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ABSTRACT

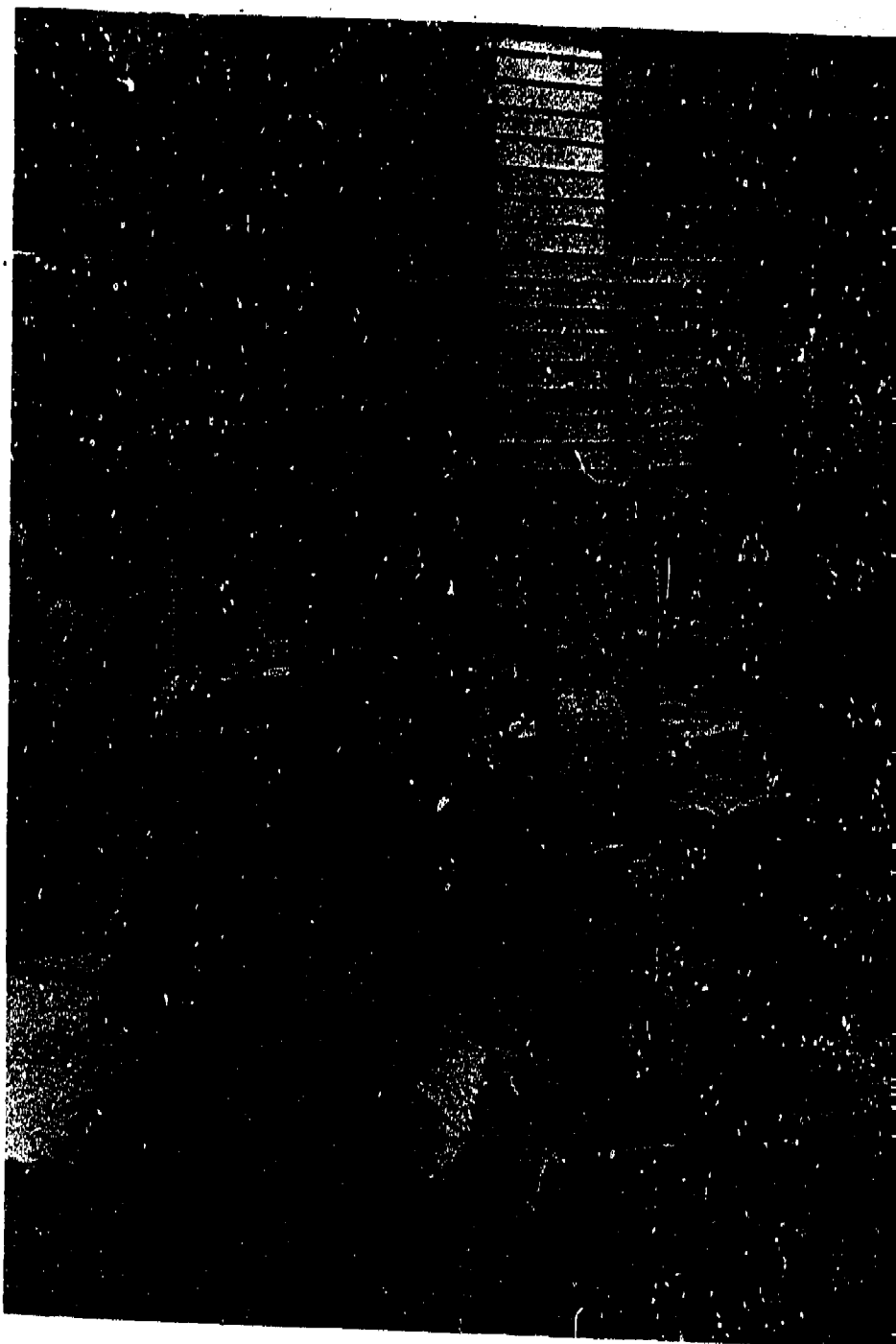
This issue of Asian South Pacific Bureau of Adult Education Courier Service focuses on communications within the region. The first paper discusses development and communication and the training needs for workers in these areas. The next two items briefly address how broadcasting for nonformal education is being approached in Indonesia, which started a pilot project in 1977, and in Thailand, which started a Radio Correspondence project in 1978. The Technical Report of the Seminar on Planning and Management of Mass Media for Nonformal Education Programs in SEAMEO and Associate Member Countries (Singapore, November 27-December 5, 1978) is then reproduced in full. The next article reports progress of the Lingap ng Pangulo sa Barangay, a school-on-the-air program commenced in 1977 in the Philippines. The following three articles are extracts from papers concerning nonformal education broadcasting in Pakistan: (1) description of the Programs for Farmers, (2) evaluation of the results of an ongoing Adult Functional Literacy Project (AFLP) utilizing television at Community Viewing Centers, and (3) a followup of people who undertook the AFLP program. The issue concludes with two articles on problems of obtaining material in Western Samoa and on a recent seminar and workshop in Thailand for senior broadcast managers. (YLF)

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ASIAN SOUTH PACIFIC BUREAU OF ADULT EDUCATION

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ASPBAE Courier Service is produced three times a year and each issue is made up of a Journal section dealing with adult, continuing and non-formal education, rural development, training, etc. It also includes separate News, Resources and Learning Exchange Sections.

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Wherever possible the Courier has acknowledged sources and authors but in some cases these have either been unknown or unable to be contacted.

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INTRODUCTION

This issue of ASPBAE Courier Service (No.20) focusses on communications within our Region. The first paper by John Woods of the Development Training and Communication Planning section of UNDP discusses development and communication and the training needs for workers in these areas. John Woods says of development communication "In a broad sense, it is the identification and utilisation of appropriate expertise in the development process that will assist in increasing participation of intended beneficiaries at the grassroots level." He goes on to discuss the groups of people who can most benefit from training in development communications and how this can be approached with best effect.

Various items throughout this issue briefly discuss how broadcasting for Nonformal Education is being approached in some countries. For instance, Indonesia which started a pilot project in 1977 and Thailand which started a Radio Correspondence Project in 1978.

We also reproduce in full the Technical Report of the Seminar on Planning and Management of Mass Media for Non-formal Education Programmes in SEAMEO and Associate Member Countries. This seminar was held in Singapore from 27 November - 5 December, 1978 at CEPTA TV as part of the SEAMEO SNEP and was financially assisted by ASPBAE. Additional ASPBAE participants from non-SEAMEO countries were also able to attend. The Report contains an overview of NFE broadcasting in Indonesia, Malaysia, Singapore, Philippines, Thailand, Hong Kong, Korea and Australia, as well as practical discussion of the best way to go about reaching the required target audience. The report goes on to discuss the various media, production, distribution, utilisation and evaluation. Suggestions are made, arising from the participants discussion, of ways in which countries could approach the coordination of Nonformal Education Broadcasting.

The "Lingap ng Pangulo sa Barangay" was commenced in 1977 and we include a report of progress of this 'school-on-the-air' programme in the Philippines.

There are three articles concerning NFE Broadcasting in Pakistan - the first is an extract from an article by Masud Qureshi and we have chosen to use his description of the 'Programme for Farmers' which has successfully been meeting a need for information in this area since 1965. Also included are extracts from two papers by Rafe-uz-Zaman, Director of Educational Television at the Pakistan Broadcasting Commission. These are concerned with an ongoing Adult Functional Literacy Project utilising television at Community Viewing Centres. The results of this Project have

been carefully evaluated and make interesting reading. The second of the articles deals with a follow-up, after a period of two years, people who undertook this programme in the districts of Rawalpindi and Lahore. Very encouraging results were obtained and 64 per cent still had a fair to good reading ability and 62 per cent a fair to good writing ability after that period. Some 50 per cent of the sample said that they made use of writing from time to time. Women appeared to be making more use of their skills with 70 per cent indicating that they were continuing to read as against 60 per cent of men.

This issue concludes with two articles from the "BM/Es World Broadcast News", one on the problems of obtaining first hand material for broadcast in Western Samoa and the other on a recent Seminar and Workshop in Thailand for senior broadcast managers. These were conducted jointly by the Thai Public Relations Department and the Asia-Pacific Institute for Broadcasting Development. The focus of the seminar was broadcasting for ethnic minorities and the consensus of the participants was that ethnic minority radio would accomplish two ends - it would recognize the existence of long neglected minority groups and would involve them in the socio-economic mainstream of Asia and the Pacific.



DEVELOPMENT AND COMMUNICATION - BRINGING THEM
CLOSER TOGETHER THROUGH TRAINING

By John Woods*

There are two urgent issues related to development communication. The first is 'training'. Having spent a considerable amount of my professional life being a university professor, I must admit having a bias towards well planned and conducted training programmes. The second urgent issue is brought out in the Colloquium title, 'response to Asia's needs'. I personally believe that Asia has untapped expertise to analyse its needs and to formulate solutions which are much more relevant than those transplanted from outside. In fact, I think the capability exists within Asia to derive innovative new models in development communication that some day will be copied in the West.

As requested, I will present what our organization, DSCS Bangkok**, is doing and then raise some issues related to development communication concepts and present some observations on training needs that exist in Asia.

Evolution of DSCS Bangkok Programme

Since 1967 when DSCS was started our programme has gradually been modified as the needs of the countries and the emphasis of the UN development assistance programmes have changed. The original task of DSCS was to provide direct services to UN sponsored development programmes. At that time, the assessment of the needs showed that many Asian countries did not have the institutional capability to produce communication materials for their development programmes. Therefore, these direct services concentrated on providing audio-visual materials and related communication activities. Since that time almost all Asian countries have built up this communication institutional capability.

In 1974, DSCS Bangkok began to shift its emphasis from providing technical services to concentrating on carrying out training and advisory assistance to communication agencies and institutions. The objective of this new phase of DSCS was to strengthen the capability of the communication institutions to better serve national development programmes.

John Woods is now Director of the Asian and Pacific Programme for Development Training and Communication Planning of the UNDP, Bangkok, Thailand

** D.S.C.S. has been renamed 'Development Training and Communication Planning' D.T.C.P.

Recently we have realized that working with communications institutions was not enough for effective development communication programmes. Therefore, starting in 1978 we began yet another new programme phase. The concentration of this programme is to assist governments in Asia and the Pacific to: (1) formulate programme strategies to increase participation at the grassroots level in their socio-economic development programmes; (2) improve their training of fieldworkers to be more effective communicators; and (3) improve the utilization of communication resources within their development programmes. We will be working at the country level through United Nations funded development programmes primarily in the basic sectors of agricultural and integrated rural development, health, family planning, and industry.

This new phase of our programme came about after a thorough analysis of the needs that exist within Asia plus an analysis of what other national and international institutions are planning to do during the next few years. It was our assessment that many government agencies need to improve their capability to effectively utilize both the interpersonal and media communication channels in the planning and implementation of socio-economic development programmes.

Our new programme will work country by country, throughout Asia. We will do very few region wide programme activities since we believe that fieldworker training and communication planning activities must be tailor-made to individual countries' and sectors' needs. As an international organization, our focus is upon trying to strengthen national capability to plan and implement staff development and communication planning activities. We will provide three types of services: (1) direct training and advisory assistance to government and UN development officials; (2) assist governments and UN development agencies design strategies for increasing participation in development projects and programmes and, where appropriate, formulate project proposals for international assistance in the training and communication planning areas; and (3) to document experience gained by governments and disseminate this information to other government agencies throughout Asia. During 1977 we will conduct approximately 50 training courses for development administrators and communication specialists. Many of these courses are conducted for specific programmes at the country level.

Development Communication Conceptual Issues

In recent years I have become concerned that development communication or development support communication or DEVCOM is running the danger of becoming meaningless. Many organizations give the impression that development communication is a panacea or answer to solving all development problems. Some have gone so far as to even give the impression that development communication is something new or even that it is a discipline. I want to point out

that the concept of effectively using communication for development purposes can easily be traced back to the ancient Greek times. During the early 1800's the 'penny newspaper' was a very effective development communication tool in Europe. More recently, since around 1920 this whole field has been formalized by agricultural communications specialists who have done an extensive amount of research, teaching, and service programmes in development communication. I feel there is a real danger that today's development communication advocates may be wasting much of their time on 're-inventing the wheel' or, at least, 're-discovering a concept'.

