987.

The level of achievement of the National Adult Education Programme in relation to the target set for it was only about 20 per cent. A total of 44.22 million learners were enrolled in adult education centres in different years up to March 1988 against the target of 100 million. No figures were available for the number of learners who successfully completed the literacy programme. On the basis of sample evaluation it was estimated that 45 per cent of the enrolled learners would have attained literacy. Several institutes of Social Science Research and other agencies have reviewed this programme between 1978 and 1985. They have published 56 reports and National Literacy Mission (1988) document has summarised their findings as follows:

Strengths:

1. Women’s motivation and participation was high.
2. Coverage of SC/ST was higher than targets.
3. The project approach to management was feasible.
4. State Resource Centres Contributed significantly to the programme, the quality of teaching / learning material brought out by them was good.

5. The programme worked well in those states in which the adult education staff was recruited under special selection procedures.

Weaknesses:

1. The quality of training of functionaries was poor.

2. The monitoring system lacked credibility, there was considerable misreporting.

3. The learning environment in adult education centres was defunct, lighting arrangements were poor.

4. Mass media did not provide appreciable support.

5. Voluntary agencies did not receive cooperation from state governments and the procedures for their involvement discouraged them.

6. Learners' participation was irregular and there was considerable drop out and relapse to illiteracy.

7. Achievement of literacy level was generally below the expectations, and the delivery of components of functionality and awareness remained weak.
8. Absence of post literacy and continuing education arrangements adversely affected the programme.

9. Political and administrative support of the state governments and Panchavati Raj institutions was not forthcoming in an adequate and sustained manner.

It is evident from the findings of the evaluation reports that any future course of action in Adult Education had to be different from that of past for the removal of illiteracy.

National Literacy Mission (NLM)

The National Literacy Mission was launched by the government of India on 5th May, 1988 with the objective to impart functional literacy to 80 million illiterate persons in 15-35 age group - 30 million by 1990 and additional 50 million by 1995. Functional literacy implied:

- achieving self reliance in literacy and numeracy.
- becoming aware of the causes of their deprivation and moving towards amelioration of their condition through their organisation and participation in the process of development.
- acquiring skills to improve the economic status and general well being.
- imbibing the values of national integration, conservation of the environment, women's equality, observance of small family norm, etc.
Initially the time span of National Literacy Mission was fixed upto 1995 so as to coincide with the terminal year of the 8th Five Year Plan (1990-95). Since the 8th Plan could not take off from 1990-91 the time span of the Mission was extended upto 1997. The target has since been revised to making 100 million non literate persons literate during the 8th plan i.e., between 1992 and 1997. The NLM sanctioned 344 literacy projects till October 1995 to 22 states and 4 union Territories (UT) for implementation in 356 districts (fully / partly). In addition, 130 post literacy campaigns have been sanctioned to 16 states and 2 UTs covering 151 districts (fully / partly). The NLM has adopted a campaign approach, the success of which rests on the mobilisation of social forces and on securing people's large scale participation.

Literacy has been an integral component of any Adult Education Programme. From the foregoing account it is clear that adult education, often, in practice was the teaching of 3 Rs. Is eradication of illiteracy imperative? Should literacy be central to or an integral component of adult education programme? The following section is an attempt to deal with these questions.

1.2 Why Literacy?

Literacy which involves reading and writing has been historically thought of as an agent of individual and social development. Development is basically about the people. The basic unit, human factor, is of utmost value. Literacy is an indispensable and undisputable component of human resource development. It is an essential tool for communication and
learning, for acquiring and sharing of knowledge and information and for national development. It is not an end in itself but for better understanding of the surrounding world. It makes the individual largely autonomous to further learning.

On promoting the nation building perspective UNESCO emphasizes on the following:

1) Illiterates grounded deep in oral tradition and literates having acquired technologically advanced skill as literacy live in two kinds of socio economic world.

2) Illiteracy hinders the economic and social development.

3) Orality is incompatible with what is required by the advances in the scientific and technical evolution that mankind is witnessing.

