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ABSTRACT
        This book, which is intended for practitioners and
researchers engaged in education, presents a comprehensive account and
analysis of the major initiatives and programs developed by the Asia and
Pacific Programme of Education for All (APPEAL), which was established by the
United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization to promote
literacy and basic education in the Asia Pacific region. The following topics
are discussed in the book's eight chapters: APPEAL's objectives and
development within the context of Asian-Pacific culture and economic and
educational trends in the region; APPEAL's consultation and implementation
mechanism (APPEAL's origin, mechanisms at the regional and national levels,
international cooperation and financial support); APPEAL and universal
primary education (early initiatives, APPEAL's priorities and efforts to
achieve universal primary education); APPEAL and eradication of illiteracy
(training materials, curriculum, systems approach); APPEAL and promotion of
continuing education for development (types of continuing education; program
development, monitoring, and evaluation; training curriculum for continuing
education personnel; development of learning centers); APPEAL and women in
development (expansion of skills-based literacy programs for women and
girls); development and implementation of APPEAL's response to illiteracy;
and APPEAL's future. Contains 58 tables/figures and 161 chapter references
and endnotes. (MN)

ASIA-PACIFIC
PROGRAMME
OF EDUCATION
FOR ALL

APPEAL

Challenges of
EDUCATION FOR ALL
in Asia and the Pacific
and the APPEAL Response

UNESCO

UNESCO PRINCIPAL REGIONAL OFFICE FOR ASIA AND THE PACIFIC
Bangkok, 1997

ASIA-PACIFIC
PROGRAMME
OF EDUCATION
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Challenges of
EDUCATION FOR ALL
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and the APPEAL Response

Compiled by

T.M. Sakya
and
Professor G. Rex Meyer

UNESCO

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C O N T E N T S

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C O N T E N T S (cont'd)

III

PREFACE

The Asia and Pacific Programme of Education for All (APPEAL) is a regional co-operative programme established by UNESCO in 1987 in response to a resolution adopted by the General Conference of UNESCO held in Sofia, Bulgaria in 1985. Since its launching APPEAL has promoted a wide range of collaborative programmes for the promotion of literacy and basic education in the countries of the Asia and Pacific region.

This book is an attempt to bring to the readers-practitioners and researchers engaged in EFA a comprehensive account and analysis of the major initiatives, and programmes spearheaded by APPEAL for the promotion of literacy and basic education in the region. It describes various programmes under APPEAL, their achievements and limitations. Most importantly, it explains the basic mission and approach of APPEAL for meeting the challenge of reducing illiteracy and improving access to basic education for all in the Asia and Pacific region. We hope this will serve as a valuable compendium of references and a source book to all engaged in the promotion of literacy and basic education.

I wish to extend my gratitude and appreciation to Mr. T.M. Sakya, the former Co-ordinator of APPEAL and Prof. G. Rex Meyer for preparing this useful document.

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Co-ordinator
Asia and Pacific Programme of Education for All
(APPEAL)

FOREWORD

While illiteracy continues to remain a problem in some Member States, APPEAL, under its Training Programme for Literacy Personnel (ATLP), has provided a highly efficient approach to reducing the magnitude of this problem through systematic training of personnel. This document gives an overview of the ATLP programme and discusses its positive impact in a diverse range of situations in the region.

The document also describes and discusses APPEAL activities in the areas of continuing education, in particular its series of eight volumes for training in continuing education published under the title, *APPEAL Training Materials for Continuing Education Personnel (ATLP-CE)*. This innovative series deals with six types of continuing education in a systematic and practical way — post-literacy programmes, equivalency programmes, continuing education for income generation, programmes for enhancing quality of life, individual interest programmes and programmes to help in forward thinking and future oriented planning.

A key chapter deals with how APPEAL has responded to the special educational needs of women and girls through the UNESCO-UNDP Project "Expansion of Skills-Based Literacy Programmes for Women and Girls". The production of a training manual entitled *Education to Empower* is described. The development of exemplary training materials, proceedings of regional and sub-regional workshops and the resulting in-country activities, based on the manual, are also reviewed and evaluated.

The success of APPEAL can be measured by the responses of Member States, most of which have adopted those recommendations, programmes, exemplars, procedures and activities that have met their particular needs. This response has been widespread and even in the few years of implementing more recent programmes such as ATLP-CE there has been considerable impact on the rate and quality of educational development. Almost all APPEAL publications, especially the ATLP and ATLP-CE books, have been translated into national languages and adapted for local use in many Member States. Training programmes have been modified and implemented and more systematic approaches adopted in many countries to improve educational access, to promote education for women and girls, to eradicate illiteracy and improve adult literacy competencies, and to foster the development of life-long continuing education.

The document describes and discusses those development models and procedures which have led to this success. A holistic approach, systematic analysis and design of programmes and carefully formulated multi-level strategies have been at the heart of APPEAL procedures and these aspects are carefully reviewed.

Another reason that APPEAL has been so well received by Member States has been the timing of its various activities. One feature of the APPEAL strategy has been to establish informed forward-thinking Co-ordination Committees and an Executive Faculty who have formulated policy and designed and monitored the implementation of programmes and activities. This strategy has ensured that the APPEAL programmes have been timed to meet the changing educational needs of the region.

For example, the first APPEAL programmes helped to consolidate earlier achievements in primary education and facilitate the achievement of universal primary education (UPE).

Later the APPEAL adult literacy programme (ATLP) was introduced just at the time when many Member States were ready to make major efforts in this area to ensure eradication of illiteracy by the early years of the next century. With primary schooling well developed, with improvements in education for women and girls and adult literacy programmes well under way, by 1985 most Member States were ready to introduce or strengthen programmes of continuing education. APPEAL policy planners and faculty members, speaking for practitioners in the region, thinking carefully and thoughtfully about the future visioning, planned for the implementation of each APPEAL programme at each critical moment of need. Member States recognized this and so immediately responded by using and adapting the programmes and activities for their own particular development programmes.

APPEAL, therefore, is in many respects an exemplar of good development practice. This document has been written because its authors believe that the achievements of APPEAL should be known and widely understood by governments, agencies and individuals involved in educational development, not only in Asia and the Pacific, but world-wide.

In the first place, the document should be useful for informing senior government officials of the scope and activities of the various APPEAL programmes and to help them formulate a policy. At the level of practice, the book should be of particular interest to all personnel directly involved in the implementation of various APPEAL programmes and activities. Specifically, it should be a valuable resource for the National Coordination Committee for APPEAL in each Member State. For those immediately responsible for planning, implementing and managing programmes, and for those concerned with training and the mobilization of resources for EFA, the document should provide a valuable insight into exemplary programmes and practices. It not only describes general models and frameworks but also discusses examples of effective implementation across a diverse range of situations in different cultural contexts.

Others who may find this document of interest are personnel working for various development agencies at international, regional, sub-regional and national levels whether governmental, quasi-governmental, non-governmental or in the private sector. In particular, such personnel should find the overall APPEAL model and its systematic processes for promoting effective, carefully planned and appropriately timed change to be worthy of adoption.

We also hope that the document will be of interest and value to practitioners including researchers working at all levels of education in the areas of primary education, enhancement of educational access, women in development, basic and adult literacy and continuing lifelong education. APPEAL has encompassed a wealth of exemplary activities in these areas and has explored innovative and effective models and procedures which have had a wide impact on educational development in the region and which can be adapted for local use in a variety of contexts.

T.M. Sakya

G. Rex Meyer
April 1995

Chapter One

THE UNESCO APPEAL PROGRAMME

A. Asian-Pacific culture

Asia and the Pacific is a vast and diverse region comprising forty-two Member States of UNESCO. These spread from the Cook Islands in the east to Turkey in the west and from the Russian Federation in the north to New Zealand in the south. The Arab states of Asia are not included; neither are the countries of the eastern Pacific rim because these form separate regions under UNESCO. A few smaller nations, such as Brunei, Singapore and some of the Pacific island countries, are not included either because technically they are not members or at least not full members of UNESCO. Colonial territories such as Hong Kong and French Polynesia are also not formally part of the UNESCO region. The region contains 63 per cent of the world's population – some 3,352 million people in 1990.

From the sixth century BC to modern times, the region has enjoyed a continuous and rich history of cultural interactions. It is the cradle of great religious movements and philosophical systems of thought which have had a pervasive influence. The springtime of Asian thought was in the fifth and sixth centuries BC when Buddhism, Confucianism, Taoism and Hinduism arose and spread their views of the world. The next great turning point was the advent of Islam on the Asian continent and in the islands of the Pacific. Christianity, which came much later, added to the richness and diversity of philosophies and moral codes.

Diversity in languages, scripts, literature, music, architecture and ways of life is an obvious feature of this vast region. Yet, at the same time, over the centuries interactions such as trade, cultural diffusion and the mass movement of peoples have all been evident.

Asia and the Pacific includes some of the world's largest and most populous countries – China, with more than one billion people, India, with 800 million. But it also includes some of the smallest countries, such as the Maldives and Tuvalu which have only 234,000 and 13,000 people respectively.

Similarly, industrialized countries such as Japan, Australia, New Zealand and the Russian Federation share the region with some of the least developed countries such as Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan and Nepal. Gross National Product per capita varies from US$25,430 in Japan and US$17,080 in Australia to as little as US$200 in Bangladesh and US$170 in Nepal. In between those extremes lie the newly industrialized or industrializing countries with especially high rates of economic growth such as the Republic of Korea, Malaysia and Thailand, with Indonesia and Viet Nam pressing closely behind. These countries (and south China) are attracting the attention of the world because of their considerable economic performance in recent years, particularly at a time when other parts of the world were in economic recession. The average annual growth rate (GNP per capita) 1980-1990 in the Republic of Korea was almost 9 per cent, in China almost 8 per cent and in Thailand 5.6 per cent at a time when most other countries were struggling to maintain 2 to 3 per cent economic growth, and indeed some – the victims of war or internal domestic upheaval such as Afghanistan – were battling against shrinking economies. The mass media enthusiastically refer to East Asia as the

fastest growing economy in the world, but as we have seen, there are also black scenarios in the region with over 830 million people, mainly in South Asia, living in conditions of absolute poverty.[1]

B. The sweep of development in Asia and the Pacific

Since the 1950s the countries of Asia and the Pacific have undergone dramatic changes. At first, as many emerged from colonial dependency, there was a surge of nationalism as countries sought identity and a place in the international community. This focus on nation building inevitably led to the strengthening of central government, the development of infrastructure and a focus on developing material resources. Government intervention occurred at all levels and in almost all sectors. Because of the need to foster "strong national identity" political systems of many countries took the form of centrally managed guided democracies.