Development Communication System

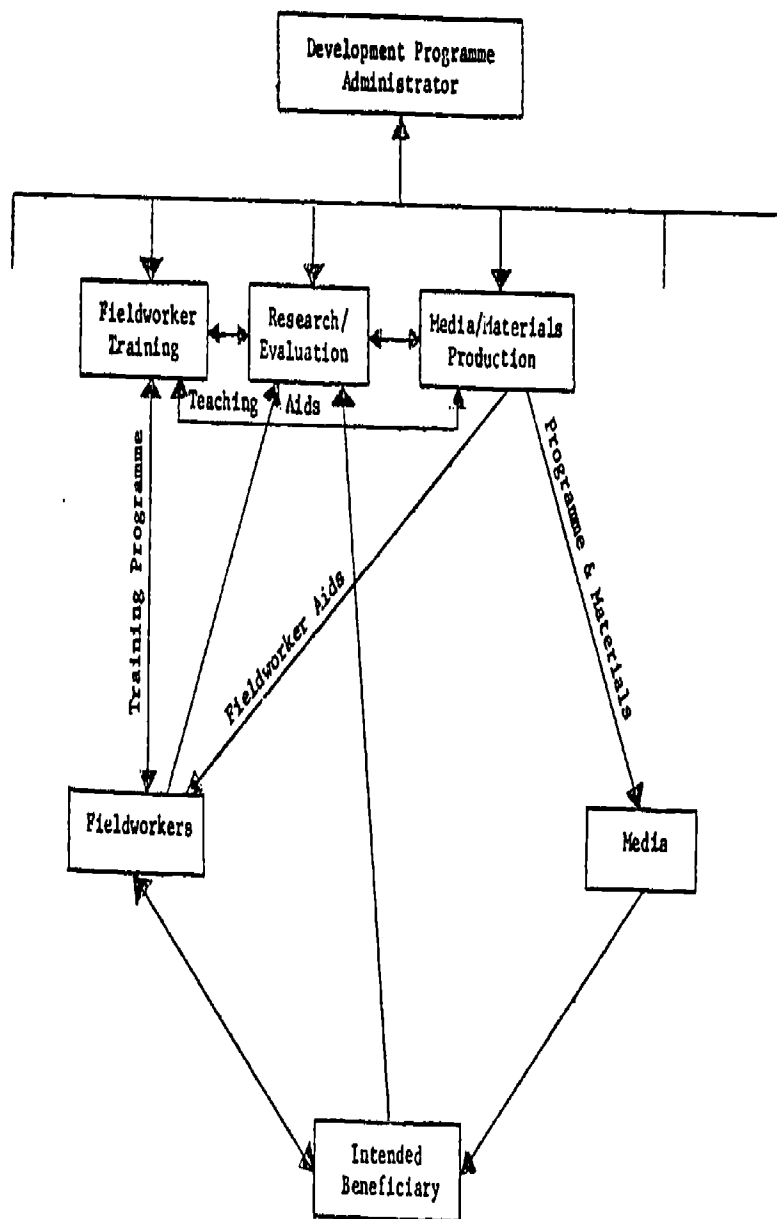
Development communication is often confused with the development of communication systems, particularly mass media systems. Development communication, for the most part, has been advocated by communicators. Therefore, the orientation is from the communications system perspective. However, I want to point out that in development communication the term 'development' comes first and 'communication' is secondary and supportive of the development process. Therefore, I feel that development communication must be viewed from the perspective of the development administrator and focus be on utilization of all kinds of communication systems, methods, and processes within development programmes.

Because of the different meanings of development communication and the related confusion many government development administrators, particularly in planning commissions, and decision makers in international agencies are becoming very skeptical of development communication. They are beginning to insist on seeing concrete results of development communication in specific socio-economic development programmes.

What is Development Communications

I want to start off this section by saying that these are my opinions and that many other people disagree with them. They are presented here so that you can understand the basis from which I operate so you can better judge the issues raised later in this paper.

I view development communication as an element of the management process in the overall planning and implementation of development programmes. In a broad sense, it is the identification and utilisation of appropriate expertise in the development process that will assist in increasing participation of intended beneficiaries at the grassroots level. The following simplified chart illustrates the concept as it should exist within a socio-economic development programme.



As the chart illustrates, we feel that within a development programme sector there is a need to link four types of expertise - administrative, training, research/evaluation and media/materials production. At the field level there are two basic forms of communication with the intended beneficiaries - fieldworkers and direct media. The arrows in the above chart indicate the directions of the information flows within this system. In my opinion, anybody working in development or communications must have an understanding of this overall system even if they are only concentrating on one element. All of the elements must be closely coordinated in order for the entire system to be effective.

The above chart illustrates the four basic information flows in the development communications system: (1) upward through research and field workers, (2) downwards through direct media, (3) downward through fieldworker interpersonal channels, and (4) management/organizational communications within the system. Each of these basic flows require different techniques and expertise. Very few training organizations have the expertise to be able to cover all of these information flows that make up the development communication system. At DTCP Bangkok, we have assembled a staff who have expertise in communication planning/programming, research/evaluation, training process, media/materials production, and management communications. We have been fairly successful in developing this expertise into an integrated team effort. Maybe this multi-disciplinary team approach is the most unique single element in our programme.

Development Communication Training Needs

As indicated in the title and earlier in this paper, development communication is actually bringing together two groups of people - development decision makers and communication specialists. Therefore, I think that any training centres established in development communication should conduct training activities for both groups. We have found that there is little value of training communication specialists to support development programmes if the administrators of the development programmes will not accept or properly utilise the communicator's expertise. On the other hand, we have learned that training development administrators to better utilise communications expertise is of little value if the communication specialists are not willing to cooperate.

I see the following general groups of people that should receive training in development communications:

- (1) Development administrators such as directors of national family planning programmes, agricultural extension services, etc. Training of this group should concentrate on utilising and managing expertise that is

involved in fieldworker training, research/evaluation and media/materials production. They should be encouraged to utilize this expertise at the earliest stages of planning and implementing development programmes. Also, some training could be provided in organizational and management communication.

- (2) Fieldworker training specialists which would include managers and teachers in training units in the development agencies. This training should include how to design comprehensive staff development programmes, carry out training need appraisals, curriculum development, teaching methodology, utilise teaching aids, evaluate training programmes, management of training programmes and techniques of interpersonal communications.
- (3) Research and evaluation specialists within development agencies and outside institutions who can conduct social science research for development programmes. The training should include need appraisal baseline research on intended beneficiaries, pre-testing of training and media programmes, and evaluating acceptance of ongoing development programmes at the grassroots level.
- (4) Media/material production specialists within the development agencies which would include communication campaign planners, media and training materials designers, and technicians. This training should be kept flexible and wide ranging in order to be appropriate for each of the many types of people involved. It should range from management and communication planning to elementary production techniques.
- (5) Communication specialists outside the development agencies including media managers, producers, creative and editorial specialists, technical production specialists, and distribution personnel. Some of this training should concentrate on increasing their understanding of the development process and methods of working with officials involved in the planning and implementation of development programmes. At the technical level, there should be training in how to design and produce materials to be used for educational and development purposes rather than for public relations.

Training programmes carried out for all the above group should contain an overview of the development communication system and discussion on where they fit in this overall system.

Multi-Country Training

There is a small, but very significant, difference in approach needed for training institutions working at 'in-country level' and 'multi-country level'. We have learned that it is much more difficult to organize an effective training programme involving participants from several countries than doing training within one's own country. Since there are extra costs involved for transportation normally only a few people from each country can attend a training course. Then, as mentioned earlier in this paper, there is the problem of major cultural-religious-political-economic differences between countries which greatly affect development communication. Therefore, for multi-country training activities I suggest that more emphasis be put on 'training of trainers' rather than training actual end-users.

Following the 'training of trainers' approach means evolving a basic strategy that aims at strengthening national capability for development communication training. This way you can have a multiplier effect at the national level. Hopefully, each person going through the training would return to his/her home country and conduct similar training for a number of people. This means adding several elements to the training programme:

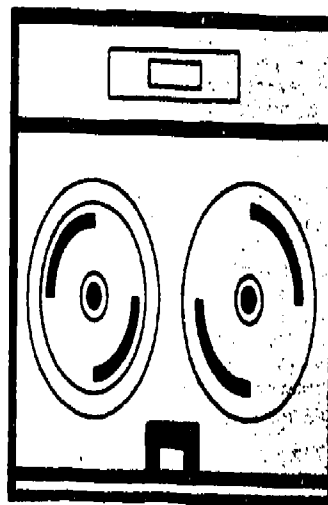
- (1) Analysis of the training institutions and their capabilities in the countries which will be involved. This will help in the selection of participants for the training courses and should provide relevant information for the curriculum.
- (2) Every training course should include instruction on training needs assessment, curriculum development, training methodology, preparation of relevant teaching materials, simple evaluation techniques, training facilities, and training management. In other words, the training should encourage the participants to become better teachers in their home country which includes both the methodology of teaching as well as motivating them to teach others in their home country.
- (3) Most courses should include having each participant design a course outline and prepare teaching aids for a course which they will conduct at home.
- (4) There should be some type of follow-up contact with the participants after they return home. This could be in the form of continuing reference materials, additional teaching aids, and some form of evaluation. If possible, it would be good for the instructors to periodically visit some of the countries and spend time working with former participants. This could eventually form a development communication regional network for exchanging ideas.

Since it is impossible for any one centre to train sufficient numbers of people throughout the region we must start building up national training capability in the field of development communication.

Conclusions

Very briefly I want to leave you with these thoughts:

- (1) Development communication is a process, not a technique, which is problem-oriented and requires a multi-disciplinary approach.
- (2) Development communication within the development process manages four types of information flows - up through research and fieldworkers, down through direct media, down through fieldworkers, and communication through the organizational system.
- (3) Training programmes in the field of development communication must include people who are development decision makers and communication specialists with the ultimate goal being to link the two closer together.
- (4) The training must be at many levels - from sophisticated managerial and planning to simple technical aspects of producing communication materials.
- (5) Development communication programmes must be tailor-made for each country and sector.
- (6) Multi-country training programmes should include 'training of trainers' and strengthening national development communication training.



INDONESIA

NFE Broadcasting in Indonesia is called 'Communication Technology for Out-of-School Education' (TKPLS). A pilot project was started in 1977 in 8 of the 27 Provinces of Indonesia.

Nonformal Education Broadcasting in Indonesia, like any other NFE Programme, tries to meet local needs and conditions. Although there are national personnel for NFE broadcasting, there are also provincial (local) NFE broadcasting committees who are responsible for carrying out the broadcasts of NFE programmes. While the local committee (team) is directly involved in carrying out the programmes, the national team is responsible indirectly in giving local personnel training in scriptwriting, programme production, curriculum development, learning processes among listening groups etc.

One of the components that the local personnel for NFE broadcasting have to be aware of is how to develop curricula that will be suited to and useful for the target audience.

To ensure that the broadcast materials are understood by members of learning groups, the following points need to be considered:

- (1) Group discussion, as a follow up of programme listening activities, must be conducted by the group leader who is chosen from the group as he shows his capability.
- (2) Supporting materials must be distributed to the groups. These materials consist of the outline/main points of the broadcast programmes.
- (3) Supervision and monitoring. Supervisors from Penmas (Community Education) regularly conduct supervision and monitoring of learning groups either during or out of broadcast time.

Feedback

To improve the standard of the broadcast programmes, the following feedback mechanisms are carried out:

- (1) Sending feedback sheets to members of learning groups in order to:
 - ask which part of the broadcast is difficult to grasp/understand;
 - state parts of broadcast which are not good enough (sound, background music, speaking tempo, etc.)

- to give other useful suggestions including the needed topics for future broadcasts.

- (2) Direct interview between TKPLS personnel (including the supervisors) during the supervisory visits and monitoring the location of learning groups. This interview is on the content and quality of the programmes.

(The above points were extracted from a paper by Sudarsono Sudirdjo entitled "Communication Technology for Out-of-School Education (NFE) in Indonesia.")

THAILAND

RADIO CORRESPONDENCE PROJECT

Background of the Project

Given the fact of a rapid economic and social change in today's society, education becomes an absolute necessity in helping people cope with such changes. In Thailand 80% of the population live in the rural areas and educational services are less than in the urban centres, so the vast majority of the rural people have less access to educational opportunities. It is primarily to benefit these rural masses and to help them acquire an education that the Radio Correspondence Project has been initiated. Radio transmission offers many advantages over other forms of mass media. People in the remotest area of the land can be reached immediately and also the use of transistor radios is widespread all over the country. A survey conducted by the National Statistics Bureau on the use of radio and television in 1974 revealed that 4,743,669 or 70.9% out of a total of 6,668,501 families owned a radio set. Television sets are not used by the people in remote localities because of the limited television transmission capabilities, its high cost of purchase and limited electricity supply. However, it has been accepted that in time television will be an important means of education in Thailand.

Learning Process

The learning process used in the Radio Correspondence Project is based on a concept known as "Khit-Pen". "Khit-Pen" states that the goal of every individual is happiness, and happiness is only achieved when one is in harmony with one's social and physical environment. In order to live harmoniously, an individual will either have to adapt himself to his environment or alter the environment to suit his needs or attempt to isolate himself from

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INDONESIA

NFE Broadcasting in Indonesia is called 'Communication Technology for Out-of-School Education' (TKPLS). A pilot project was started in 1977 in 8 of the 27 Provinces of Indonesia.

Nonformal Education Broadcasting in Indonesia, like any other NFE Programme, tries to meet local needs and conditions. Although there are national personnel for NFE broadcasting, there are also provincial (local) NFE broadcasting committees who are responsible for carrying out the broadcasts of NFE programmes. While the local committee (team) is directly involved in carrying out the programmes, the national team is responsible indirectly in giving local personnel training in scriptwriting, programme production, curriculum development, learning processes among listening groups etc.

One of the components that the local personnel for NFE broadcasting have to be aware of is how to develop curricula that will be suited to and useful for the target audience.

To ensure that the broadcast materials are understood by members of learning groups, the following points need to be considered:

- (1) Group discussion, as a follow up of programme listening activities, must be conducted by the group leader who is chosen from the group as he shows his capability.
- (2) Supporting materials must be distributed to the groups. These materials consist of the outline/main points of the broadcast programmes.
- (3) Supervision and monitoring. Supervisors from Penmas (Community Education) regularly conduct supervision and monitoring of learning groups either during or out of broadcast time.