The National Policy Resolution of 1968 in accepting the recommendations of the 1964-66 Education Commission Report emphasized that the liquidation of mass illiteracy is necessary not only for promoting participation in the working of democratic institutions and accelerating programme of production, especially in agriculture, but for quickening the tempo of National Development in general. Adult Education was necessary for people's participation in the working of democratic institutions, for national integration and for realizing the ideal of a socialistic pattern of society.
National development is possible through the conscious participation of every single human unit of the country. While illiteracy cannot be equated with ignorance it certainly is an unsatisfactory condition which restrains the optimum utilization of human potential. The world witnesses a tremendous explosion of knowledge. In this changing scenario, an individual's work depends upon his ability to utilize modern knowledge. Literacy, therefore, is a tool for development and the eradication of illiteracy is important in the context of human resource and national development.

The document National Literacy Mission (1988) reports the following to show the manner in which literacy affects human resource development:

1. **Children’s participation in primary education increases**: Literate parents send their children to primary school more readily. Their children are less likely to dropout and their achievement in school is higher.

2. **Infant mortality rate goes down**: According to the data compiled by the Registrar General of Census Operations, infant and child mortality rate (IMR) in respect of illiterate mothers is much higher.

3. **Much greater success in child care and immunization**: Literate mothers are much more likely to accept immunization of children.
4. **Fertility rate declines**: Acceptance of small family norm is related to the level of literacy. Literacy promotes knowledge and acceptance of small family norm. The higher the level of literacy, the higher the percentage of couples adopting small family norm.

5. **Women's self-confidence and self image improves**: Through literacy women become aware of their social and legal rights, learn and improve income generating skills, acquire a voice in the affairs of the family and the community, and move towards equal participation in the processes of development and social change.

The above findings also justify the underlying urgency for women's literacy. That women play crucial role in family has been underlined by the above findings (ii-v). Women's literacy affects family welfare, hence community development, societal development leading to national development.

Dreze & Sen (1996) consider the (i) instrumental social roles and (ii) empowerment and distributive roles of literacy.

**Instrumental social roles**: Greater literacy and basic education can facilitate public discussion of social needs and encourage informed collective demands (e.g., for health care and social security); these in turn can help expand the facilities that the public enjoys, and contribute to better utilization of the available services.
Empowerment and distributive roles: Greater literacy and educational achievements of disadvantaged groups can increase their ability to resist oppression, to organise politically and to get a fairer deal. The redistributive effects can be important not only between different social groups or households, but also within the family, since there is evidence that better education (particularly female education) contributes to the reduction of gender based inequalities.

At individual level, the shift from illiteracy to literacy is a gain in status as would happen with the acquisition of any other skill. Literacy as a demonstrable skill has a different aura surrounding it with social recognition. Literacy releases the individual from a sense of personal inferiority, from the relationship of dependency and subservience and allocates a new status and potential (Bhola 1984). Cognitive development perspective of literacy is promoted by Goody (1968). He suggests, a new technology of intellect is constituted as a result of the neo-literates' modes of perceiving and thinking about the world change.

Finally, literacy has been justified on purely ideological and ethical grounds. It is an essential element in the 'right to education' proclaimed in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights of the United Nations (1948). Every child man or woman learning to read and write does so for individual as well as social and economic reasons. That is for personal enlightenment and pleasure. As literacy exemplifies one of humankind's achievements - the invention and use of symbolic systems- illiteracy is
the denial of an essential element of the human heritage, imposition of an intellectual bondage and an obstacle to self fulfillment of the individual. Literacy is human right and illiteracy is silent promotion of inequality.

The foregoing deliberation suggests the significance of literacy and thereby advocating the importance of acquisition of literacy skills. However, a relevant question which comes to the mind here is, what is literacy?, whether literacy meant the same from time to time and from place to place in history? In the next chapter an attempt is made to understand, historically, the evolving meaning of literacy and its varying dimensions, before dealing with the specification of the problem under study.

Notes

5. MOE, op.cit., p.4.
6. ibid.
8. MOE, op.cit., p.5.
9. Singh, op.cit., p.52. Continuation schools and night schools seem to be the same, see Singh p.36.
10. MOE, loc.cit.
11. ibid. p.6.

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13. MOE, op. cit., pp.7-10.


16. MOE, op. cit., p.11.

17. ibid., pp.12-16.