The very success of these initial trends, however, gradually brought about a dramatic change. As people became better educated under expanded post-colonial educational systems, they became more questioning of government policy and of centralized programmes. They became aware of their rights and demanded greater levels of participation in the affairs of the nation – at all levels.

The trend towards genuine democratization was further accelerated by the gradual realization that centrally planned economics and guided democratic political models alone could not meet all the development needs of a country. In the two decades immediately following the Second World War, economic policies, particularly in what was then the USSR, China, the Indo-Chinese countries, Burma (now Myanmar), and to an extent Indonesia and others, led to the emergence of big state enterprises. In more recent years, however, the limitations of this approach have become apparent and it is becoming increasingly clear that governments alone cannot do everything. Many of the large state enterprises became too costly for governments to continue to finance, many became inefficient and indeed obsolete, and the economies of some countries started to lag behind planned targets. Countries with strong centrally controlled economies began to see that others with more open free market approaches such as the United States, Western Europe, Australia and New Zealand were forging ahead. Countries which recognized this early such as China, Japan, Republic of Korea, Singapore, Taiwan and the ASEAN countries (including Malaysia, Thailand, Indonesia) took a lead. Others, such as Korea, Singapore and Taiwan quickly emerged as newly industrialized countries (NICs) closely followed by China and the ASEAN group.

As democratization accelerated, people also demanded a concern for sustainable development. They became aware of and concerned with environmental issues, pollution and quality of life. Governments also began to recognize that development of material resources and of physical infrastructure was not enough. They began to appreciate that their most valuable resource was in fact the skills and talents of the people. Human development became central to government thinking and this demanded a reassessment of the role of education and of educational policies.

The contrast between the old and new approaches to socio-economic development are summarized in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1 Changing views of socio-economic development

Old model – purely economic rationale	New model - a humanistic emphasis
1. Emphasis on physical infrastructure and material resources.	1. Emphasis on human resources.
2. Naked capitalism or centrally managed economics.	2. A caring and sharing society with a greater reliance on free market forces.
3. Consumption based.	3. Value based.
4. Exploitation of nature.	4. Sustainable development.
5. Centralized approach.	5. Decentralized approach.
6. Large commercial or state enterprises. Impersonal management.	6. Market-oriented enterprise with greater involvement of people in management.
7. Top down – power and policy in the hands of a few.	7. Participatory democracy.
8. Emphasis on formal institutionalized education.	8. More open approaches to learning.

The dominant emerging trend, therefore, has been development "of" the people, "by" the people, "for" the people. Development *of* the people means investing more in human capabilities, whether in education, health or promotion of technical skills. Development *for* the people means ensuring that economic benefits generated are distributed widely and fairly so as to improve the quality of life of everybody. Development *by* the people has the objective of allowing everyone to participate actively in the process of development. This in turn demands equal opportunities for productive and remunerative employment and a just and equitable market system.

This swing towards humanistic approaches to development is inexorable. Countries which accelerate the trend will inevitably forge ahead and those which do not will lag behind. A humanistic approach with its focus on human development places education on centre stage and demands that it be seen holistically and not as a separate bureaucracy. Education needs to become fully integrated into the fabric of society as a whole.

C. *Education and development*

The following discussion is extracted from UNESCO *ATLP-CE Volume 1 Continuing Education: New Policies and Priorities.*[2] There is a growing realization that hard-edged economic planning alone is not enough and that human resource development is a key enabling factor in development. Human resource development is viewed by UNDP as "the process of enlarging people's choices". People should lead long and healthy lives, be well educated and have access to resources needed for a decent standard of living. UNDP has now created an Index of Human Development (the HDI) to go together with the traditional index of Gross National Product (GNP). Countries can now be

classified as having low, medium or high HDI. The indicators for HDI include life expectancy, adult literacy level and purchasing power. This new index focuses on how human well-being translates into economic growth and vice versa.

However, some countries have not yet fully appreciated the fact that human resource development and lifelong learning have the same goals. What is urgently needed now is a broader view of education, not one that has formal schooling as the only component of life planning. Since it provides the opportunity to engage in lifelong learning, continuing education must now emerge as the main component of this broader view of education (Figure 1.1).

NARROW VIEW
OF EDUCATION

BROAD
VIEW OF EDUCATION

SCHOOL

AGENCIES OF SOCIETY

NON-FORMAL
ALTERNATIVES

Individual

SCHOOL   Individual

SELF LEARNING

Individual

SCHOOLING ALONE
A SMALL PART
OF LIFE

CHANGES
TO

SCHOOLING AS ONLY
ONE OPTION AMONG MANY –
LIFELONG LEARNING
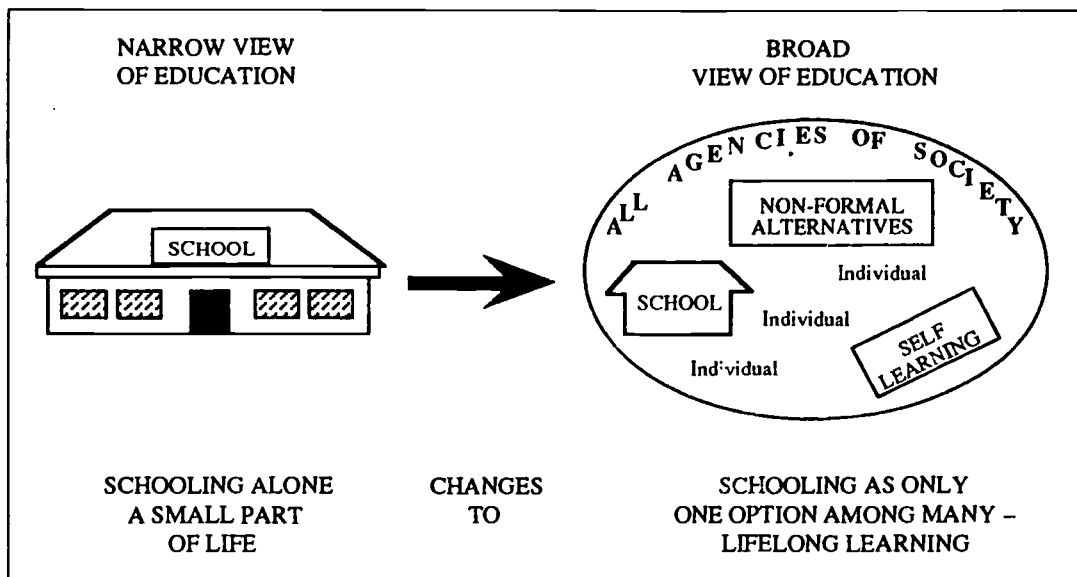
Figure 1.1. A changing view of education

Continuing education programmes provide an opportunity for all citizens to truly integrate learning, working and living. These three aspects of personal development must grow together so that the overall quality of life improves and society as a whole becomes truly an "educated" society in the best sense of the term.

Because of the vast number of variables involved and because of the complexity of their interactions, it is not possible to *prove* that increased education causes increased socio-economic development. Logically, however, it is reasonable to infer that increases in knowledge and skills are needed for the introduction and expansion of modern technology and that education must grow and change if a technologically based socio-economic system is to grow and change. Education seen in this way is an enabling agent for development.

Socio-economic growth is of course the main thrust of most development plans in developing countries and most policies have been directed at strengthening formal education to ensure that there are adequate knowledge and skills to enable development to occur. Unfortunately, however, in some developing countries, this policy has largely failed and social and economic inequalities, low productivity and high levels of illiteracy and semi-literacy remain. Many graduates from formal

schooling are unemployed and unemployable and because the formal education system is largely urban in its orientation, there has been a massive population shift from rural areas to cities. Schooling in some countries has in fact so alienated some people from the mainstream of society that social systems have tended to break down.

The crisis in education in many developing countries has come about largely because the formal system caters only to a handful of successful students and the rest become alienated and unproductive. Continuing education – the opportunity to engage in lifelong learning – therefore emerges as a way of compensating for the inadequacies of the formal system by giving people a second chance, and also of ensuring a continual growth and upgrading of human resources throughout the lives of all citizens. Human resource development (HRD) becomes the focus of attention. Appropriately educated people develop positive attitudes and skills, which can improve the quality of their work and can increase their incomes. People can save and invest and a general upgrading of the socio-economic situation of society occurs based on the emergence of secure, happy and prosperous individuals and families. With such improved human resources and, in particular, because of both a stronger domestic economy and an improved quality of the human mind, developing countries would be better able to manage scarce national resources and so ensure effective, appropriate and sustainable development. These ideas are illustrated in Figure 1.2.

If there is a well-organized and co-ordinated infrastructure for continuing education, and if continuing education policies are based on national concerns and needs, then all aspects of human planning development can be systematically advanced. There is another important aspect. As more people become involved in lifelong learning and improve their educational standards and ways of life, more will be involved in decision making at all levels. Development plans will come to reflect what people want and need based on their reasoned understanding of potentials and limitations. In this way, a truly sustainable development is likely to emerge. In other words, development will reflect the concerns of the people and is more likely to leave future generations with a better endowment of resources than at present.