Feedback

To improve the standard of the broadcast programmes, the following feedback mechanisms are carried out:

- (1) Sending feedback sheets to members of learning groups in order to:
 - ask which part of the broadcast is difficult to grasp/understand;
 - state parts of broadcast which are not good enough (sound, background music, speaking tempo, etc.)

- to give other useful suggestions including the needed topics for future broadcasts.

- (2) Direct interview between TKPLS personnel (including the supervisors) during the supervisory visits and monitoring the location of learning groups. This interview is on the content and quality of the programmes.

(The above points were extracted from a paper by Sudarsono Sudirdjo entitled "Communication Technology for Out-of-School Education (NFE) in Indonesia.")

THAILAND

RADIO CORRESPONDENCE PROJECT

Background of the Project

Given the fact of a rapid economic and social change in today's society, education becomes an absolute necessity in helping people cope with such changes. In Thailand 80% of the population live in the rural areas and educational services are less than in the urban centres, so the vast majority of the rural people have less access to educational opportunities. It is primarily to benefit these rural masses and to help them acquire an education that the Radio Correspondence Project has been initiated. Radio transmission offers many advantages over other forms of mass media. People in the remotest area of the land can be reached immediately and also the use of transistor radios is widespread all over the country. A survey conducted by the National Statistics Bureau on the use of radio and television in 1974 revealed that 4,743,669 or 70.9% out of a total of 6,668,501 families owned a radio set. Television sets are not used by the people in remote localities because of the limited television transmission capabilities, its high cost of purchase and limited electricity supply. However, it has been accepted that in time television will be an important means of education in Thailand.

Learning Process

The learning process used in the Radio Correspondence Project is based on a concept known as "Khit-Pen". "Khit-Pen" states that the goal of every individual is happiness, and happiness is only achieved when one is in harmony with one's social and physical environment. In order to live harmoniously, an individual will either have to adapt himself to his environment or alter the environment to suit his needs or attempt to isolate himself from

that they would be able to meet the challenges of a rapidly industrialising society. About 35% of the weekly radio programmes in Singapore deal with subjects of an educational nature. The stress on bilingualism is reflected in many of the language and literature programmes broadcast. A weekly radio series called 'Economic Magazine' was recently launched to explain important economic issues of the day to the public. In conjunction with the Adult Education Board, Radio-Television Singapore has also conducted annually a series of radio talks broadcast specially to arouse public interest in current affairs. Because Singapore is a highly compact nation, social attitudes have had to change rapidly. Television is being used extensively to prepare people for this change. In many of the television programmes on social affairs, road courtesy, family planning and so on, the 'soft-sell' approach has been successfully adopted to present the messages, to arouse public interest and to increase public understanding. Radio-Television Singapore also obtains specially selected high quality enrichment-type of programmes produced by other countries for the benefit of viewers.

In the Philippines, mass media have been used from the very onset of the introduction of non-formal education. They are used as a means of reaching as many people as possible. The primary aim is to make the people aware of the efforts exerted by the government to help them get more involved in the different activities designed for non-formal education. Radio is extensively used by the various government and private agencies to broadcast the 'Lingap Pangulo sa Barangay', school-on-the-air programmes. These programmes focus on literacy, agricultural and health-care problems as well as other priority projects. To ensure the effective implementation of the radio programmes for non-formal education on a national scale, coordinating committees at the national, regional, provincial and municipal levels are formed. At the reception level, there are guidelines formulated for organising and managing listening groups. The National Media Production Centre (NMPC) produces teaching guides and support materials for the radio programmes. The decision on what areas to be covered made by the sub-cabinet committee and the materials are produced by the curriculum group of writers. Television, despite its tremendous potential for rural development in the Philippines, is for transmitting non-formal education programmes mainly in Metropolitan Manila and the nearby provinces. Its use for non-formal education in rural areas is still limited. The Ministry of Public Information and NMPC telecast non-formal education programmes for pre-school children, teachers, school children, out-of-school youth and adults. The greater proportion of television time is assigned to transmitting socio-cultural programmes.

In Thailand, radio is the predominant mass medium currently used for transmitting non-formal education programmes. The two non-formal education projects that rely heavily on the use of radio are the Radio Correspondence Project and the project on Radio Broadcast for Hill-Tribe People. Initiated in 1976, the Radio

Correspondence Project is aimed at providing educational opportunities to the rural masses. The project resulted from the joint effort of several government departments. The learning concept involved is based on the philosophy of 'Khit-Pen' which states that the goal of every individual is happiness; and happiness is only achievable when a person is in harmony with his social and physical environments. The Radio Correspondence Project, based on this philosophical concept, provides the learners with basic information, additional information relating to the environment and methods to help them assess and analyse their problems in decision making. The radio programmes broadcast are accompanied by manuals for individual and group learning. The programmes broadcast focussed on Level 3 continuing education and group interest courses. The project on Radio Broadcast for Hill-Tribe people involves the transmission of weekly programmes on agriculture, marketing, health, sanitation and general education which are related to the content of functional literacy projects. These programmes are augmented by the work of the 'walking' teachers who are stationed at the key villages to conduct follow-up work on the content materials disseminated by radio. This programme increases educational opportunities for the hill-tribe people. Besides increasing their knowledge and capabilities, it is hoped that the radio programmes will also enable them to acquire economic, social and political values which are essential for national development. By the year 1980, Thailand will inaugurate the first open university in Southeast Asia. This university, named Sukothai University, will have no classroom buildings, and teaching will be extensively carried out by means of radio, television, printed materials, tutors at local study centres and other audio-visual materials.

In Hong Kong, the mass media resources for education are enormous, but unfortunately they are not extensively utilised for the purpose of nonformal education. Besides the usual informational programmes such as news, sports, drama and current affairs features, there are no non-formal education radio programmes aimed at improving the vocational competencies and living conditions of the masses of poor people. However, the radio service of Radio-Television Hong Kong does cooperate with certain education institutions to broadcast educational programmes on such courses as English Phonetics, Practical Translation, Japanese, Mandarin, Cantonese, French and Office Management. The Commercial Radio of Hong Kong occasionally broadcasts instructional programmes on general medical knowledge, family management and hints that are of interest to housewives. Insofar as television is concerned, the closing down of the Commercial Television station which devoted two hours daily to telecasting education programmes, greatly affects the contribution of the medium to non-formal education in Hong Kong. However, the educational function of television is being sustained by the Government Educational Television Service which utilises the transmission facilities of Radio-Television Hong Kong and other commercial television stations to televise the instructional programmes it produces for primary and secondary schools.

Besides school programmes, Radio-Television Hong Kong also produces topical features and public affairs programmes. These programmes, focussing on social and youth problems are well received by the public.

In Korea, the utilisation of radio and television broadcasts to supplement school education was initiated in the late 1960s. However, the utilisation of the media for broadcasting cultural and educational programmes has been the standard practice since the establishment of these mass media systems. It is only very recently that efforts have been made to incorporate the systematic use of radio and television in non-formal education programmes specifically designed for adults and out-of-school youth. In 1972, the Korean Junior College of the Air and Correspondence, affiliated to the Seoul National University, was established by the Ministry of Education to provide higher education to those people who, for one reason or another, are unable to continue higher education after high school. This college uses radio (Korean Broadcasting System) extensively and supplements the radio lectures with textbooks. Actual classroom attendance is reduced to a minimum of 20 days. In 1974 a High School of the Air and Correspondence Project was launched to provide high school education for youth and adults who are not able to continue their education after finishing junior high school. Partially programmed instructional materials for self-learning and radio lectures for the courses are produced by the Korean Educational Development Institute. These materials are transmitted by the Korean Broadcasting System and other commercial radio networks. Today there are 44 such high schools of the air having a total enrolment of thirty thousand students throughout the country. The students listen to the 15-minute radio lessons a day at home and attend class lessons in their respective schools on alternate Sundays. In addition to the above two projects, Korea also has other non-formal education programmes that involve the use of mass media. Some of these programmes are

- (1) Radio Farm Forum
- (2) Family Planning Campaign through Radio and Television
- (3) Saemaul (New Village Movement) Broadcasting through Radio and Television
- (4) Foreign Language Lessons for the public.

In Australia, the kind of non-formal education as practised in the developing countries of the Southeast and East Asia does not exist. Most of the non-formal education activities are organised in the form of part-time further education courses by the various universities for those who wish to improve their knowledge or to pursue their areas of interest. The mass media are not utilised in these courses. However, to fulfil their educational role, mass media agencies such as the Australian Broadcasting Commission,

do transmit various kinds of informational programmes to enrich the general education of the public. Past attempts to establish mass media facilities for transmitting non-formal education programmes to the immigrant population in Australia were stopped.*

Print

It is evident from the various reports presented that the newspapers and other print media are not used extensively for the purpose of non-formal education in the region. This may be due to the fact that printed materials do not lend themselves readily to self-learning unless the person involved is literate. Since a large proportion of the target population engaged in non-formal education activities are either illiterate or semi-literate, the contribution of the print medium is indeed limited. Nevertheless, the newspaper publishers do play their role by providing some form of non-formal education materials.

There are, in the newspapers, regular weekly columns with useful and informative contents for the people both in the urban and rural areas. Regular articles on consumer education, motorcar repair, people's problems and so forth are good examples. In Malaysia and Singapore, the newspapers publish language lessons daily to encourage people to learn and master a second language.

Various government departments and ministries also publish regular newsletters, pamphlets or brochures for the benefit of those who can read to learn about better health habits, new agricultural methods or more effective means of family planning. Printed materials in the form of charts, posters, banners, leaflets, etc. are frequently used in conjunction with government campaigns. Most of the printed materials are produced for the purpose of propagating national development efforts. As such, they indirectly support those radio and television programmes that carry similar messages. Because radio is essentially an audio medium, printed materials carrying similar content are needed to enhance the effectiveness of the educational programmes broadcast.

Planning and Management Operations

Factors pertaining to audience, objectives, content, media,

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In October 1980 the government-sponsored Multi-Cultural Broadcasting Commission began transmissions to migrants in the main capital cities of Australia with programmes in their native languages and other programmes designed specifically for non-Australian born people.

production, utilisation and evaluation are emphasised in the lead papers presented at the seminar. Planners and managers of non-formal education programmes must take cognizance of all these factors and view them synergistically as a total system if the potential of the mass media is to be adequately tapped. While audience, objectives, content and media are the substantive component elements of the system production, utilisation and evaluation are the major operational processes involved.

Audience

Non-formal education programmes are generally addressed to the following target groups:

- (1) those in the work force who are either unproductively employed or unable to find suitable jobs;
- (2) premature school leavers (employed or unemployed) who would like to rejoin the mainstream of formal education;
- (3) youth and adults who need compensatory education because they are socially and economically handicapped;
- (4) technical workers and even professionals who need upgrading of skills and new knowledge to improve their qualifications and performance;
- (5) those who wish to develop their personal interests and/or potentials.

Before embarking on the production efforts of non-formal education programmes, it is essential that a proper study be made of the intended target audience. Their characteristics must be considered very carefully so that adequate assumptions may be made regarding the level of language ability or communication skills, attitudes, knowledge level and socio-cultural system. For general 'awareness' type of programmes, a detailed analysis of audience characteristics may be difficult, but in the case of skill-oriented programmes, it is necessary to acquire information on the audience's background and level of understanding so that the programmes could be tailored to their needs and environmental conditions.

Objectives

There are several sources from which the objectives for non-formal education programmes may be derived. Some of these possible sources are listed as follows:

- (1) Official documents carrying government policy statements regarding goals, aims and strategies of national development (e.g. health, education, agriculture, etc.)

- (2) surveys of learners' needs through questionnaires, interviews and observations,
- (3) manpower surveys conducted by the economic planning unit or the statistics department,
- (4) experiences of other countries in similar situations,
- (5) studies focussing on the inadequacies of current programmes.

When developing a non-formal education programme for the mass media, one should as far as possible identify actual learning needs as perceived by the target audience in the community. Objectives formulated from learning needs imputed by programme planners tend to be unrealistic and not viable.

Content

After having formulated the objectives derived from the learning needs identified, it is necessary to decide on the kinds of content (subject matter) and learning experiences that will meet the needs of the target audience. The selection of content and learning experiences should be based on the knowledge, attitudes and skills specified in the objectives. Three questions have to be examined very carefully in knowledge organisation. They are:

- (1) what are the key concepts and how much information is required?
- (2) what is the level of difficulty desired?
- (3) What is the most suitable psychological (as opposed to pedagogical and logical) sequence that will lead to the progressive development of the learning process?

The incorporation of the attitude component of content requires the identification of examples to illustrate the desired attitude. The consequences of negative attitudes must also be emphasised. The learning experiences provided must highlight the effects of favourable and unfavourable attitudes. In attempting to teach skills it is important to identify and sequence them according to their complexity. Skills have to be demonstrated and practised. Consequently, it is essential to utilise a visual medium to illustrate the skills; and this has to be followed by a series of exercises for the learner to try out and perform the skills until mastery is accomplished at the specified level. While it is convenient to separate knowledge, attitudes and skills for the purpose of discussion, these three components of content may be simultaneously conveyed in a series of non-formal education programmes via the mass media.

Media

Every form of mass medium has certain advantages and limitations. In maximising the advantages, it is crucial to bear in mind the limitations as well. While it is recognised that mass media can serve non-formal education in many ways, it must be stressed that they cannot perform miracles such as raising the income of the rural population. The mass media can transmit information and messages efficiently, but they cannot serve as a panacea for all the problems of non-formal education. Educators must not expect too much from the media. By being aware of the properties of media, one would be in a better position to accept what the mass media can and cannot do. There is no one particular best medium for non-formal education. Decisions pertaining to which medium should be used for transmitting what kinds of non-formal education programmes can only be made after careful consideration of the general characteristics of each medium vis-a-vis the objectives, target audience and content desired.

The two broadcast media of radio and television have several features in common. Both can transmit information and events over long distances. Both can record materials for broadcast at a later time. Both can bring ideas, people and events to the target population in a dramatic fashion. While radio is essentially an audio medium, television has the advantage of being audiovisual. Since television furnishes both sight and sound, it is better than radio for communicating more clearly the characteristics of events that involve action and visualisation. With radio the listener must create in his own mind the appearance of the happenings, and often his mental image may be inaccurate. But in some cases, the characteristics of radio (by providing sound only) can be an advantage, such as when a producer wishes to stimulate the listeners to visualise events from hearing them.

Furthermore, a person can listen to a programme quite adequately while he is occupied in a task that does not involve mental concentration. In television, the viewers have to pay close attention to what is being shown on the screen in order to benefit from a programme. Radio is a convenient and economical means of reaching an enormous cross section of the population. Television has popular appeal and is highly entertaining (especially if the programmes are in colour), but the costs involved are high and the number of individuals who own television receivers is relatively small when compared to radio. Moreover, those who possess television receiver sets are generally those individuals who have less need for non-formal education. The print medium is pictorial and verbal in nature. To be effective in conveying information, the target audience using the medium must know how to read. However, to the illiterates the availability of printed materials is essential to help them acquire reading skills. Educators generally agree that there are several significant advantages in using the print medium in non-formal education. In the first place, printed materials such as the newspapers, brochures or

leaflets are economical. If we take into account the length of time they may be used and reused, actual per-person costs are low. The print medium can help to encourage individualised learning. Using programmed or semi-programmed text materials, it is possible for learners to proceed at their own individual rates according to their particular abilities, although in practice this may be done infrequently. Printed materials enable different people to study different things at the same time, or to repeat or restudy as often as is necessary at convenient times. Learning groups that are taught with the assistance of printed materials can be given varied assignments to meet individual requirements. Another feature favouring printed materials is that they help to organise and provide unity for group learning. This they do by providing a set of common reading experiences, suggested activities and questions to be answered. If the text materials are expertly written, they give further unity to group learning by introducing new concepts and content in ways which build upon what has preceded and what is to follow. There is no denying that the print medium is essential for people to learn how to study and read better; and subsequently to weigh evidence and to solve problems.

Production

The preparation and production of non-formal education programmes for dissemination by the mass media require close cooperation and coordination between media personnel, educators, content specialists and other professionals involved. The team-approach is essential because the production process is so complex that no one person can adequately perform all the tasks involved. A programme has to be carefully planned with definite objectives in mind. In order to arouse and sustain the interest of the target audience, a variety of the techniques available to the respective media should be utilised. Dull lecture type of programmes should be avoided. With the increase in sophistication of broadcasting and printing techniques, producers and writers of non-formal education programmes too must improve the quality of their programme presentation and production. Unless the target audience is highly motivated, non-formal education programmes that are dull and uninteresting will have limited success.

Needless to say, the materials and programmes produced should be credulous, simple and limited in scope. As a rule, programme materials should not be too long. Writers and producers must be imaginative in their approach and use techniques familiar to the target audience. While being creative in their writing and production styles, writers and broadcasters must not forget that the main focus of emphasis should be directed towards meeting the needs of the target population.

Distribution

Distribution systems for disseminating non-formal education programmes vary according to the nature of mass media involved. The broadcast media and the print medium have different distribution systems. Even within a given medium, the distribution system will vary according to the degree of sophistication and development of the services established and also according to the physical characteristics of the country. Whatever the system employed, there should be an infra-structure created to ensure that it is functioning effectively. Proper administration, servicing and maintenance are required so that materials and programmes are adequately received by the target population without interruptions caused by frequent communication and technical breakdown.

An important consideration for broadcasters regarding distribution is the timing or scheduling of the programmes. Generally, educational programmes are accorded lower priority by broadcasting stations, and as such they are not transmitted during prime viewing time. For non-formal education programmes to be effective, they must be disseminated when the potential target audience is available to receive them either at home or at community centres. The question of scheduling of programmes is admittedly a complex one, but a compromise acceptable to both broadcasters and educators can be worked out through goodwill and mutual understanding accorded to each other's problems. It should also be noted that there are different prime-times for different listening groups.

Utilisation

It is wishful thinking on the part of non-formal education programme writers and producers that materials of high quality will automatically ensure a high utilisation rate. Many mass media services have found that while quality materials enhance attention, they cannot guarantee utilisation. There is therefore a need to 'sell' or promote the programmes produced almost to the extent of modern advertising employed by manufacturers. For non-formal education, similar promotional efforts have to be expended to motivate and sustain interest of audiences in the materials and programmes. The mass media themselves should be used to publicise non-formal education programmes. Furthermore, the various government and other related agencies should frequently demonstrate their support for non-formal education programmes in public. The award of incentives through quiz and other forms of competition among members of the target audience would encourage participation. Finally, a well organised infra-structure should also be set up at the receiving end to encourage and guide follow-up activities. Materials and workbooks for follow-up activities have to be produced and distributed to the target audience. Group-listening, viewing, reading and discussion sessions are essential to foster learning and meaningful interaction. In ensuring effective utilisation, the importance of concerted effort in organising learning experiences for the target audience at the receiving end

cannot be over emphasised.

Evaluation

Evaluation is another important area that must be considered as an integral part of planning and managing mass media for non-formal education purposes. It is essential because there is need for systematic gathering of data to provide feedback information on how the target audience is reacting to the materials and programmes distributed. Such feedback information is vital to the entire production team for subsequent programme improvement. For members of the target audience, evaluation will facilitate their assessment of their own achievement level. Without evaluation it is difficult to ascertain whether the goals specified for non-formal education programmes have been attained.

Although its importance is recognised, evaluation is often a neglected area in the use of mass media for non-formal education. A good reason for this neglect could be the fact that the target audience in non-formal education programmes is often amorphous and unorganised - undesirable as this situation is. In the case of the formal school system, evaluation is easier to conduct because the target groups are fixed and readily accessible. Because of this difficulty there is even greater urgency for the establishment of an adequate infra-structure to carry out systematic evaluation not so much in terms of determining numerical quantity of people who are exposed to the programmes but in terms of audience responses and reactions. More specifically, the data gathered should provide feedback on:

- (1) how best the media can assist in learning and in bringing about changes in behaviour pattern of the audience;
- (2) what aspects of the programmes produced and/or methods employed have been successful;
- (3) what impact the materials and programmes as a whole have on the audience.

Findings regarding the types of information stated above may be obtained from letters written to the mass media agencies or from group discussion and dialogue sessions between media personnel and members of the target audience. Informal evaluation of this kind may be conducted quite easily by any member of the production team. Evaluation should also be carried out on a more formal basis by a team of specialists. The formation of a consultative committee on evaluation would ensure a cooperative approach involving administrators, planners, writers, producers and even selected samples of the target audience. The expertise of evaluation specialists is required for formative evaluation or action-oriented research because the process involved is not

only complicated, but it is ongoing at every crucial stage of programme development and utilisation. The specific form of evaluation employed will vary according to the type of programmes produced for the benefit of the audience. Regardless of the approach adopted, it is necessary that evaluation should be carried out systematically on a regular basis if productive feedback is to be obtained for ongoing revision and improvement of mass media efforts in non-formal education. Ideally, data from both formal and informal evaluation should be gathered.

Problems, Contentions and Suggestions

The many problems and issues deliberated at the seminar are basically directed at the question of what constitutes a 'good' non-formal education programme for transmission by the mass media and how such a programme should be designed and produced. The answer to this question is by no means simple for the quality of a good programme is indeed subjective. It is very much dependent on the complex relationship between the intended objectives, content, target audience and the particular medium involved. In other words, one has to examine or assess a programme in relation to the purpose, content and the target group. Enrichment programmes and direct instructional programmes, for example, may require very different assessment criteria. It is therefore very difficult to establish a specific set of criteria that is relevant to all programmes. Nevertheless, an attempt was made to identify the qualitative properties of a 'good' non-formal education programme. Listed below are some of the more salient features:

- (1) It should be entertaining and attention gaining. The programme produced for transmission by each medium must exploit the special effects made available by the technology of the medium.
- (2) It should arouse interest and curiosity. The programme must stimulate and motivate people to want to pay attention and learn more for themselves - may it be through listening, watching or reading.
- (3) It should carry content that is current, relevant and realistic with respect to the needs of the target audience.
- (4) It should present concepts in a simplified manner. There should not be too many ideas in a programme. The frequent repetition of these few ideas in the message presented can facilitate perception and comprehension.

The four requirements stated above are most desirable, but in view of the conditions under which media practitioners and educators in developing countries have to operate, even their partial attainment in the programmes produced may be regarded as a worth-

while achievement. The effective use of mass media in non-formal education is hampered by many problems. Decisions of media planners and managers cannot be implemented fully because of these problems. Some of the problems raised by the participants at the seminar are as follows:

- (1) The budget made available to media practitioners to produce non-formal education programmes is very limited. The time limited assigned for the production of these programmes is relatively short and sometimes unrealistic.
- (2) Decisions on the kinds of non-formal education programmes to be produced are sometimes determined by people other than media controllers. Studies are seldom made to find out whether the programmes decided are relevant to the needs of the target audience.
- (3) Programme writers and producers are required to produce many kinds of non-formal education programmes. The opportunity for specialisation in certain types of programme production seldom exists. It is difficult to obtain media personnel who are versatile enough to cover a wide range of subjects associated with curriculum on non-formal education.
- (4) The media facilities (equipment, space, etc.) made available for the production of non-formal education programmes are at times inadequate.
- (5) There is a shortage of media personnel and professional expertise for the organisation and production of non-formal education programmes. Very often the voluntary services of teachers and community workers have to be solicited to assist in production work.
- (6) Non-formal education programmes disseminated by the mass media require supportive materials for the target audience to carry out follow-up learning activities. There are few organisations or centres that are specially established to be responsible for the production and distribution of non-broadcast supportive materials. In some countries, this function is being assigned to national education media centres that are already experiencing difficulty in meeting the constant demand for audio-visual materials by the numerous schools in the formal education system.
- (7) Almost every country in and around the SEAMEO region has large proportions of its population with different languages, dialects and cultures. This situation affects the development of non-formal education programmes to be transmitted by the mass media.
- (8) In certain countries, large proportions of their rural

population requiring non-formal education are scattered in very isolated areas. Many of these people do not possess even a small transistor radio. Because the supply of free radio and television receivers to such far away villages is a slow and expensive venture, many of the target groups still cannot be reached.

- (9) In countries where there are several commercial radio and television stations, the different programmes broadcast by these stations may not serve a common national development goal. Each station has its own media policy. Steps must be taken to coordinate and unite their activities so that the listeners and viewers can really benefit from them. Currently when some stations are broadcasting non-formal education programmes, others are simultaneously transmitting entertainment programmes. Such a situation is not healthy for non-formal education.
- (10) Mass media are deployed for non-formal education by virtue of the fact that they are available. As their initial establishment is meant for purposes other than education, media practitioners encounter difficulties in having to develop and produce non-formal education programmes. Learning is a very complicated process and they feel that not enough is known about how it occurs in children, youth and adults. Educators, on the other hand, do not know how to use the various media properly.

In addition to the above problems, there are also certain contentions regarding the utilisation of mass media for non-formal education which, when taken into consideration, will help improve planning and management of programme development. Some of the crucial issues deliberated at the seminar are listed below:

- (1) The process of programme development (i.e. from origination and production through to utilisation) entails the team-approach. Decision-makers, administrators and content specialists must cooperate and contribute their efforts jointly. There must be distribution of responsibilities and agreement between the different parties involved.
- (2) Programme writers and producers must accept the fact that, in the context of developing countries, decisions concerning the kinds of non-formal education programmes which the mass media will have to disseminate are generally pre-determined.
- (3) One has to be realistic about the budget and facilities made available for programme development. Although the technical quality of the programme is to a certain extent affected by limited funds and facilities in hand, media personnel must be innovative.

- (4) So long as commercial radio and television have to depend on profit to remain viable in a competitive world, they will give low priority to the transmission of non-formal education programmes. It is unlikely that they will change their profit oriented policy.
- (5) The important factor to consider in scheduling non-formal education broadcasts need not necessarily be the prime time hours of commercial broadcasts. Different target groups have different leisure time. It is therefore more important to determine what are the time-blocks when the different target groups are free; and non-formal education may be better utilised if they are scheduled according to the leisure times of different target groups.
- (6) The constraints imposed on programme development by budget and time limitations may lead to the production of technically poor non-formal education programmes. Such programmes however need not necessarily be educationally inferior.
- (7) In view of the fact that messages transmitted by the broadcast media are transient in nature, radio and television may be more effective when used for enhancing effective learning in terms of arousing motivation and imagination than for imparting cognitive concepts and skills. However, the availability of audio and video tape-recording facilities would improve the instructional capability of broadcast media.
- (8) Since mass media can influence people, non-formal education organisers hope to utilise this power to stimulate and promote independent learning and self-reliance.
- (9) The mass media are merely delivery systems. They are tools employed for message transmission. As such, they cannot be expected to affect people beyond the objectives of the programmes they transmit. When programme objectives are vague and unrealistic, the effects of the media may in fact be negative.
- (10) While the mass media can be used to educate the socially and economically disadvantaged, there is no guarantee that this will necessarily enable them to increase their income.