D. Educational trends in Asia and the Pacific

A holistic and totally integrated approach to education of the type discussed above is only now beginning to emerge in the region. Development is very uneven. Some countries are well advanced while others are lagging behind. Growth of education has been sporadic and at times disappointing as various policies have been tried and shown to be ineffective.[3]

In the first place, adult illiteracy levels in the region remain unacceptably high. According to UNESCO's 1990 statistics there are three groups of countries in the region in terms of levels of illiteracy – Group A with adult illiteracy rates between 1 and 20 per cent, Group B with rates between 21 and 50 per cent and Group C with a rate of more than 50 per cent (Table 1.2).[4]

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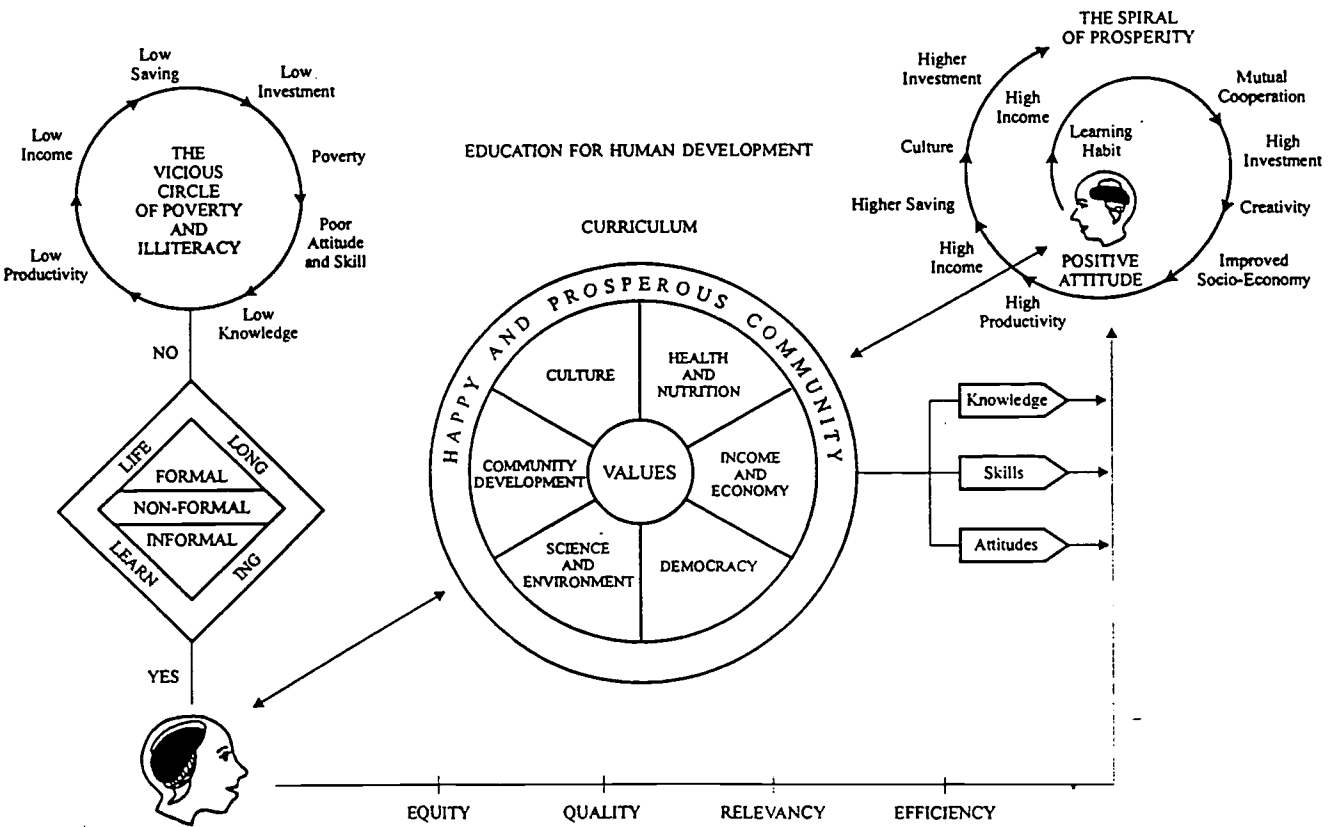
Figure 1.2 Education for human development

Table 1.2. Classification of Asian-Pacific countries by rates of adult illiteracy

Group	Countries and their illiteracy percentage
Group A (1-20 per cent illiterate)	Australia (1), Fiji (13), Indonesia (18.4), Japan (1), Korea DPR (4), Korea, Rep. of (3.7), Mongolia (7), Myanmar (19.4), New Zealand (1), Philippines (10.3), Thailand (7), Sri Lanka (11.6), Turkey (19.3), ex USSR (1), Viet Nam (12.4). This group also includes most states of the Pacific which have low levels of illiteracy.
Group B (21-50 per cent illiterate)	Malaysia (21.6), China (22.2), Iran (46), Lao PDR (46), Papua New Guinea (48).
Group C (50 per cent or more illiterate)	Afghanistan (70.6), Bangladesh (64.7), Bhutan (61.6), India (51.8), Cambodia (64.8), Pakistan (65.2), Nepal (74.4).

NUMBER OF ADULT ILLITERATES
PERCENTAGE CHANGES 1970-1990
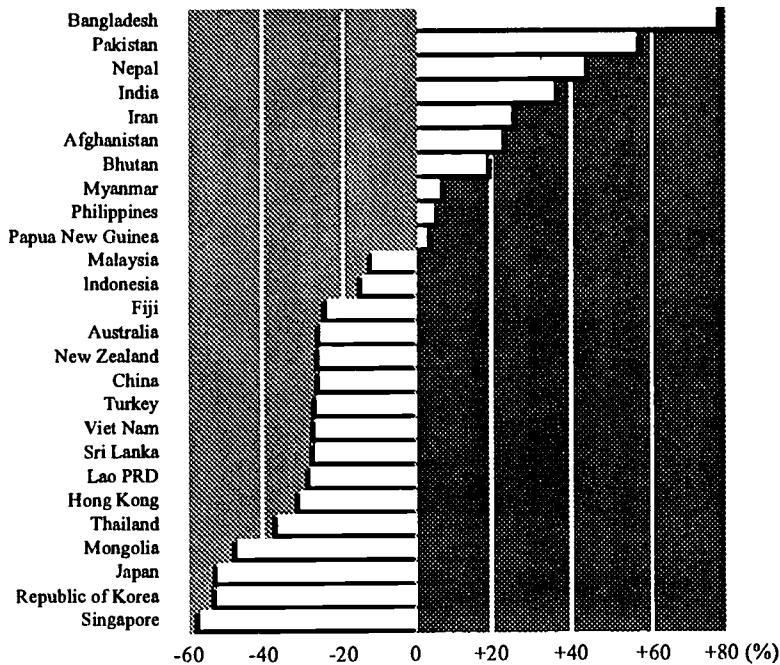
Figure 1.3. Gains in literacy in some countries have been offset by increases in illiteracy in others (UNESCO/PROAP 1990 statistical chart)

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The situation is very grave for countries in Group C and for some in Group B because while the overall literacy rate in the region improved from 55.4 per cent in 1980 to 65.2 per cent in 1990, the tragic fact is that the number of illiterates also increased from 685 million to 695 million due to the increase in population and the failure of the formal/non-formal education system to provide education to all in the compulsory education age-group, particularly in the Group C countries (Figure 1.3).[5]

The figure below (Figure 1.4) shows that if present policies continue, the trend is likely to remain until the turn of the century. While the number of literate adults will substantially increase, the population of illiterates is likely to remain at between 500 and 600 million.

ADULT LITERACY 1960-2000
Asia and the Pacific

(Millions)

3000	
2500	
2000	
1500	
1000	
500	
0	

1960   1970   1980   1990   2000 Year

█ Illiterates   ▒ Literates
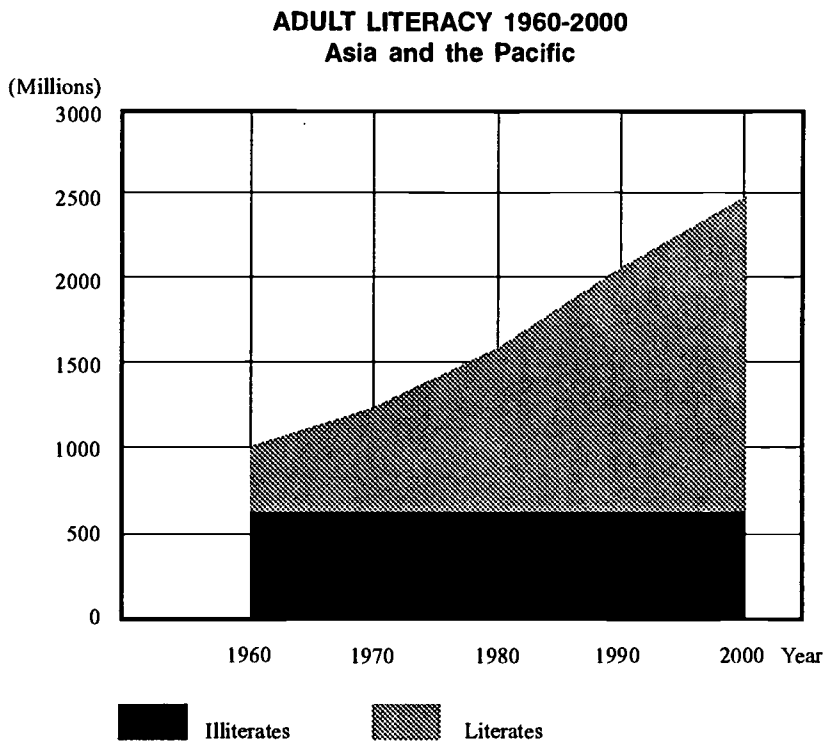
Figure 1.4.   Growth in population will make it difficult to reduce the number of illiterates in Asia and the Pacific by the year 2000.

(UNESCO PROAP 1990 statistical chart)

The majority of illiterates are females. Between 1980 and 1990 the number of female illiterates grew from 432 million to 446 million, whereas the male illiterates decreased from 254 million to 249 million within the same period. Female illiteracy remains, therefore, a major challenge in many countries (Figure 1.5).

Estimated adult literacy by sex 1990
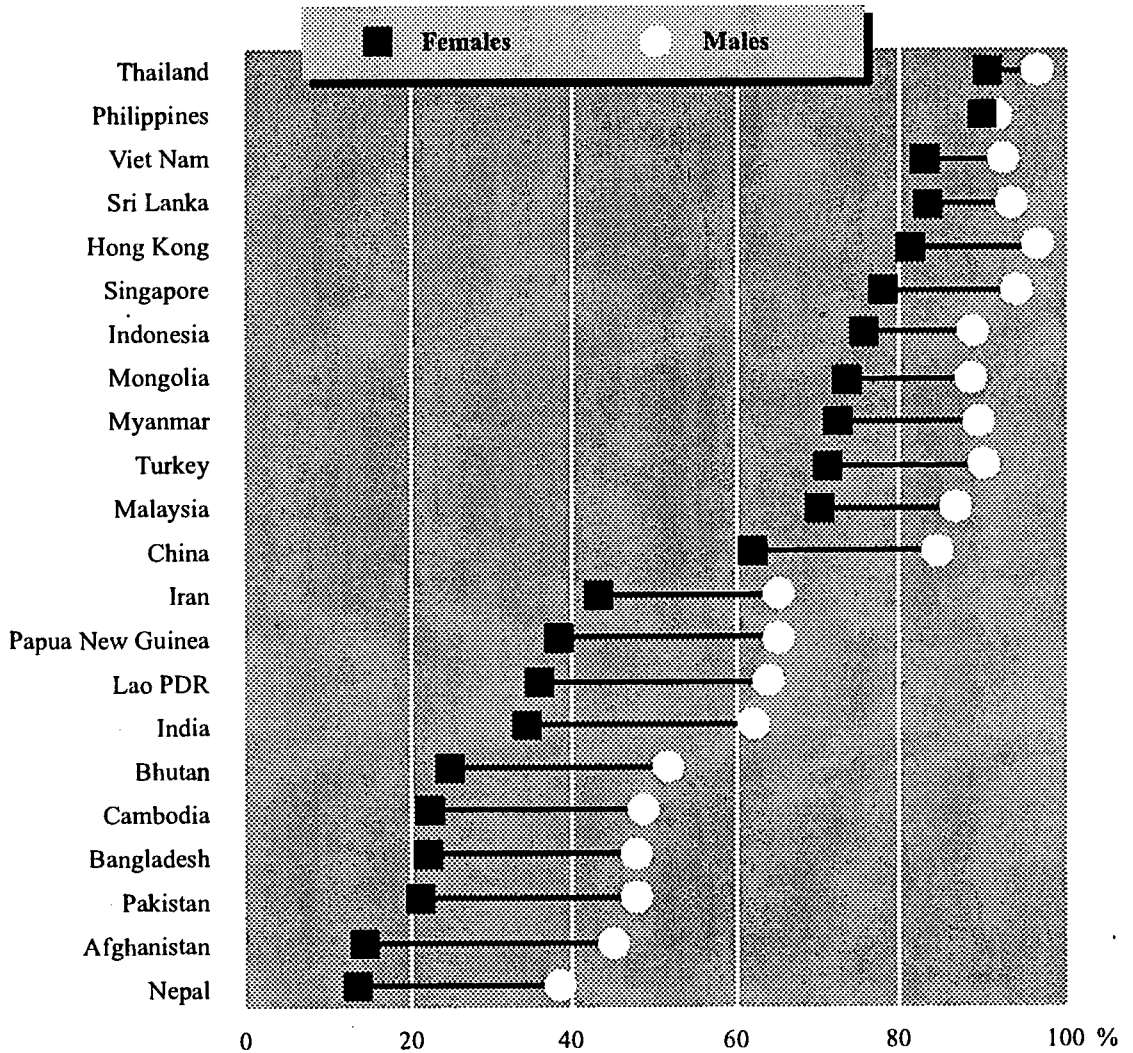
Figure 1.5. The gap between male and female adult literacy rates remains a major challenge for some countries of Asia and the Pacific.

(Source: MINEDAP VI – Statistical Review)[6]

     The persistence of high levels of illiteracy in some countries, especially in the subcontinent, indicates a partial failure of earlier policies. During the first decades after World War II it was believed that a universal system of primary education was all that was needed to eradicate illiteracy. Many governments put almost all their efforts in the education sector to achieve this end. Twenty years later it became apparent that this was not working. There were several reasons. First, the provision of primary

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school places for all was beyond the financial means of some governments especially in the face of burgeoning populations, and so many millions of school-age children remained out of school. Second, because of poverty and other factors, the drop-out rate remained unacceptably high. For instance, in Bangladesh, even by 1980, only 20 per cent reached the final grade of primary school, most dropping out before grade 5. Research indicates that pupils dropping out before grade 5 almost always regress to illiteracy, and so the tremendous cost incurred in providing schooling for them is wasted. Third, because maximum effort had been directed to universalizing primary education, secondary education had been neglected and so there was no opportunity for most primary school graduates to continue to learn. In the absence of this opportunity, many reverted to semi-literacy or total illiteracy. Fourth, the rapid expansion in the number of primary schools during the first decades after the Second World War was not systematic and sometimes was achieved at the cost of quality. Teachers were not always adequately trained and resources were limited, inevitably leading to low standards of achievement. In some cases, remote areas were poorly served with schools, and school mapping was inaccurate and unsatisfactory.

PRIMARY EDUCATION IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC
1960-2000
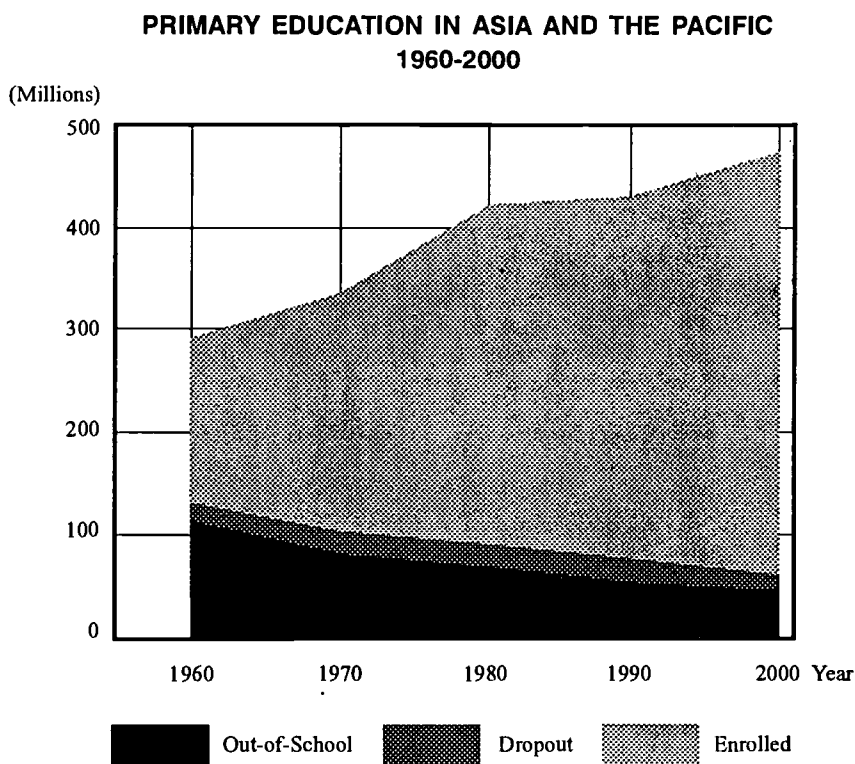
Figure 1.6. While access to primary school is increasing overall
there remain millions of school-age children who are
out of school or who drop out before reaching the final grade.

(UNESCO/PROAP statistical chart 1990)

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The persistent problem of the lack of universal access to primary schooling is illustrated in Figure 1.6. The diagram shows that the number of out-of-school children and the number who drop out will remain unacceptably high up to the year 2000 and beyond if the policies of the 1970s and 1980s continue unchanged.

In terms of quality of primary schooling just one indicator, namely the pupil-teacher ratio, gives some indication that quality issues remain a problem in some countries (Figure 1.7).

PRIMARY EDUCATION 1988
Pupil-Teacher Ratio
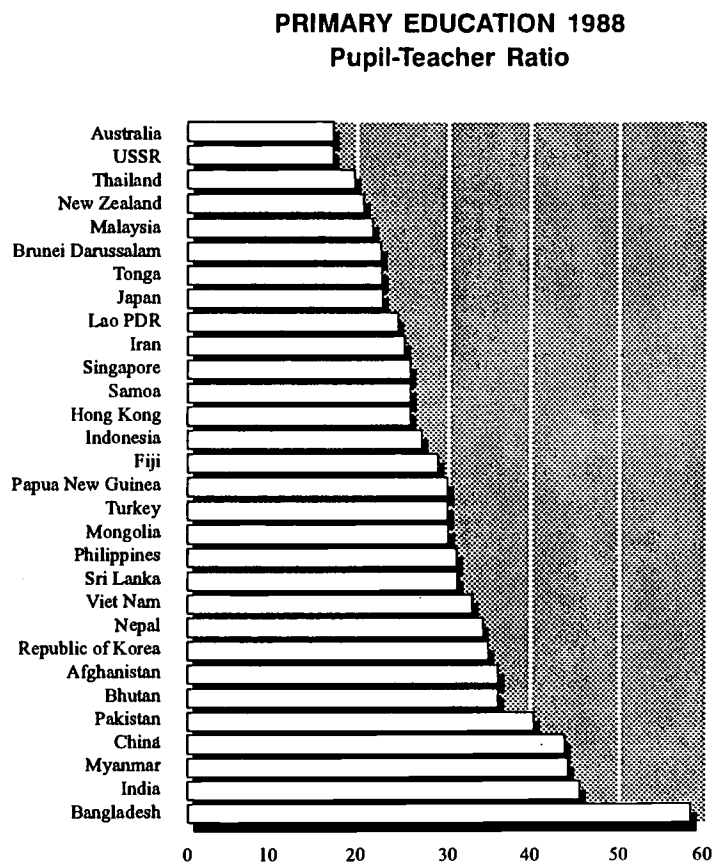
Figure 1.7. Several countries have pupil teacher ratios in primary schools at unacceptably high levels, thus lowering standards.