Cognisant of the problems and issues in hand, the next obvious step would be to identify some possible measures that could be undertaken to help better plan and manage the use of mass media for non-formal education. Developing non-formal education programmes for transmission by the broadcast media requires careful planning, and many efforts have faltered due to the lack of it. Systematic planning and meticulous management become all the more important in educational programmes that are to be transmitted by

one-way delivery media systems where the captive audience cannot be ensured and immediate feedback is not possible. In the various discussion sessions, the participants suggested the following measures for improving the use of mass media in non-formal education.

- (1) A coordination committee could be set up in each country to integrate the non-formal education activities of both the broadcast and non-broadcast media services. A total systems approach to planning and management should be adopted. To be effective, the different media must complement and support each other in the non-formal education programmes and activities.
- (2) In order to obtain basic data required for programme planning and development, there is need to establish a special research and evaluation unit. This unit would conduct audience surveys to determine specific needs of target groups and to gather feedback information on audience reactions regarding the programmes produced. With information on what target audiences like or dislike about the programmes, improvements on their quality can be made accordingly.
- (3) There should be regular meetings between members of the production team and officers in the various government departments and agencies who are involved in non-formal education projects. These meetings are essential for the production team to find out the specific requirements that have to be met in the programme that has to be produced.
- (4) A communication channel should be established between members of the production team and the target audience at the community level. This would enable media personnel to be more aware of the needs and problems of the people they hope to affect and influence. It would also facilitate production work in the field should the need arise.
- (5) Non-formal education programmes should focus on the problems of the target audience. The theme of the programmes must emphasise independent learning and self-reliance. As far as possible, the programmes should be geared to some on-going development project in the country.
- (6) Careful consideration must be given to programme utilisation at the receiving end. The target audience must be properly organised wherever possible into learning groups to carry out listening, viewing and reading activities, together. Follow-up activities in the form of discussion, role-playing and demonstration should be conducted for them.
- (7) To ensure effective programme utilisation, supportive services at the receiving end are also essential. The target

audience must be provided with workbooks, brochures, leaflets, charts, etc. so that the learning groups will be able to gather further information on the concepts and ideas broadcast to them.

- (8) To reduce the distraction and competition from entertainment programmes, it would be advisable to seek government support to persuade the different mass media agencies to broadcast non-formal education programmes during the same time block.
- (9) Media practitioners dealing with rural development programmes should be posted to the rural areas for sensitivity training in the field. This kind of field training will expose them to the real-life conditions and problems of the potential target audience. It will enable them to be close to the people in the community and thereby sensitise them to the needs, problems and social milieu of rural people.
- (10) Every media organisation has its own needs, requirements and modes of operation. Since educators have to work with media practitioners in the development and production of non-formal education programmes, a system of inplant training should be formulated for those educators involved so that they would not only be familiar with the conditions and techniques of media production, but would also be able to understand their media counterparts better.

In conclusion, therefore, it may be said that there is no one right or wrong way of organising the mass media for non-formal education. Each country must develop its own system or model for each area of educational activity on the basis of existing needs and available resources. There is no denying that the mass media have vast potential in the field of non-formal education. All the countries in the SEAMEO and its neighbouring region have mass media networks. It would be a waste of national assets if they are not optimised to serve non-formal education. If adequately utilised for the purpose of non-formal education, the mass media can be regarded as a national resource promoting the socio-economic development and advancement of people in development countries thereby improving the quality of life.

The above is the Technical Report of the SEAMEO-CEPTA Seminar on planning and Management of Mass Media for Non-formal Education Programmes convened with the cooperation of ASPBAE 27 November - 5 December 1978 in Singapore. Volume 1 is the Final Report and contains Proceedings of the Seminar.

THE PHILIPPINES:

'LINGAP' AN ON-GOING NFE SCHOOL-ON-THE-AIR PROGRAM

A welcomed innovation on non-formal education in the Philippines is the utilization of the mass media, particularly radio in the implementation of the NFE programme.

It was the President of the Philippines who saw the need for an integrated, interagency and interdisciplinary non-formal education with the radio as the medium when he issued the Letter of Instruction No.561 on June 23, 1977 creating the 'Lingap Ng Pangulo sa Barangay' an NFE school-on-the-air Program. Thus, 'Lingap' was born.

'Lingap ng Pangulo sa Barangay' is the Filipino term for the President's concern for the barangays. It is the first integrated educational broadcast in the Philippines accentuating the different developmental programs of the government to improve the quality of life of the people particularly the rural folk.

Rationale of Lingap

'Lingap ng Pangulo sa Barangay' is envisioned as an effective instrument for harnessing all resources, especially human resources which must be developed in order to hasten the country's development.

The rural folk, the poor, the youth, the unskilled, the unemployed, who constitute the bulk of the Philippine population are in a vantage position to wage rural and barangay or community improvement efforts and they have shown willingness and interest to participate actively in the government's development programmes. However, this willingness and interest have been hamstrung by lack of technical know-how, expertise, appreciation and understanding of government programmes. To obviate these problems and to develop a corps of barangay people who shall set the pace for barangay and community development and a better life in the countryside, Lingap was launched as a step towards bringing the classroom to the doorsteps of the rural folk or the barangays.

Brief History of Lingap

The 'Lingap ng Pangulo sa Barangay' school-on-the-air programme was created by President and Prime Minister Ferdinand Marcos through Letter of Instruction No. 561, signed June 23, 1977. The LOI directed all government agencies concerned with programmes directly affecting the rural people or the barangays to cooperate

with each other in the development of a curricula for the educational broadcast, and to formulate plans and strategies to gain greater acceptability of the programme, including the establishment of an incentive system.

The leading government ministries and agencies directly involved with the programme are the Ministries of Education and Culture, Local Government and Community Development, Agrarian Reform, Agriculture, Natural Resources, Social Services and Development, and Health. The Office of the President has been assigned overall coordinator of the programme.

The LOI also created a Sub-Cabinet Committee headed by the Deputy Minister of Education and Culture for Non-Formal Education to oversee the implementation of the programme.

After a series of meetings, a Lingap Operations Centre was established at the National Media Production Centre staffed by a corps of media specialists from different government agencies.

Finally, the first Lingap broadcast was aired on September 17, 1977. It was the first school-on-the-air programme based on a curricula formulated by media experts from the different agencies of government.

Today, the Lingap ng Pangulo sa Barangay project has organized a total of 16,002 listening groups in 38,016 barangays with a total listening force of 517,308 participants, excluding of course other regular listeners from the general audience.

The implementation of the five major components of Lingap is being supervised and coordinated by a total of 188 organized coordinating teams with the assistance of 9,221 teacher-coordinators and other government extension workers. The weekly one-hour programme is broadcast nationwide by a total of ninety radio stations. Programme format is flexible and varies from region to region.

To implement the whole Lingap programme, a series of seminars and workshops was conducted this year in various regions of the country. One of these was a nationwide orientation and appreciation seminar participated in by 1,756 local officials and other implementors of the project.

Although the Operations Centre is working out a more credible feedback machinery, the reports submitted during the seminars clearly indicated that there were multifarious problems encountered in the implementation of the whole project. Aside from financial constraints, the most common problems which hampered successful implementation of the programme were the lack of coordination in the regional level and the seemingly lukewarm attitudes of some of the participants themselves and implementors as well.

To obviate these problems various measures and recommendations were suggested, the most significant of which was the request for a bigger allocation for the whole Lingap operations. Gleaned from reports submitted to the Lingap Operations Centre the various problems encountered in the implementation of Lingap may be attributed mainly to lack of funding support. For a project with a national import, a more solid financial assistance and a stronger consolidation of human resources is a must. This is imperative not only for 1979 but in the succeeding years as well. Amidst unavoidable constraints, the major implementors of the Lingap ng Pangulo sa Barangay are optimistic that success could certainly be achieved, not overnight, but after a deliberate and systematic consolidation of all available resources, particularly human resources.

Organizational Framework

To ensure the effective implementation of the 'Lingap ng Pangulo sa Barangay on a national scale the following committees were organized:

(1) National Coordinating Committee

The Sub-Cabinet Committee members compose the National Coordinating Committee headed by the Political Deputy Minister of the Ministry of Education and Culture in Charge of Nonformal Education.

(2) Regional Coordinating Committee

Composed of Presidential Regional Officers for Development (PROD), Regional Directors of various government agencies, and representatives from NMPC, MPI, BMC-KBP, Association of Barangay Captains, and KB Federations. The PROD heads the RCC.

(3) Provincial Coordinating Committee

Composed of Governors, Superintendents and heads of provincial offices of various government agencies involved in Lingap, and other representatives appointed by the Governor who acts as chairman of the PCC.

(4) Municipal Coordinating Committee

Composed of Mayors, Supervisors and heads of offices from various agencies plus other representatives appointed by the Mayor who acts as chairman of the MCC.

Operational Machinery

To provide consistency in the implementation of the program in accordance with its major areas of concern such as Production of Teaching Guides and Broadcast, Organization of Listening Groups, Public Assistance, Research and Evaluation, and Training, the following operational guidelines were outlined:

(1) Production of Teaching Guides/Distribution

The National Media Production Centre handles the printing of teaching guides or lesson plans or other print projects produced by the Lingap Operations Centre under the Sub-Cabinet Committee.

The Lingap Operations Centre supervises the distribution of the Lingap teaching guides to the different agencies and personnel concerned.

(2) Broadcast Production

The program which is aired once a week is regionalized. The time and day varies from province to province depending of local conditions and audience preference in each area.

Broadcast format is flexible depending on the content, proximity or relevance of the lesson or subject matter.

The Lingap Operations Centre handles the national broadcast, while NMPC-MPI production teams oversee regional or provincial programmes.

Lingap broadcast is aired by the most powerful radio stations in each area to ensure wider coverage.

(3) Organization and Management of Listening Groups

The PROD in coordination with MLGCD are responsible for informing governors and mayors and their respective barangay captains about the organization, management and supervision of listening groups.

Every barangay must have at least one organized listening group composed of out-of-school youths and adults, farmers, fishermen, labourers, housewives, etc.

The organized listening group meets regularly at the designated listening centre on the day and time set for the broadcast by the Regional Committee. The teacher-coordinator or other resource persons invited will answer questions or clarify issues brought out for deliberation or discussions. Public schools, barangay centres and other public buildings are made available as listening centres.

The barangay captain assisted by the head teacher/non-formal education coordinator and KB chairman work hand in hand in the organization, management and supervision of listening groups.

A Production Task Force or Field Coordinators go to regions/provinces to look into the major aspects of the programme and offer viable solutions to problems that may be encountered by the regional/provincial coordinating teams.

(4) Evaluation and Monitoring System

The Lingap Operations Centre with the assistance of Regional Coordinating Teams conducts continuous oral and written evaluation to check on the listeners' understanding of the topics discussed, attitudes changed and skills gained from the broadcast.

Government representatives involved in the project monitor feedbacks based on monitoring system established in their area of responsibility.

(5) Training

The Lingap Operations Centre oversees the training programme for Lingap implementors to be re-echoed down to the barangay level.

The Centre lines up training needs necessary for a more effective implementation of the overall Lingap programme.

(6) Public Assistance

Public assistance is one of the main features of the programme. Problems and cases received by the Lingap Operations Centre are referred to proper authorities.

The 'Lingap ng Pangulo sa Barangay' Curriculum

Objectives

To develop among the rural folk proper values, attitudes and appreciation of our rich cultural heritage and to instill love of country, nationalism, spirit of service and commitment to country.

and fellow men.

To bring to the rural people information on the latest technologies of farming and food production, agrarian reform, community development, nutrition, population control, family planning, health services, natural resources, conservation and related matters.

To inform the rural folk of the development programmes of the government, how these programmes will ameliorate and improve the quality of their lives and the contributions that they made to these programmes.

Target Audience

The target clientele of the 'Lingap ng Pangulo sa Barangay' School-on-the-air Programme are the poorer segment of our society especially the farmers groups, the housewives, the youth, the labourers, fishermen and other members of the barangay.

Course Content

The course content of the 'Lingap' is responsive to the national problems, current community issues and the learners individual and group needs. The programme therefore provides basic information on the latest technologies of farming and food production, home industries, community development, nutrition, pollution control, family planning, health services, natural resources conservation and other related matters.

The 'Lingap' curriculum writers from the different government agencies were able to prepare nine teaching guides which are translated to the understanding of the community listeners through the school-on-the-air programme. The nine lesson areas are:

1. Land Availability and Utilization
2. Credit Facilities for the Farmers
3. Food Production
4. Food, Nutrition and Technology
5. Environment
6. Citizenship and Cultural Heritage
7. Family and Community Life
8. National Security
9. Foreign Policy

Delivery System

The 'Lingap ng Pangulo' NFE school-on-the-air programme serviced its target clientele through the radio which is the channel most available to all audiences in the Philippines. To be able to bring the classroom to the doorsteps of the barangay through the radio, the 'Lingap' Production Centres were organized in the twelve regional capitals of the country. Thus, the production of broadcast lessons is regionalized in order to serve best the interest of the people in the regions.