(UNESCO PROAP Statistical Chart 1990)

By 1960 the failure of earlier policies was manifest to all and a regional plan, called the Karachi Plan, was launched by UNESCO with the aim of providing seven years of primary education for all children between 6 to 12 years of age by 1980. Details of this plan are discussed in Chapter Three. The Karachi Plan helped many countries expand primary education in an organized and systematic manner. The target of providing universal primary education by 1980, however, was not achieved in the region. It was clear that something more was needed to combat illiteracy than just concentrating on primary schooling alone. By the 1960s (and in some countries even earlier) campaigns were initiated to directly attack the problem by targeting illiterate adults.

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The World Conference of Ministers of Education on the Eradication of Illiteracy held in Teheran in 1965 noted that "the attainment of literacy by the hundreds of millions of adults who are still illiterate is of fundamental importance for full economic and social development."[7] Programmes emerged which had limited success: for example, the Experimental World Literacy Programme initiated in 1966 by UNESCO and UNDP in Afghanistan, Iran and India made some contributions.[8] At the same time, many countries such as China, Indonesia, Myanmar, Viet Nam and Laos launched mass national literacy campaigns. At certain points education experts debated the relative benefits of launching such massive literacy campaigns as against initiating smaller scale functional literacy programmes at certain selected locations. From experience, it has been found that mass campaigns can be effective in mobilizing political and social forces in a country to tackle the problem of adult illiteracy. On the other hand, selective and localized functional literacy programmes have been more effective in orienting literacy programmes towards improving quality of life. They also foster the development of a need-based curriculum and the production of well-targeted learning materials for adults. The problem with the "selected" approach, however, is inadequate coverage.

Countries such as Malaysia, the Philippines and Thailand initially chose the selective functional literacy programme approach. Many countries, however, have modified and adopted both approaches so that one system complements the other. In Indonesia, after the conclusion of the mass campaign, the country implemented a basic education programme, and later the large scale and more functional Kejar-packet A was initiated. Nepal began literacy efforts with an experimental functional literacy programme designed to develop institutional networks and technical capabilities. These are now being used to implement a national literacy campaign. In Thailand the first literacy campaign was launched as early as 1940 to prepare the population for the democratic process. This was followed by various functional literacy projects in some selected areas. Then Thailand launched a second mass literacy campaign in 1983 and this was successfully maintained for three years.[9]

Clearly these approaches were more successful in some countries than others and the level of success depended mainly on four key functions: (i) strong political will and commitment by government; (ii) slow-down in the rate of population growth; (iii) reduction in the number of people living below the poverty line; and (iv) an effective combination of mass literacy campaigns and specifically targeted functional literacy programmes. Countries succeeding in dramatically lowering illiteracy levels by these combined methods include the following:[10]

Country	Present level of adult illiteracy (%)	Percentage drop in illiteracy rate 1980-1990
China	22.2	21.1
Indonesia	18.4	30.8
Korea, Rep. of	3.7	34.6
Malaysia	21.6	7.9
Philippines	10.3	5.8
Thailand	7.0	25.0
Turkey	19.3	27.7
Viet Nam	12.4	19.6

Nevertheless, illiteracy remains a significant problem. Even the two-pronged attack of attempting to increase access to primary school for school-age children plus mass adult literacy initiatives has not been enough to solve the problem, especially in poorer countries experiencing rapid growth in population.

Another important trend therefore emerged in the 1970s as a third way of addressing the problem of illiteracy and poor attendance at primary school. This was the emphasis on systems of non-formal education (NFE).

NFE has its precursors in the mass adult literacy and selective adult literacy campaigns and programmes. These began in a big way in China in 1952 and in Viet Nam in 1953-54 where they were implemented on a massive scale. In China, the selected programmes continued and gradually changed into more systematic programmes in rural areas under what came to be known as "spare time education". In 1970, India launched a programme co-sponsored by UNESCO and the UN Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), the Farmers' Literacy Programme. This was a more systematic extension of its selectively targeted literacy programmes. Iran in 1974 introduced a systematic programme of work-related adult literacy activities. These initiatives were indications that something more sustained, co-ordinated and systematic was emerging to try to overcome stubborn, persistent and pervasive barriers to the eradication of illiteracy.

This trend culminated in the 1970s with the formation of Divisions of Non-Formal Education by the ASEAN countries (Brunei, Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore and Thailand), with the support and endorsement of SEAMEO (Southeast Asia Ministries of Education Organization). In Indonesia, Malaysia and Thailand NFE systems were established initially to cater to adults who had not attended primary school or who had dropped out before completing primary education. The approach was to provide for adults a programme equivalent to primary schooling but especially designed for adult learners. These equivalency programmes then gradually expanded to cover secondary education including vocational secondary education. By the 1980s Quality of Life and post-literacy programmes were added. The NFE systems also began to work with extension programmes of line ministries such as health and agriculture, family planning and rural development. Other countries such as Viet Nam, India, Iran, and more recently Bangladesh, established similar systems and the NFE movement became widespread in the region.

While the NFE movement has achieved a great deal in compensating for the failure to provide universal primary education, it had some limitations in regard to the eradication of adult illiteracy and expansion of opportunity to proceed to secondary education. Some countries did not have the resources to expand the system to provide education for all. Also most NFE programmes have the relatively narrow aim of compensating for shortcomings of the formal school system and do not have a role beyond that. NFE programmes and activities therefore have paralleled and in a sense duplicated the work of the formal system and have not had a long-term developmental focus correlating with the socio-economic growth of a country as a whole. Something more was needed. This was continuing education, which entails the provision of opportunity for life-long learning. To trace the emergence of this more global approach to education, we must backtrack to 1972.

The year 1972 is important for the following reason. It was the year when the concept of a "Learning Society" was first advanced by UNESCO in its report *Learning to Be.*[11] As most countries of Asia and the Pacific moved towards achieving universal basic literacy they were challenged to take the next big step in development, namely to evolve as learning societies. *Learning to Be*[12] defined a

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learning society as one in which all agencies of a society are educational providers, not just those whose *primary* responsibility is education (e.g., schools). For example, while the primary responsibility of a factory is not education but the manufacture of goods, it can and should have an educational role as well. It can provide training for its employees and also can educate the general public about its processes and products, its environmental policies and its societal contributions. Another aspect of a learning society is the opportunities it provides for all citizens to be engaged in learning.

At initial stages, very little impact was made on education in most developing countries of Asia and the Pacific as most of them considered it to be an unattainable ideal, at least in the foreseeable future. They concentrated instead on the development of formal education, especially on the achievement of universal primary education. That attitude has now changed. Many countries with low levels of basic literacy in the 1970s have now attained more than 80 per cent adult literacy and many have almost achieved universal primary education. Some countries which twenty years ago were economically disadvantaged have become Newly Industrialized Countries (NICs). The idea of a learning society no longer seems to be an unrealistic ideal, but a real possibility and a goal for planned development.

In a genuine learning society all citizens engage in education from birth to death. Education is lifelong, purposive, self-planned and self-initiated. Learning becomes central to the lives of all adults. Each individual sets a series of learning objectives and pursues these by any means available through the many agencies provided by the learning society.

As citizens become more aware of the power and significance of education as a means to improve their lives, they tend to plan to achieve longer-term learning goals and to "add in" shorter term learning experiences to meet immediate needs. Lifelong planning involving continuous education and training is undertaken by all. In this situation, however, people must see education as something much broader and more significant than "schooling" alone. As needs arise, adults can draw on programmes offered by formal education, non-formal education and informal opportunities to learn. Some of this learning may be highly structured through attendance at a formal course of study, some may be relatively unstructured, through working in casual learning groups or by independent study. Some may occur through programmes offered by Departments of Non-Formal Education which aim to provide formal qualifications by alternative non-formal means; other forms of learning may be provided by employers through in-house or on-the-job training and retraining. Learning needs change as adults take on new roles, and as they get older education tends to be less structured and to draw more and more on informal opportunities for learning.

The most recent and the most promising educational trend in Asia and the Pacific has been to broaden the view of education so that it encompasses the concept of lifelong learning. Beginning in the late 1980s many NFE centres have broadened their functions and have been converted to continuing education centres promoting the concept of and providing opportunity for lifelong learning outside the formal education system.

Formal education systems, primary and secondary schools, colleges and universities, have themselves been challenged to be more flexible and to open their programmes for all ages and for all categories of people. They too, therefore, now begin to play their role as true agencies of lifelong learning. Many countries are now recognizing that this is the only way to maximize the potential of their human resources. Education becomes the enabling factor for socio-economic development as

discussed in Section C of this chapter. Development itself takes on a more human face and the promotion of human well-being becomes its primary aim.

E. Education and the world of work

Another educational movement in Asia and the Pacific which has gathered momentum and become more systematic in recent years is the response to changing demands of the work force. This is especially important for societies in transition from agricultural to industrialized economies. It is also important in fully industrialized countries where recent restructuring of the economy around higher levels of technology and the information superhighway have demanded that employees have higher standards of education and access to recurrent education to enable them to keep up to date.

In some countries, especially in industrialized and newly industrialized societies, formal schools have responded to this problem by upgrading curricula and making programmes more vocationally oriented. Some school systems now include "work experience" as a unit of the curriculum. Links with industry and with technical colleges have emerged in countries such as Australia, Japan, New Zealand and the Republic of Korea. In some of the poorer countries, however, especially those in Group C with high rates of adult illiteracy, priority has had to be given to expanding the number of schools, especially primary schools, and relating the curricula more intimately to employment and development needs.

Some countries, especially those moving rapidly towards fully industrialized economies, have made secondary education more responsive by providing vocational alternatives or by integrating vocational elements into the general curriculum. The system of vocational secondary schools in China is a good example.

In many countries, especially those with mainly rural populations, work related education has been promoted through the establishment of vocational training centres for out-of-school youth. These are frequently administered by a Division of Technical Education or by the Ministry of Employment or Industry. Such networks exist in countries such as Bangladesh, India, Thailand and Papua New Guinea. These have been only partially successful, however, because they generally remain isolated from the mainstream of education and do not provide for continuing education. They have focused on relatively low level technical skills. Motivation to enroll in these centres is generally poor.

More recently the emergence of non-formal systems of education has given further impetus to this movement, especially in those countries where the formal system has been unable to meet the need. NFE programmes in some countries have provided vocational programmes equivalent to that provided by the formal system. Some NFE systems have also absorbed or created new networks of vocational centres which are then integrated more effectively into the overall educational system and, therefore, attract more people.

The most effective movement, however, has been the recent expansion of continuing education with its opportunities for life-long learning. In industrialized countries such as Australia, New Zealand, Japan and the Republic of Korea, continuing education, in close association with an expanding network of technical colleges, has been able to provide appropriate continuous and recurrent training for the changing needs of the work place. Countries with emerging systems of continuing education such as Indonesia, Malaysia and Thailand, are gradually expanding and broadening the roles of their non-formal education systems to cater to this need.

Trends in vocationally oriented continuing education have included the expansion of on-the-job training, the provision of continuing education programmes by industry in factories, business enterprises, industrialized farms, mines and other places of employment, links with formal vocational educational institutions, provision of self-instructional materials, and distance education using television and other forms of mass media. The development, however, has been uneven, with countries of Group C (low levels of adult literacy) lagging behind and those of group A forging ahead. Sadly, on many criteria, the gap between Group A and Group C is widening in this area, as in many other areas of development.

F. Changing relationships between formal and non-formal education

The following discussion is from ATLP-CE Volume III: Equivalency Programmes.[13]

As discussed in Section D of this chapter, many countries in the region have established Departments of Non-Formal Education, which at least initially concentrated on compensating for deficiencies in the formal education systems by providing equivalency programmes. The target has been youth and adults who either failed to attend school or who dropped out before completing the primary or secondary programmes. Many youths have to work to support themselves and their families. Equivalency programmes give them a chance to study while working.

Ideally, equivalency programmes should gradually phase out. The main argument for them is that the formal system is unable or unwilling to be more open and flexible in its response to the educational needs of the community. Sponsors of equivalency programmes argue that they provide the following features that formal schooling fails to provide.

a) Secondary education for adults who failed to proceed directly to secondary school from primary education.

b) Catch-up programmes for secondary school drop-outs.

c) Accelerated progression.

d) Self-paced and self-directed learning.

e) Curriculum directed more to the *immediate* needs of the learners.

f) Easy access.

g) Cheaper delivery system.

h) Adult-oriented methodology.

i) Flexible and transferable certification.

The main argument *against* equivalency programmes is that vast amounts of money have been spent on developing formal schooling and so the formal system should accept full and total responsibility for all aspects of primary and secondary education required by the community. In order for this argument to prevail, however, formal secondary schools would need to be upgraded and be much more flexible and responsive, and in many countries of the world that is in fact happening. For example, the following trends in formal secondary schooling are evident in industrialized countries of the region and elsewhere:

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a) Age is no longer a barrier. Adults of any age can attend special classes, sometimes held in the evenings.

b) Drop-outs are encouraged to return to school and attend special programmes.

c) More able and more mature students can proceed more rapidly and actually skip grades.

d) The school curriculum is becoming more socially and vocationally relevant, particularly in the school years 10, 11 and 12.

e) Almost all secondary schools have open access, requiring only a minimum age of about 12 years (less in some instances) with no entrance examinations.

f) Individualized self-paced systems of learning are now quite common. In fact, in some schools fully individualized learning based on personal diagnosis and individualized educational prescription is promoted.

g) Methodologies of teaching are becoming more varied and are designed to meet individual learning styles.

h) There is less emphasis on the role of examinations. In fact tests and examinations are seen more as learning tools and gateways rather than as barriers.

i) Many forms of delivery system are now available – correspondence education, schools of the air, schools without walls, factory schools, and so on.

Thus the special claims made by advocates of non-formal educational systems have been subsumed by new and more flexible approaches to formal education.

The main argument *against* equivalency programmes, therefore, is that the effort spent on establishing a separate alternative system should be used instead on reforming and upgrading formal secondary schooling in the ways outlined above. An even stronger argument is that if separate alternative systems are established this action could be counter-productive, because the very existence of such an alternative gives the formal education system an excuse to retreat from its broader responsibilities and not to proceed with the types of reforms outlined above. A parallel equivalency system therefore almost ensures that formal secondary schools will remain conservative and relatively unresponsive.

The economic argument in favour of equivalency programmes can also be countered. It may be true that at present these programmes are more cost effective than education provided by the formal system. Formal education, however, takes more than 95 per cent of most education budgets. Those responsible for formal schooling must make that vast expenditure "pay off". The obvious way is to ensure that formal education does in fact meet all of the primary and secondary educational needs of the community thereby avoiding the necessity of setting up a parallel alternative with its own costly infrastructure.

As discussed in Section C of this chapter, all levels of education should be concerned with both personal and national development. Education leads to equity and liberation from the circle of poverty. It provides knowledge, skills and values which enable people to add economic value to their labour beyond that necessary for mere subsistence. With this "extra" output an individual's and a community's prosperity can grow and thus overall national economic growth occurs leading to comprehensive improvement of the quality of life. Only then can national development be rational, sustainable and humanistic.

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At present, equivalency programmes, especially at the secondary level, are important in this push towards sustainable and humanistic development. This is because many Member States are still struggling to attain universal secondary education and some are even not yet able to attain universal primary education. While secondary education remains selective and examination oriented it cannot grow in scope, purpose and direction to meet all secondary education needs. Equivalency programmes are an important stopgap to increase access to education and to accelerate sustainable development. But like programmes in basic adult literacy they face in-built self-destruction. The more they succeed the less they are needed. What should emerge is a unified holistic system of education catering to a broader range of needs than at present.

The likely future trend is that as countries succeed in providing both universal primary and secondary education and at the same time reform their school systems in the directions outlined above, so-called Departments of Non-formal Education can change their roles. As equivalency programmes are phased out, attention can be given to more broadly based programmes of continuing education and the NFE network can expand to foster and support all aspects of lifelong learning not provided by the formal system. This is already beginning to happen in China, Indonesia, Malaysia, Republic of Korea and Thailand. Unfortunately, however, the rate of change is slower in the least developed countries of the region. They will need to maintain and indeed expand NFE type equivalency programmes up to the year 2000 and beyond.

G. The APPEAL approach

The above discussion indicates that piecemeal approaches to the expansion of education in Asia and the Pacific and the achievement of meaningful education for all have mostly failed. The history of educational development in the region has been one of a gradual integration of all aspects of educational planning. Isolated efforts for promoting the Eradication of Illiteracy (EOI), the Universalization of Primary Education (UPE) and Continuing Education for Development (CED) have not succeeded.

It was in this context and for these reasons that APPEAL was established. APPEAL is the acronym of UNESCO's Asia-Pacific Programme of Education for All.[14] The programme involves all Member States of Asia and the Pacific working together in support of national efforts to achieve the following aims:

- ◆ Achievement of universal primary education
- ◆ Eradication of illiteracy
- ◆ Provision of continuing education

APPEAL originated from a recommendation of the Fifth Regional Conference of Ministers of Education and Those Responsible for Economic Planning in Asia and the Pacific (MINEDAP V) which was held in Bangkok in 1985. This recommendation was subsequently endorsed by a resolution passed by the Twenty-Third Session of the UNESCO General Conference held in Sofia in 1985. The basic principles of APPEAL are as follows:

- ◆ Education as a means of development and as a fundamental human right should be guaranteed.

◆ The rich heritage of the civilizations and cultures of the region must be recognized and developed.

◆ Quality and relevance of education should accompany its expansion.

◆ National capabilities of the Member States must be strengthened.

◆ Education of women and the disadvantaged must be given special emphasis.

APPEAL was launched on 23 February 1987 from New Delhi by the Director-General of UNESCO. Since 1987 a range of programmes and activities has been successfully implemented within the general framework established by a Regional Co-ordination Committee. This committee is representative of National Co-ordination Committees established by participating Member States. The Regional Co-ordination Committee meets every two years and is attended by chairpersons or heads of National Committees and by representatives of UN organizations such as UNDP, UNICEF, ESCAP, the World Bank and the Asian Development Bank, as well as selected regional non-government organizations.[15] Basically, however, activities under APPEAL are the responsibility and prerogative of Member States. The UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, through its APPEAL Unit, is responsible for UNESCO activities in support of APPEAL and provides technical support to regional programmes and many national activities.

The objectives of APPEAL are to promote and strengthen mutual co-operation among Member States in the region to fulfill their resolve to:

◆ Continue and intensify their efforts to eradicate illiteracy and to achieve universal primary education before the year 2000.

◆ Create appropriate infrastructures for integrated and effective planning, management, research and development for literacy, primary education and continuing education, with special emphasis on women and disadvantaged groups.

◆ Mobilize human, material and financial resources, as well as encourage community participation and use of local resources.

◆ Give special attention to raising the level of learning achievements of pupils through curriculum renewal, training of personnel, and research.

◆ Promote and strengthen continuing education, especially for out-of-school children, youth and adults.

In spite of the great variations from country to country and from situation to situation in the region, APPEAL has caught the imagination and attention of all Member States. The links between educational development, personal human development and socio-economic growth are now evident to all. This has led to joint action under APPEAL by all Member States and the involvement of thousands of experts and practitioners throughout the region.

In March 1990 APPEAL was given further recognition and support from UNESCO's *World Conference on Education for All* which was held in Jomtien, Thailand.[16] This conference focused the attention of the world on the need to strengthen basic education. A holistic framework for action emerged which has stiffened the resolve of all Member States to achieve Education for All (EFA) by the Year 2000. Almost all countries of the region have set up or identified a national body responsible to follow up on the recommendations of the Jomtien Conference. In some countries the committee for

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APPEAL has been entrusted to do this job, whereas other countries have set up a completely new body. In some countries, follow-up is in the hands of the UNESCO National Commission. But in all countries APPEAL plays a key role.