A total of ninety-two radio stations carry the programmes all over the country. The programme is aired once a week at a time and day adopted by the region. The broadcast time and day vary from region to region based on the preference of the target audience of the programme.

Support Materials

To continuously create awareness about the programme, radio plugs are also produced and aired over the radio stations. Posters which will encourage listenerships have also been prepared and posted in strategic places.

The need to produce instructional support materials like primers, basic readers, modules, instructional posters and even comics have already been identified, but they cannot be produced because of financial constraints.

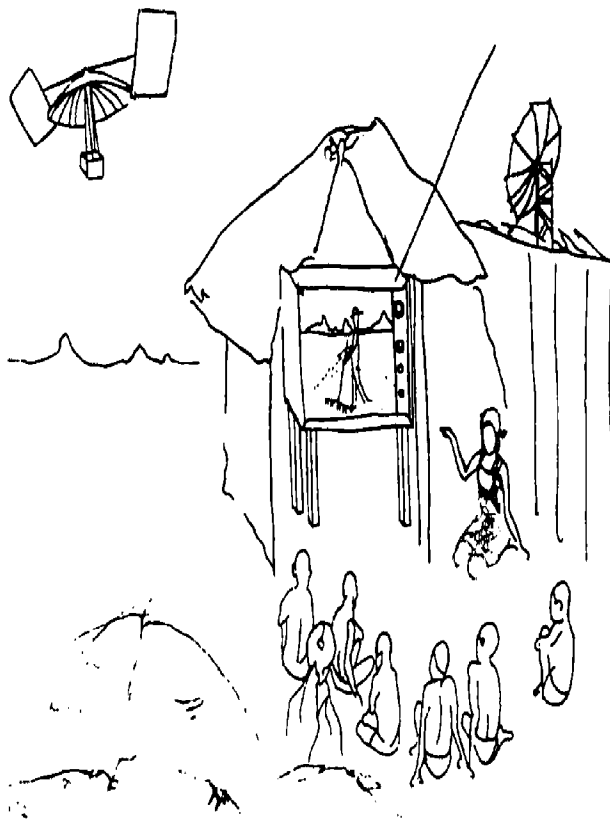
Feedback and Evaluation System

Feedbacks about the progress of the program implementation are monitored to the National Operations Centre from the Regional Operations Centre.

More reliable feedback are gathered through direct interviews, and on-the-spot visits to the listening centres.

Feedback assessment and evaluation of the programme are effectively discussed during the seminar/workshops and the annual conference of the Lingap Regional Coordinating Teams members.

The feedback gathered all over the country serves as the basis not only for future plans regarding the programme implementation but also on policy making.



PAKISTAN

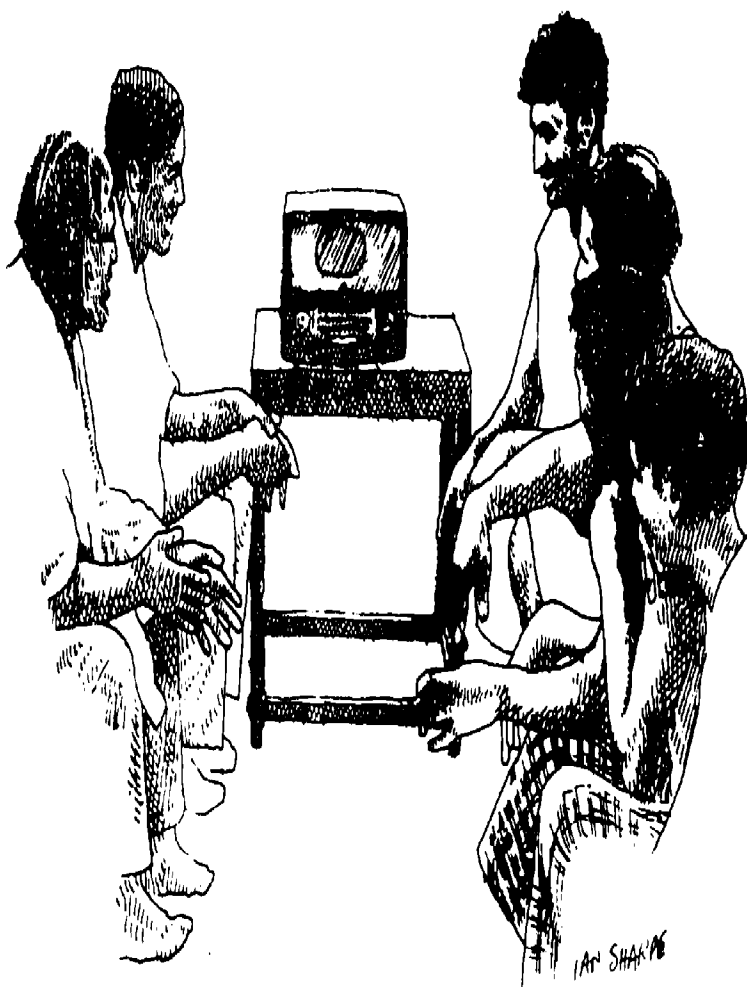
Programme for Farmers

In 1965, Radio Pakistan commenced Farm Forum Programmes of 30 to 45 minutes from all the regional stations in Pakistan. As the audience for these programmes was specific and their levels of comprehension, means available at their disposal, their felt needs, resources available to Pakistan for modernizing agriculture and their prejudices, were known commodities it was possible to organise the broadcasts and feedback with quicker and measurable results. The time of broadcast of these programmes generally coincided with sunset when farmers are available for group or individual listening and the time was adjusted with the change of seasons.

The methodology adopted was much more scientific than could have been attempted for rural and general motivational programmes. Close liaison was kept with the policy making bodies in the field of Agriculture and all other organizations connected with agriculture. The Provincial Agriculture Departments seconded two Agricultural Experts who were responsible for the agricultural contents of the programmes and the production staff was responsible for the format and presentation. The Unit worked at the Radio Station as an integrated team.

Almost 97 per cent of the set-owning farmers listen to this programme. Both methods of individual listening and group-listening are adopted. For the purpose of group-listening, the Field Assistants of Agricultural Departments stationed in various villages act as Secretaries of the Listening Group. Copies of Quarterly Schedules are provided in advance to these Secretaries. Also a fortnightly chart of the programmes in bold vernacular letters are supplied for display on the Notice Board. Pre-listening preparatory sessions and follow-up sessions are held by the Secretary of the Group who sends in reactions of the farmers in a monthly statement to the originating station for evaluation and future use. With a weekly or fortnightly frequency, Farm Broadcasting Units go out to various listening groups in the villages and record reactions of the group audiences to a particular programme which are later broadcast as Radio Reports. In addition, Farm Forums are held fortnightly in villages and the Farm Broadcasting Unit along with a team of agricultural experts go out and reply to queries or criticism of farmers and discuss their problems and their solutions on the spot. Queries of listeners contained in the letters are also replied to by a panel of experts on a weekly basis. All this has helped in making the programme a down-to-earth affair and a two-way traffic.

(The above points were extracted from a paper by Masud Qureshi entitled "Non Formal Education in Pakistan with Reference to Pakistan Broadcasting Corporation".



A FOLLOW-UP SURVEY OF THE READING AND WRITING HABITS OF
NEOLITERATES IN THE LAHORE AND RAWALPINDI DIVISIONS **
(Two Years After They Became Literate)

Rafe-uz-Zaman
Director, Educational Television
Pakistan

Introduction

With the cooperation of the Adult Basic Education Society (ABES), and especially the assistance of its Director, Mr Vincent A. David a survey was carried out, from 3 May to 28 August 1978, to determine the reading and writing habits, felt advantages, and attitudes on sending children to school among the 16,000 men and women who had successfully completed the Adult Functional Literacy (AFL) course at Community Viewing Centres (CVC) during the first ETV-AFL Project, from 12 October 1975 to 30 April 1976. For this purpose, ABES staff surveyed villages in two districts of the Lahore Division, by taking every second village where CVCs had been established, and collected and evaluated answers to the questionnaire from a sample of 813 neoliterate men and women from these centres. In the Rawalpindi Division, an ETV Field Supervisor collected answers to questionnaires with the assistance of former AFL teachers, from a sample of 201 neoliterate men and women in villages of the four districts of Rawalpindi Division and of the Federal Area, and the results were evaluated by the ETV Division. Tables A and B indicate the distribution of the samples by villages and districts, and Appendix I contains the English translation of the Urdu questionnaire on the reading and writing habits of neoliterates.

In general, the results are fairly encouraging in that reading and writing tests show that 64 per cent of the total sample has a fair to good reading ability and 62 per cent a fair to good writing ability, while 65 per cent indicate that they had actually been reading something and 50 per cent say that they made use of writing from time to time, generally in connection with household or work accounts. Details of the survey results are given in three sets of six tables:

1. for the combined total sample (Tables 1.1 to 1.6);

* See 'Television for Adult Functional Literacy - Final Report on the First Pilot Project and its Evaluation', by Rafe-uz-Zaman, Pakistan Television Corporation, June 1977.

** Text of a survey. For the full report write to Rafe-uz-Zaman, Pakistan Television Corporation, Constitution Avenue, Islamabad, F5/1, Pakistan.

2. for the Lahore Division (Tables 2.1 to 2.6);
3. for the Rawalpindi Division (Tables 3.1 to 3.6).

The main findings are summarised in the following sections on:
(1) Reading Habits; (2) Writing Habits; (3) Attitudes on Sending Children to School; (4) Practice of Teaching Children/Adults; (5) Felt Advantages Gained.

(1) Reading Habits

While the Rawalpindi survey shows a higher percentage reading than the survey for the Lahore Division, for which no definite reasons have been ascertained, in both surveys women give a somewhat more positive response than men - on the whole, 70 per cent of the women indicating that they were reading as against 60 per cent of the men. However, in terms of the reading test, there is no significant variation, as in the total sample, 64 per cent of the women and 63 per cent of the men score fair to good marks, although here, too, the performance of the Rawalpindi sample is noticeably better than that of the Lahore sample, and in the former women perform better than the men. Concerning the type of reading indicated, as a percentage of those reading, 54 per cent of the women mention reading Urdu translations of the Holy Quran, an equal percentage other materials, and only 21 per cent newspapers; whereas 76 per cent of the men mention other materials, 31 per cent newspapers and only 21 per cent Urdu translations of the Holy Quran. In regard to frequency of reading among those who read, whereas 56 per cent of the women indicate they read every day, only 40 per cent of the men say so, while of the women 19 per cent indicate that they read at least once a week and 25 per cent sometimes, and of the men, 25 per cent say that they read at least once a week and 35 per cent sometimes.

Reasons given for not reading by both men and women mostly refer to having difficulties in reading or having no time for it; 63 per cent of the men and women not reading giving either of these two reasons. Only 19 per cent of those not reading indicate that they did not read because of the lack of reading matter; and 18 per cent say that they were not interested in reading or could not afford to purchase reading materials. Even the comparatively small category of lack of interest is puzzling in view of the fact that, as we shall see in more detail, 92 per cent of the total sample indicate that they had gained some advantage through learning to read and write.

(2) Writing Habits

On writing habits, the difference between the two samples is even greater than for reading, the Rawalpindi sample showing that 81 per cent of it was writing, whereas of the Lahore sample only 43 per cent were writing. However, in the writing test the two sam-

ples showed little difference, fair to good marks being scored by 64 per cent in the Rawalpindi sample and 62 per cent in the Lahore sample. For the total sample, men and women did not show the kind of difference for writing as they had in the case of reading: 52 per cent of the women and 48 per cent of the men indicate they wrote. While a fairly large percentage of both men and women writing mention that they wrote letters (56 per cent) and wrote in connection with accounts (74 per cent), only 10 per cent mention that they made notes of instructions concerning work. Of those not writing, almost all (98 per cent) give difficulty in writing or not having the time to do so as their reason for this. So far as the factor of difficulty is concerned, this response is a little surprising, since 62 per cent of the total sample shows fair to good skill in the writing test, whereas in fact only 50 per cent claim to write - i.e. only 81 per cent of those who are able to do so fairly well.

(3) Attitudes on Sending Children to School

A uniformly high percentage of the samples are in favour of sending both boys and girls to school, though in this case the Lahore sample indicates a somewhat higher percentage of 91 per cent as against 85 per cent for the Rawalpindi sample. Of the total sample, a higher percentage of women is in favour of sending both boys and girls to school, 94 per cent as against 87 per cent in the case of men. Of the few persons (9 per cent) in the Lahore sample not in favour of sending girls or any children to school, most (91 per cent) give no reasons for this; but 8 per cent say that they were not in favour of sending children to school either because the children are working or because they feel school involves too much expense. In the Rawalpindi sample, of the few (15 per cent) not in favour of sending girls or any children to school, the reason indicated by 33 per cent is that there is no school (presumably for girls, since all these responses are from one village and concern the reason for not sending girls to school), and by 7 per cent that the children were working. A majority, 60 per cent, again give no reason. None of the men and women surveyed chose to say that there was no use in sending children to school.