Details of the Jomtien World Conference are given in Chapter Two. Action plans of Member States for implementing the recommendations of the conference are also described in that chapter.

Clearly, the linear expansion of formal primary education alone is not sufficient to provide education for all. Instead, the combined approach of promoting primary education, literacy and continuing education as proposed under APPEAL will lead to progress. There must be a comprehensive plan to provide basic education for all children, youth and adults in school and out of school.

In order to respond to the countries' needs, APPEAL has revised and improved its regional activities to assist Member States. APPEAL will concentrate on the following areas:

- Strengthening national commitments and capabilities to prepare and implement EFA national plans of action.
- Enhancing equity: reaching the unreached.
- Improving the quality of formal and non-formal education programmes.
- Using mass media for basic education.
- Encouraging innovations and experimentation.
- Strengthening monitoring and evaluation.
- Consolidating regional co-operation for EFA.

APPEAL, therefore, takes a holistic view, seeing all components of education as integral parts of lifelong learning. Countries of the region, during implementation of APPEAL, have increasingly realized that there are complex interactions among efforts to eradicate literacy, universalize primary education and promote continuing education for development. They see that the integration of these elements is essential. For example, there is a growing recognition of the effects of non-enrolment and drop-out on future efforts to eradicate adult illiteracy. The role of non-formal continuing education to consolidate literacy and to extend educational opportunities for all is now understood. The importance of opening up non-formal systems to provide educational opportunities throughout life are now being appreciated, perhaps for the first time, at least in some countries (Figure 1.8).

The importance of co-ordinating efforts in literacy, primary education and continuing education under APPEAL was highlighted in the report of the First Meeting for the Regional Co-ordination of APPEAL in November 1988. The report commented that due to the lack of such co-ordination in the past the following consequences were virtually inevitable:[17]

> *"Enrolment in primary education doubled in most countries from 1960 to 1980. This salient achievement was, however, annihilated by rapid population growth, which resulted in actual increases in the number of non-enrolled in many countries. Accompanying the growth in enrolment, there has been a corresponding increase in drop-outs to a level that drastically reduced the effectiveness of enrolment drives, not to mention the subsequent massive influx of out-of-school children and youth into the stock of adult illiterates.*

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> *Effective planning of literacy programmes will, therefore, have to take into account the level of non-enrolment and drop-outs in primary education. Expansion of primary education will have to be planned in order to maximize access and retention, so as to facilitate literacy efforts for adults. And it will be the responsibility of continuing education, most probably in collaboration with both literacy and UPE programmes, to provide non-formal educational opportunities to the out-of-school." (page 32)*

Literacy process	Adult target	General educational processes and systems

ILLITERATES

SEMI-LITERATES

NEO-LITERATES

ADEQUATELY FUNCTIONAL LITERATES

AUTONOMOUS LEARNERS

LEARNING SOCIETY

Reading, Writing and Numeracy

Basic Social Functionality

Post-literacy Skills

Potential Literacy Regression

Continuing Education

Adult Education

Life-long Learning

Informal Systems of Learning

Non-formal Education System

Formal Education System

Figure 1.8. Stages in the evolution of a learning society. To the left and right solid lines indicate phases of maximum involvement and dotted lines represent either extensions or early origins. For example, while lifelong learning by definition is from birth to death, for adults meaningful engagement in lifelong learning cannot begin until a person is a genuinely autonomous learner.

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Integration is also essential if the ideal of a learning society is to be achieved. There are definite stages in the evolution of such a society and under APPEAL these seem to emerge as literacy education proceeds and as general educational processes and systems expand, reform and diversify. This idea is illustrated in the preceding diagram (Figure 1.8).[18]

From the previous concept of stages in the evolution of a learning society it follows that different countries will have different priorities under APPEAL according to their levels of development, especially in relation to their rates of adult literacy. In consultation with Member States, APPEAL has determined that the priorities for Group A countries (1-20 per cent illiteracy), for Group B (21-50 per cent) and Group C (50 per cent or more) (Table 1.2) are as follows:[19]

Priority needs of group A countries

- ◆ Reduce drop-out rate and increase school survival rate especially among girls and disadvantaged children
- ◆ Improve quality of primary education
- ◆ Extend compulsory schooling years
- ◆ Improve functional literacy programmes
- ◆ Enhance continuing education including skills training
- ◆ Provide pre-primary education on a mass scale

Priority needs of group B countries

- ◆ Strengthen primary education to enroll more girls and disadvantaged groups
- ◆ Reduce drop-out rate and increase school survival rate
- ◆ Improve quality of primary education
- ◆ Improve and strengthen literacy and non-formal education for children and youth
- ◆ Promote continuing education for neo-literates in rural and urban areas

Priority needs of group C countries

- ◆ Strengthen infrastructure for basic education
- ◆ Improve primary education in all aspects – enrolment, retention and achievement
- ◆ Strengthen special programmes for girls and disadvantaged children
- ◆ Improve literacy/non-formal education programmes for out-of-school children, youth and adults
- ◆ Promote post-literacy and continuing education links with work

The first meeting for the Regional Co-ordination of APPEAL (November 1988) made the following general observations and suggestions on how these needs may be met through integrated planning under APPEAL.[20]

a) The three components – eradication of illiteracy (EOI), universal primary education (UPE) and continuing education for development (CED) – should be seen as mutually reinforcing and independent, yet interdependent and supportive of each other.

b) Activities in the areas of EOI and UPE should be simultaneously backed by an effective programme of non-formal education for those who are 9-14 years of age who have either dropped out of the formal stream at some stage or who did not have any opportunity to attend school.

c) Both group effort and individualized effort should be made in tackling the problems of illiteracy eradication. The group effort is based on the centre-based approach, while the individual effort includes such approaches as "Each One Teach One".

d) In areas with a large concentration of illiterates, a mass campaign of limited duration involving teachers, students, and community members may be a viable option.

e) The involvement of NGOs should be encouraged by giving them necessary administrative, technical and financial support to supplement the efforts of the Government.

f) In the areas of EOI and UPE, attention should be given to special target groups such as women and girls, ethnic and cultural minorities, socially disadvantaged groups, children in urban slums, the urban poor, migrants and new settlers.

g) To support the goals of APPEAL and the provision of lifelong learning opportunities, CED efforts should include literacy promotion programmes, vocational skills development or income-generating programmes, quality of life improvement programmes, leadership courses, citizenship courses and cultural awareness programmes. However, the government effort and resources should be especially devoted to: (i) the non-enrolled; (ii) school drop-outs; and (iii) post-literate groups.

APPEAL also has to help Member States address the problem of making all levels of education more relevant to the world of work. It also must facilitate necessary reforms in formal education to make schools more flexible and open in their policies and programmes so they can contribute more meaningfully to lifelong learning. Finally, APPEAL must provide guidelines and principles that will promote the growth of continuing education, perhaps by initially strengthening NFE systems where they exist and gradually helping in their transformation into agencies for continuing education. All this must be done within the framework of APPEAL's three-part mandate – UPE, EOI and CED.

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Chapter Two

THE CONSULTATION AND IMPLEMENTATION MECHANISM OF APPEAL

A. Origin of APPEAL

As stated earlier, APPEAL originated from the recommendation of the Fifth Regional Conference of Ministers of Education and Those Responsible for Economic Planning (MINEDAP V) held in Bangkok on 4-11 March 1985.[1] After the endorsement of the recommendation by the Twenty-Third Session of the General Conference of UNESCO held in November 1985, Literacy and Primary Education Experts from 22 Member States prepared and approved the **Asia-Pacific Programme of Education for All (APPEAL)** in the **Regional Experts' Meeting on the Regional Programme for the Universalization of Primary Education and the Eradication of Illiteracy** held in **Bangkok on 20-27 May 1986.**[2] APPEAL was launched by the Director-General of UNESCO from New Delhi, India on 23 February 1987. The launching ceremony was attended by many representatives of Member States.[3]

B. APPEAL mechanism at the regional level

APPEAL has set up a mechanism whereby Member States continuously participate in decision-making and implementation of its activities.

APPEAL has a Regional Consultation Mechanism called: **"Regional Co-ordination Committee for APPEAL"** which is composed of chairpersons of National Co-ordination Committees of APPEAL and/or those who are in charge of APPEAL Programmes in Member States. It meets once every two years. The First, Second and Third Regional Co-ordination Committees for APPEAL were held in 1988, 1990 and 1992.[4] The Sixth Regional Conference of Ministers of Education and Those Responsible for Economic Planning (MINEDAP VI) held in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia in June 1993 decided to constitute an integrated Regional Committee called the **"Regional Committee on Education"** with broad-based participation and including representatives of funding agencies and NGOs in order to plan, monitor and assess all PROAP's activities in the area of education.[5] This committee would replace the Advisory Committee, and the separate Regional Consultation Meetings currently held to monitor the work of APEID and APPEAL.

C. National mechanisms for APPEAL

As provided for in the APPEAL document[6] each Member State is expected to constitute a National Co-ordination Committee for APPEAL with the participation of persons responsible for primary education, literacy and continuing education. The committee is also expected to have participation by NGOs and representatives from other departments in each Government.