(4) Practice of Teaching Children/Adults

In both samples, about the same percentage indicate that they have been trying to teach children or adults since they acquired literacy skills. Of the total sample, 20 per cent say that they have been teaching one or more children and 2 per cent that they have taught one or more adults - in the case of children, 96 per cent of those teaching them were doing so with success; and in that of adults, 68 per cent of those teaching them were doing so with success. The percentage of women teaching children is somewhat higher than for men, at 24 per cent as against 16 per cent.

(5) Felt Advantages Gained

While there are differences in the percentages for specific advantages mentioned in the two samples, both show that about 92 per cent felt that they had gained some advantages through learning to read and write. In general, a large proportion of women indicate that they had been helped in taking care of children and in home management, and a substantial number also refer to being helped in keeping accounts. On the other hand, more men mention being helped in accounting and increasing their income. For the two samples combined, 63 per cent of the women mention being helped in child care and home management, as against 32 per cent of the men. And, while 52 per cent of the men say that they have been helped in accounting and 23 per cent in increasing their income, the corresponding percentages for women are only 33 and 5 per cent. In regard to learning new useful things, the response of men and women is about the same at 28 and 27 per cent of the total sample of men and women. Taking men and women together we find that among the advantages mentioned the percentage frequency order is accounting (44 per cent), child care (36 per cent), learning new useful things (30 per cent), home management (16 per cent) and income (14 per cent).

In terms of the number of advantages mentioned by respondents, there is an interesting but unexplained difference between the results of the two samples. In the Rawalpindi sample, of those who felt some advantage, 63 per cent of the women and nearly 67 per cent of the men mentioned two or more advantages, whereas the corresponding figures for the Lahore sample are 27 per cent of the women and 35 per cent of the men. For the total sample of men and women combined, of those who felt some advantage, 69 per cent mentioned only one, 23 per cent two, and only 8 per cent more than two.

General Conclusions

It appears that while almost all neoliterates have derived some benefit from the functional literacy course (92 per cent), only 50 (writing) to 65 (reading) per cent make active use of their new skills, with women showing a somewhat higher activity role than men. With very few exceptions, the 20 per cent who are successfully teaching children or adults and the 13 per cent who have increased their income belong to the active category of 50 to 65 per cent. Particularly in view of the fact that a fair to good writing skill of 62 per cent exists, there is need to find means of motivating more of the adults possessing this skill to exercise it - particularly through the field agencies of agriculture, health and social welfare departments.

But realistically, it still appears that out of the total number of people made literate, one cannot expect more than 60 to 65 per cent to become active users of their acquired new skills and

EXPANDED ADULT FUNCTIONAL LITERACY PROJECT

Final Report on the Expansion and Evaluation of the Project
(11 October 1978 to 2 May 1979)*

Rafe-uz-Zaman
Director
Educational Television

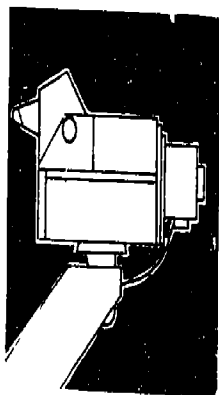
(1) Introduction

The expanded, and second evaluated, cycle of the Adult Functional Literacy Project (AFL) enabled more than 22,000 adults at 477 community viewing centres (CVC), located in all regions of the country, and over 142,000 following the television course through private arrangements to become functionally literate in about six months, through a course including 156 half-hour telelessons. For the total of 164,800 adults made functionally literate, the per capita cost of the TV component amounts to Rs.13.47. As against, the initial enrolment, the rate of successful completion of the AFL course averaged about 75 per cent for the CVCs and 74 per cent for those following the course outside CVCs. At the CVCs the pass rate for adults taking the tests, for a total sample of 13,320, averaged 93.9 per cent, although the range of pass rates varied from 70 per cent in Sind to 98 per cent in the Punjab. Thus, this cycle of the AFL project has once again demonstrated the viability of the course of telelessons in terms of (a) its remarkable effectiveness for those who follow the course through regularly and (b) its low unit cost if the total coverage of the mass medium is kept in mind.

However, the cost-effectiveness factor does not appear in quite such a favourable light when we take account only of the results achieved at the CVCs. Compared with a target of 555 CVCs, in fact 477 were set up; and the total enrolment of these is estimated at just 29,769 as against the target of 66,600. Even this actual initial enrolment has been achieved largely as a result of the special efforts of the Adult Basic Education Society, which (a) through its own resources succeeded in mobilizing 165 CVCs, instead of its target allocation of 48, and (b) managed to ensure an average combined enrolment of 100 men and women per CVC for the afternoon and evening sessions of the course, as against the target of 120. The CVCs managed by other agencies achieved average enrolments ranging between no more than 30 to 50, with many CVCs being used only for males or only for women, and frequently for only one session of the course. As a result, costing the TV component of the course in relation to only the adults

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Extracts from this report which is available from Pakistan Television Corporation, Educational Television Division, P.O. Box 1221, Islamabad, Pakistan



made literate at the CVCs, numbering only 22,326 as against the target of 49,950, its per capita cost rises to nearly Rs.29.60 as against only Rs.19.28 if the target had been met (the unit costs of TV set depreciation and maintenance amounting to Rs.18.65 instead of Rs.8.34). This again underlines the need to improve the management of CVCs, aiming at the kind of efficiency achieved by the ABES, and to expand the viewership of organized reception.

In addition to the large number of adults made literate outside the CVCs, surveys also showed that at least 253,000 children followed the course and benefitted from it.

(2) Development and Previous Cycles of the Project

Recognizing the need to see how television might make a significant contribution in the field of adult education and functional literacy, the ETV Division prepared a proposal, in August 1973, for a pilot project to impart functional literacy to adults with the help of television. With the object of determining what could be achieved at what cost, and urging that it should be made the basis of a rapid nationwide expansion over a period of seven to ten years as the spearhead of a resolute campaign to eradicate illiteracy, the proposed project aimed at making 24,000 adults, including an equal number of men and women, functionally literate in six months. This was to be achieved through a course of 156 telelessons, followed up by AFL teachers, at 200 community viewing centres (CVCs) in the Punjab, each aiming at enrolling 60 men and 60 women for separate sessions in the afternoons and evenings. The proposal was submitted to several aid-giving agencies, including UNICEF, which, after examining the project in consultation with Unesco, agreed to provide a grant of \$220,000 to cover a major share of the cost of the project. Meanwhile, in anticipation of securing such support from some source, work on the production of telelessons had already been started. For on-the-ground arrangements it was first planned and agreed with the People's Works Programme (PWP) of the Punjab that its Directorate of Adult Education would undertake this task; but then this plan had to be given up because of changes in the Directorate, and PTV itself had to undertake most of this task, with the help of the Adult Basic Education Society, Gujranwala. Later, the Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) undertook to operate some 50 CVCs and the PWP 6 CVCs (in Multan). Finally, this first pilot project was launched on 12 October 1975, and its course was completed on 30 April 1976, preceded by an intensive teacher-training course of 21 telelessons from 2 to 14 August 1975. Each half-hour telelesson was transmitted twice a day, except on Friday, in the afternoon for women and in the evening for men. While a detailed description and evaluation of the project is given in the final report on it, "Television for Adult Functional Literacy", issued in June 1977 (following a preliminary report in August 1976), here only salient features of the results are outlined.

Not counting between 104,000 to 181,000 adults estimated to have

acquired functional literacy through the AFL course outside CVCs with private arrangements to follow it on TV, the course succeeded in enabling about 16,000 adults to become literate at 190 CVCs i.e. 66 per cent of the target enrolment of 24,000. In addition, it was also found that, quite unexpectedly, some 113,000 to 196,000 children also followed the course on a private basis and improved their reading and writing skills. In the main, properly prepared project area of the Lahore Division, the success rate was, however, somewhat higher at 73 per cent (about 12,000 adults becoming literate out of a target enrolment of 16,440 for 137 CVCs). The pass rates of men and women actually taking the AFL tests (of reading, writing, arithmetic and functional knowledge in such subjects as health and nutrition, budgeting and saving, child care and family planning, growing vegetables, and basic agricultural practices) was most satisfactory, at between 90 to 96 per cent. The drop-out rate on initial enrolment was limited to less than 14 per cent, most of this occurring in the months of February-April, which may partly have been influenced by the fact that the evening transmission timings for males were changed from 18:45 hrs to 17:50 hrs in January, and it did not prove possible to get back the later timing when the day began to lengthen again. The presumption in favour of this possibility is supported by the fact that the drop-out rate for men was much higher than for women, at 16.6 per cent against 10.6 per cent, and that there were numerous complaints that the timing of 17:50 hrs was too early. Other problems encountered, apart from power failures interrupting telelessons, were mainly logistical: delays in getting reading materials to all the CVCs in time; difficulties in arranging quick replacements and repairs for TV sets going out of order (particularly in the first few weeks); involved procedures for making payments of honorariums to some 1200 teachers to satisfy the requirements of accounts; and some teacher resentment at the sale of reading materials to enrolled adults being arranged through them with refunds on cuts from honorariums for this purpose being made only on the return of unsold copies.

The Final Report concluded: "It has thus been demonstrated that the telelessons for Adult Functional Literacy, including the component of teacher-training, provide an effective and viable instrument which, if properly used, would make it possible to mount an expanding and successful campaign to eradicate illiteracy, to provide basic elements of adult education, particularly in the social sectors listed in the report, and also to improve the reading and writing skills of primary school-age children. However, proper use of the television instrument and the rate at which the campaign can be raised to an effectively massive level will depend on the degree to which there is a genuine commitment backed up by adequate finance. Half-hearted efforts will obviously produce only half-baked results; and significant and rapid progress will not be possible without the kind of commitment that has characterized all past successful national campaigns for literacy (for instance, in the USSR, Mexico, China, Turkey and Cuba)."

An expanded AFL Project was started on 17 September 1978 with the teacher-training course, consisting of 21 telelessons of about 40 to 45 minutes duration, telecast at the rate of two lessons a day and concluding on 1 October 1978, in which serious problems were encountered in certain cases, owing to delayed deliveries of TV sets. Thereafter, the AFL course itself was begun on 11 October 1978, with the first transmission, for women, at 15:15 hrs and the second, for men, at 17:25 hrs. The half-hour telelessons were telecast daily, except on Fridays, other public holidays and on certain days when there were live coverages of cricket tests or hockey matches clashing with the afternoon transmissions of AFL (of which the latter interruptions caused some confusion and had negative effects on the attendance at CVCs).

In addition to the "Naya Din" primer, on which the first 53 telelessons are based, enabling the student to read and write simple and useful words and sentences, proceeding from the simpler configurations of the Arabic script to the more complex, the 10 revision lessons for this, and 25 arithmetic lessons telecast once a week, starting in the third week of the course, 68 telelessons were based on the themes of the following 11 functional booklets:

- | | |
|---|---|
| Merā Ghar
(My Home) | Family Relations and Home Management |
| Achchā Kisān
(A Good Farmer) | Efficient methods of farming, including information on ploughing, seeds, fertilizer and pesticides. |
| Rustam kā Gharāna
(Rustam's Family) | Stories covering themes of hygiene, nutrition, health and self-help. |
| Mehantī Gharāna
(The Industrious Household) | Ways in which piety, self-help and innovation can help improve the quality of life. |
| Salmā, Sughar Bīwī
(Salma, the Efficient Wife) | Concepts of household budgeting and the advantages of saving and investment, in story form. |
| Ham Kiyā Khāen?
(What should we Eat?) | Nutritional requirements of a balanced diet and how to meet these at minimum cost. |
| Sastī Sabzī
(Cheap Vegetables) | How to grow seasonal vegetables, their nutritional values and how to utilise them |
| Makhkhī Hamārī
Dushman
(The Fly, our Enemy) | Health hazards of flies and mosquitoes and how to protect ourselves against them. |
| In Se Bachiye
(Protect Yourself from these) | Preventive measures against malaria, stomach ailments and cholera, and immediate steps in case of an attack of malaria and cholera. |

Hādsāt
(Accidents) First aid in the case of accidents.

Saf Pānī, Achchī
Sehat
(Clean Water,
Good Health) The importance of clean water, preventive measures against cholera, dysentery and typhoid with some reference to family planning.

Teacher Training

The pre- and post-course testing of a sample of 600 male and female teacher trainees showed that considerable learning had taken place, since the average number of marks increased from 10.5 to 53.7 per cent, although understanding of the methodology of teaching adults to write remained weak, with the average marks for this increasing from 4.8 to only 25.5 per cent. The reason for this is not clear. In terms of grades obtained in the post-course test, 26.3 per cent secured an A; 48.7 per cent a B; and 17.8 per cent a C; with only 7.2 per cent failing with a D (i.e. securing less than 35 per cent of the total marks). Male trainees did noticeably better, in that 39.3 per cent secured an A against 13.3 per cent of the females, and only 12 per cent had a C or D rating against 38 per cent of the females, although the percentage for B rating was exactly the same at 48.7 per cent. The reason for this difference probably lies in the fact that the educational level of males was higher and they generally also had some previous teaching experience, whereas most of the women did not. The comparative data for the small Rawalpindi sample, shows a somewhat lower achievement level and emphasizes the difference between male and female performance. But the results are particularly encouraging as the trainees did not have the benefit of experienced teacher trainers to guide them after the telelessons, which were available to the ABES trainees.

AFL Students at CVCs

The ABES pre-course survey of 16,000 enrolled students, including an equal number of men and women, as expected, showed that only a minute percentage of them could write (4.2 per cent) or read (7.4 per cent) their own names, and that while 1.3 per cent could manage to read some simple sentences, none could write any. What came as something of a surprise is that only about 1.8 per cent of them could write numerals of up to 10 and just 1.5 per cent could manage simple sums of addition. While a majority of the male students were farmers (49.0 per cent) there were also a substantial number of labourers (31.8 per cent), skilled workers (12.5 per cent) and shopkeepers (5.8 per cent). On the other hand, almost all of the female students (96.3 per cent) were housewives. The average age of students was 27 years for males, with a range of 16 to 52 years, and 24 years for females, with a range of 12 to 52 years. Starting with 176 CVCs, in Gujranwala, Gujrat, Sheikhpura and Sialkot, enrolling 7,500 males and 9,000

females (against a target of 8,250 each, at the rate of 50 per session per CVC), there were 165 CVCs at the end of the course in April, enrolling 5,432 males and 7,370 females. The 11 CVCs dropped had to be closed by the ABES, not because of any lack of interest on the part of students, but owing to one or another of the following factors: non-co-operation of the local leaders, partisan politics, or the classroom site provided not proving suitable. The drop-out rate on both initial and target enrolments, at 22.4 per cent, was thus substantially higher than the respective 13.6 and 15.5 per cent rates in the first cycle, which may, in large part, be attributed to the impact of the already mentioned problematic change of time of the evening transmission and interruptions in transmissions due to the sports coverages in October-November, since most of the drop-outs occurred in November (6.1 per cent) and January-February (11.7 per cent), and the total drop-out rate for males, for whom the evening transmissions were intended, was 27.6 per cent as against only 18.1 per cent for females. The teacher - student ratio at each session of the CVCs, in the month of April, averaged 1:29.0. The average attendance rate for any given day was 73.4 per cent for males and 76.4 per cent for females.

The tests administered by ABES at the end of the course were taken by 92.2 per cent of the females and 80.0 per cent of the males or 87.1 per cent of males and females combined. Of those taking the tests, 96.1 per cent of the females and 98.0 per cent of the males passed. Although the pass rate for males was a little higher, a substantially larger percentage of women secured high marks (80 per cent and over) - 50.3 per cent as against 34.3 per cent for males. If these percentages are applied to the total terminal enrolment, we find that 5,323 males and 7,082 females should have passed, constituting 96.9 per cent of the total male and female terminal enrolment and 75.2 per cent of the target enrolment, although the percentages for passes in writing and in functional knowledge alone are lower, at 80.1 per cent of those taking the test for the former and 79.4 per cent for the latter. Also, if only the actual passes are taken into account, without extrapolating the percentage pass rate to the terminal enrolment, we get the following low estimates for pass rates: 84.3 per cent of the terminal enrolment and 65.4 per cent of the target enrolment. However, even these low estimates, although not as high as the 73 per cent of the target enrolment achieved in the first cycle for the Lahore Division, remain impressive and encouraging. While none of the males and only 3.2 per cent of the females failed (securing less than 50 per cent of the total marks) and literacy tests as a whole (because both men and women generally did well on the arithmetic and reading tests, none of the men failing and only 1.6 per cent of the women failing in each of these subjects, and as many as 98.1 per cent of the men and 94.2 per cent of the women securing over 65 per cent of the marks in arithmetic.) the writing test showed up weaknesses. As many as 23.0 per cent of the males failed in this, and only 15.4 per cent of them secured over 80 per cent of the marks, most of the 77.0 per cent who passed getting a B. Among women, although the fail-

ures in writing were again substantial, at 17.9 per cent, 46.9 per cent of them scored over 80 per cent, with the remaining 35.2 per cent about evenly distributed between B and C grades. Similarly, in the functional knowledge test, the overall failure rate was as high as 20.6 per cent, with women doing somewhat better than men, securing a pass rate of 83.2 per cent against 73.5 per cent for men. With the exception of the topics of Health and Nutrition and Saving and Budgeting, on which men scored somewhat higher marks, women did much better on the remaining three topics, and, as might be expected, particularly on the subject of Child Care. The over-all higher performance level of women may be attributed to the combined result of their having more time to follow up their lessons with practice, being more enthusiastic, regular and diligent, and perhaps also of having teachers who, while not as capable as the male teachers, generally took a greater interest in their students' work and problems.

AFL Students Outside CVCs

On the other hand, it is also to be noted, that at least 142,500 adults have learnt to read and write as a result of this course outside the CVCs, and a further minimum of 253,300 children have also benefitted from it. While the percentage of TV owners indicating that their TV set was used to follow the ETV-AFL course on a regular basis was not as large as the average of 47.7 per cent observed in the first cycle, it was still substantial and involved larger absolute numbers, as the number of TV sets has increased from 330,000 in 1975 to over 600,000 in 1978 (not counting an estimated additional 200,000 TV sets that are operating without licences).

Savings Affected through the Use of Television

The use of television produces a significant saving by increasing enrolment, reducing the teacher-student ratio without any negative effect on results, and raising the rates of successful completion of the course. Without television, the teacher-student ratio would have to be kept at a minimum of 1:15 to achieve satisfactory results; and this would imply, at the indicated rates for expenses on non-TV components of Centres (Rs. 100 per month for the teacher and Rs.312 per centre for other non-TV costs) a total cost of Rs912 for 15 enrolled students.

Conclusions

Thus, despite the contrast between successful results obtained at the CVCs managed by the ABES and the much less satisfactory results of the other sample surveys particularly in terms of enrolment (since pass rates have been high in all cases except in the results of the SWD and Rawalpindi samples), the viability of the telelessons for AFL has now been observed for a second time, both for properly organised CVCs and for motivated adult illiterates

access to a TV set, which together have enabled 164,000 to 197,000 men and women to acquire the skills of reading and writing, with some new functional knowledge. The other aspect of this promising picture is that the success of the last cycle of the AFL project, and its limitations, will be restricted insofar as the number of CVCs that have been properly organized and managed is significant. If success is to be achieved on a larger scale, concerted efforts will have to be made to improve arrangements at the local level; and for this, as has been pointed out in the preceding paragraphs, adequate finance is required to meet the needs for the requisite personnel and the operational requirements including the timely provision of reading materials and the payment of teacher honorariums.

In the absence of adequate finance it has proved possible to go ahead with the transmission a day, in the afternoon mainly for the contracted course of 87 telelessons from 12 January

on the pessimistic note that even a modest move towards a mass literacy campaign will not be possible within the limitations of the present Five-Year Plan, that its optimistic estimate of a literacy rate of 29.8 per cent for over five years appears to be illusory, and that unless there is a radical change in our thinking and planning, no significant progress will be achieved. Some thousands of individuals may benefit from the kind of efforts that the ETV-AFL project has made, but we shall, as in the past, also continue to be troubled by ourselves with food for laments at the failure to eradicate illiteracy and poverty. And if, God forbid, we should still be in the same state at present for another 30 years, we shall not just be starting from in 1948, but have an illiterate population of 10 years old numbering more than three times our population in 1948.



SA:10A

Other broadcasters who serve multicultural audiences, radio
ers at Samoa Broadcasting Department have discovered that
y poking a microphone into a village elder's face and getting
pinions on current problems is not the way to put together
development documentaries.

d by the United Nations Development Programme, Samoa Broad-
ng Department - operated by the government of Western Samoa
e South Pacific - has adapted its techniques to the cultural
s of the people who live in 300 villages dotted around the
tory's two main islands, Upolu and Savai'i.

villages have always supplied their own needs but now they are
ng crops for sale. Bananas, copra and cocoa are being export-
so something of a cash economy has developed, bringing an
table change in values. But the Samoans remain deeply att-
to their traditional culture and the way of life has contin-
argely unchanged.

activities are organised on a village basis, and within the
ge each family is responsible for certain areas of land.
ver possible, the family heads, who are the chiefs, meet in
il every week and make decisions on behalf of the village.
overnment has been promoting the idea of planning from below
r than from the administrative top down, so the villages
ss what their priorities are, then go to the government and
st aid under its development scheme.

radio programmes of Samoa Broadcasting try to stimulate an
est in the government's development programme. They try to
to the people about their aspirations and about how they go
implementing simple projects like putting up a fence to
in pigs, switching to a motor-powered fishing boat when only
s have been used up to now, or setting up a co-operative
a plantation.

programme producers and their teams enter the villages, they
meet with the chiefs for a formal ceremony marked by caref-
ention to procedure and language. The chiefs sit at one
f an open house; the broadcast visitors sit at the other end.

a stimulating drink made from the root of a pepper shrub, is
lly prepared and served. The chiefs and the village orators
e as to who is to speak. Depending on the time this takes
he length of the speeches and of the responses made by orators

the visitors have brought along, the ceremony lasts between half
an hour and an hour. Afterwards, the atmosphere becomes less
formal. This is a good moment to discuss with the chiefs how the
regard their development activities and any problems or particu-
ar successes they have had. Often the broadcasters record a
cross-section of public opinion during these discussions. Then
the chiefs, orators and young men sing songs that are recorded.

Next the women's committee, which supervises the hygiene of the
village and the care of women and children, meets and sings.
Again, both interviews and songs are recorded. Women's groups
might have guitars or ukeleles to accompany them, and the singing
can go on a long time. On many occasions the teams are still re-
cording at midnight.

One unique problem: the difference between ordinary Samoan, which
all the people understand, and the form of Samoan, with its spec-
ial vocabulary and forms of address, used by the chiefs and those
speaking to them. Radio producers might find it difficult to con-
verse easily in this dialect. And because Samoan Broadcasting
needs to get across to as many of its listeners as possible the
message of what is going on in the villages, ordinary Samoan is
used whenever possible.

After the traditional introduction to the village and its elders,
the teams break up to cover various projects. One producer may
go off with his recorder and discuss how fishing is being organ-
ised with the leader of the village fishermen. Another might
take a truck and go up into a banana or cocoa plantation to gather
interviews.

A visit to a village results in up to three half-hour documentary
programmes broadcast as part of the "Samoa and Tomorrow" series.
By going out from Apia, the main town of Western Samoa, to even
the most remote villages the station has brought many people to
the microphone who otherwise would never have been heard from.
People in Western Samoa are now talking to each other, using the
medium of radio.

By training producers in broadcasting for rural development, the
station has now created programmes to fill increased air time made
available on the main radio channel. To expand Samoa's broadcas-
ting service further, reception in outlying areas is going to be
improved and more technical personnel are to be trained.

*(The above article was extracted from "BM/E's World Broadcast
News" September 1980.)*

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THAILAND: SEMINAR

Senior broadcast managers from the Asian-Pacific region travelled recently to the northern Thailand city of Chiangmai for an 11-day seminar on development broadcasting for ethnic minorities, which was followed almost immediately by a field experiment in non-formal educational broadcasting.

The seminar, organized jointly by the Thai Public Relations Dept and the Asia-Pacific Institute of Broadcasting Development (AIBD) concluded that ethnic minorities must be involved in their own programme production if they are to take part in government mandated national aspirations.

Consensus among the 28 broadcast managers who attended the seminar from 16 to 27 June was that ethnic minority radio would accomplish at least two ends - it would recognize existence of long neglected minority groups and would involve them in the socio-economic mainstream of Asia and Pacifica. Further, if minority group members were recruited and trained to operate radio stations, they would be encouraged to take pride in their own culture and identity, seminar participants concluded.

But if minority group members are not available to produce educational, health and development programmes, ethnic minority radio must be staffed with individuals who have a sound knowledge of minority group cultures and an excellent command of their dialects.

Other conclusions reached during the seminar were:

- * Visits between ethnic groups and radio staff should be encouraged in order to foster good relations between the stations and their audiences;
- * Committees, consisting of representatives from ethnic groups and radio stations, should review programming;
- * Program formats should be simple and clear, and programme content should include news and service announcements directed to ethnic groups that are isolated in remote areas.

Seminar participants observed the application of these principles at the Chiangmai Hill Tribes Radio Station. The station, some of whose staff have been recruited from the minority groups in the area, broadcasts its programmes in six tribal languages (each day, about 15 people visit the station - an indication of the growing interest among the hill tribes toward radio).

Almost as soon as the seminar concluded towards the end of June a field experiment that involved 14 participants from Chiangmai Hill Tribes Radio and the Thai Education Ministry was launched

for two weeks. Participants were broken into three teams, each of which was comprised of broadcasters, educators and evaluators, and concentrated on developing a non-formal education (NFE) curriculum for the first week of the workshop.

The remote Karen village of Ban Juay Pa Tuen, about 44 km north-east of Chiangmai, was the target of the NFE experiment. During a one-day visit to Ban Huay Pa Tuen, each team identified the main problem areas of the village, which is made up of 16 families. These range from poor sanitation and malnutrition to a lack of irrigation facilities and village leadership.

Upon their return to Chiangmai, the teams produced broadcast items for 15 minute programmes in the Karen dialect, using traditional music and sounds for greater impact. The programmes also included interviews with irrigation and health experts.

Both the June seminar and the July workshop were sponsored by the Belgian Development Cooperation Authority. AIBD's radio consultant Bruce Broadhead directed the seminar, while AIBD's Uvais Ahamed directed the workshop.



(The above article was extracted from "BM/E's WORLD BROADCASTING NEWS" October 1980.)