National Co-ordination Committees have been constituted in most countries. Examples of the formation, constitution and responsibilities of these committees which were prepared by the National

Co-ordination Committees and are extracted from the Report of the Third Meeting for the Regional Co-ordination of APPEAL 1992 are given below:[7]

a) **Afghanistan.** Afghanistan has established a Supreme National Council of Education under the head of the government with various ministers, including the Minister of Education, being members. In addition to the ministers, the President of the Academy of Sciences of Afghanistan is also a member. At the provincial and district levels delegates are from ministries which constitute provincial and district committees.

b) **Australia.** The Commonwealth and State Governments in Australia have formed a Working Party to oversee national implementation of the Australian Language and Literacy Policy (ALLP) and to develop long-term strategies. The Language and Literacy Branch of the Commonwealth Department of Employment, Education and Training (DEET) is responsible for co-ordination of ALLP activities within the Australian Government.

c) **China**. China has a State Education Commission which is primarily based on the former Ministry of Education with the participation of the Ministry of Finance. This committee has been entrusted with responsibility for implementing EFA activities. Hebei province has been chosen as the pilot area to implement an NFA Action Plan and to establish a national leading committee for EFA in China. To complement the national committee, a Hebei provincial leading group and task force were created.

d) **India**. At the national level, the Department of Education of the Ministry of Human Resource Development is the nodal agency for planning, implementation and co-ordination of EFA activities. A national co-ordination committee for APPEAL under the chairmanship of the Education Secretary was constituted in 1987. The mandate of this committee was later extended to cover follow-up of the World Conference on Education for all (WCEFA) 1990 (see Section D). The committee has as members government officials, as well as representatives of those NGOs which work in close collaboration with the government. The committee oversees the implementation of the National Plan of Action for EFA and meets once or twice a year. State governments have also constituted similar committees.

e) **Indonesia**. Indonesia established in 1988 the National Working Group (Pokra) for co-ordination of APPEAL entrusted with the work of EFA. The group is chaired by the Director-General for Out-of-School Education, Youth and Sports and representatives of various concerned ministries are members, in addition to representatives of non-government organizations. It is assisted by technical committees and holds a regular monthly meeting to discuss problems related to the substance and management of EFA. At province, district, sub-district, and village levels EFA is implemented by the co-ordination teams of compulsory primary education, headed by the governor, regent and heads of sub-districts and villages.

f) **Lao People's Democratic Republic.** Laos has set up a task force headed by the Vice-Minister of Education and Sports, with twelve members representing other ministries, women and youth organizations, to decide policies and guidelines, co-ordinate implementation, determine programmes and to evaluate results. This task force meets every year to review implementation at provincial and district levels. An EFA

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Committee has not been created, but for non-formal education there are committees comprising various representatives.

g) **Malaysia**. Malaysia has constituted a national agency with representatives of the Ministry of Education and its various divisions, as well as other ministries. The University of Malaya and University of Agriculture are also represented. The national agency meets every six months and discusses reports from various ministries.

h) **Pakistan**. A national task force has been constituted which includes, among others, the Federal Education Secretary and those senior officials who participated in the WCEFA. The task force organized workshops at all provincial headquarters where there was wide participation from concerned government and non-government agencies. Task forces have been instituted at provincial level.

i) **Papua New Guinea**. There were already a number of decision making committees within the Department of Education including inter-agency consultative groups such as the Steering Group chaired by the Secretary of the Department of Education (DOE) and the Project Pipeline Committee chaired by the DOE Deputy Secretary. These groups are now supported by a Regional Management and Planning Advisers Project (RMPA). This unit works under the Project Pipeline Committee chaired by the DOE Deputy Secretary and meets four times a year or as required. The work is directed by the DOE Principal Planning Officer. It is the responsibility of the provinces to constitute provincial EFA committees.

j) **Philippines**. A presidential proclamation issued in 1989 created the National Committee on EFA as the policy making body under the chairmanship of the Secretary (Minister) of Education, Culture and Sports. The Under-Secretary of the National Technical Secretariat is chairman of its technical and administrative arm. The EFA movement is spearheaded by the Inter-agency Committee on EFA, at the national level. A programme management team created in 1991 provides the necessary technical and administrative support, while various committees on EFA through their technical secretariats, supervise activities of project implementation within GOs/NGOs. Regional committees on EFA have been organized in the fourteen administrative regions and provincial committees have likewise been organized. A number of national and regional-based EFA projects are going on in selected areas of the country.

k) **Korea, Republic of**. The central organ for national policy for APPEAL is the National Co-ordination Committee for APPEAL of the Korean National Commission for UNESCO in technical co-operation with the Department of Education and Science. It is chaired by the past president of the Korea Society for Literacy and Adult Basic Education and consists of seven members from the Ministry of Education, the Korean Educational Development Institute, the Korean Association of Adult Education and the National Committee for APEID and three members from the university sector. The committee meets twice a year to discuss policy issues and programmes for APPEAL, and to co-ordinate activities.

l) **Sri Lanka**. A national task force has been set up to consider in detail quantitative and qualitative dimensions of EFA. The task force has made recommendations for a range of activities.

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m) **Thailand.** A sub-committee consisting of representatives from both government and private sectors has been set up under the National Education Commission responsible for overseeing the implementation of the EFA National Plan of Action. At the ministerial level, the Policy Committee for Education, Religion and Culture, chaired by the Minister of Education, is the main body for overseeing implementation. At provincial and district levels, existing sub-committees on educational, religious and cultural development are the bodies responsible for overseeing implementation of EFA.

The situation, therefore, even before the Jomtien Declaration of March 1990 (see below), demonstrated that countries of this region had launched through UNESCO the programme of APPEAL with very similar objectives. As many as 22 countries of the region had set up National Co-ordination Committees for the APPEAL Programme. All of them were at the official high government (as opposed to ministerial) level. Many countries of the region such as India, Indonesia, Republic of Korea, Laos and Malaysia, have widened the mandate of these committees for follow-up work on EFA. Some countries, notably the Philippines, Thailand and Afghanistan, have followed a different approach by setting up a very high-level Ministers Committee to guide and oversee EFA. In Bhutan and China the task has been assigned to the Department of Education, while in Papua New Guinea existing interagency committees are ensuring follow-up of EFA.

D. *World Declaration on Education for All (Jomtien Declaration)*

1990 was declared to be the "International Literacy Year" by the United Nations General Assembly. UNESCO, UNDP, UNICEF and the World Bank jointly organized a "World Conference on Education for All" in Jomtien, Thailand on 5-9 March 1990.[8] The conference was attended by 1,500 participants comprising delegates from 155 Governments, representatives from 20 inter-governmental bodies and 150 non-governmental organizations.

The World Conference adopted two manifestos: "World Declaration on Education for All"[9] and "Framework for Action to Meet Basic Learning Needs."[10] These documents have come to be known as the Jomtien Declaration.

The Jomtien Declaration states the following principles:

> "The diversity, complexity, and changing nature of basic learning needs of children, youth and adults necessitate broadening and constantly redefining the scope of basic education to include the following components:
>
> **Learning begins at birth.** This calls for early childhood care and initial education. These can be provided through arrangements involving families, communities, or institutional programmes, as appropriate.
>
> **The main delivery system for the basic education of children outside the family is primary schooling.** Primary education must be universal, ensure that the basic learning needs of all children are satisfied, and take into account the culture, needs, and opportunities of the community. Supplementary alternative programmes can help meet the basic learning needs of children with limited or no access to formal schooling, provided that they share the same standards of learning applied to schools, and are adequately supported.
>
> **The basic learning needs of youth and adults are diverse and should be met through a variety of delivery systems.** Literacy programmes are indispensable because literacy is a necessary skill in itself and the foundation of other life skills. Literacy in the mother tongue strengthens cultural identity and heritage. Other needs can be served by: skills training, apprenticeships, and formal and non-formal education programmes in health, nutrition, population, agricultural techniques, the environment, science, technology, family life, including fertility awareness, and other societal issues.
>
> **All available instruments of information, communication, and social action could be used to help convey essential knowledge and inform and educate people on social issues.** In addition to the traditional means, libraries, television, radio and other media can be mobilized to realize their potential towards meeting basic education needs of all.
>
> **These components should constitute an integrated system — complementary, mutually reinforcing, and of comparable standards, and they should contribute to creating and developing possibilities for lifelong learning."[11]**

The Jomtien Declaration was based on the following assumptions:[12]

1. Literacy programmes promote human resource development at the mass level.

2. Literacy contributes to increases in investment and in output per worker.

3. Literacy (as well as nutrition and income) correlates with increased life expectancy.

4. Economic disparities are reinforced and reproduced over time by unequal levels of literacy among the people.

5. Without the skills to participate in a literate, technological world and the knowledge to transform their environment, people will remain on the margin of society and the society itself will lose their vast potential contribution.

6. Literacy promotes the participation of all individuals in their local communities and in the global society.

7. Marginalized populations need literacy skills to prepare themselves for effective migration, social and occupational mobility, access to new information and adaptation to new environments.

8. Literacy helps to develop necessary awareness regarding the status of environmental degradation and the need to preserve the environment.

9. Literacy, particularly of girls and women, contributes a great deal to control of rapid population growth by promoting collective health and well-being.

E. Follow-up of the Jomtien Declaration

At the Jomtien Conference, Member States were requested to prepare their own EFA National Plans of Action in the light of the Jomtien Declaration. Most of the countries in the region took action to prepare or reformulate their EFA National Plans.

Some countries, however, had particularly serious problems. Therefore, UNESCO and the Asian Development Bank (ADB) jointly provided assistance to the following six countries to prepare EFA National Plans of Action: Bangladesh, China, India, Nepal, Pakistan and Papua New Guinea.[13]

While some countries, such as Afghanistan, Indonesia, Laos, Nepal, Bangladesh and Philippines, have prepared (or are preparing) separate Plans of Action to implement EFA, other countries, like China, India, Malaysia, Sri Lanka and Pakistan, are implementing EFA through their on-going medium-term plans, with adjustments where needed. Some are doing both. Thailand has in its Plan of Action an outline of strategies and projects, classified by objectives, while the Philippines has a detailed plan for EFA in two volumes listing all the national and provincial projects to be taken up for EFA as and when funds become available. Almost all plans of action provide for the goals and targets of EFA by the year 2000.

However, there are – as is to be expected – several differences in strategies and programmes and differences in emphasis, depending in part on the magnitude of the task ahead. While in all countries there is the need to mobilize additional resources, in some countries, such as Papua New Guinea, Bangladesh and Nepal, the financial constraints are of a quite serious magnitude. The magnitude of the task ahead for the countries in the region could also be addressed from the basic position of primary education enrolment, literacy level and internal efficiency.

The action plans first developed in 1992 were in 1994 being implemented after some revision.[14] APPEAL provided the framework of action for achieving the objectives of the action plans.

F. International co-operation for APPEAL - financial support

The UNESCO General Conference has persistently reiterated that Basic Education for All is a priority of UNESCO, but regular funding allocated to APPEAL activities, including primary education, literacy and continuing education, has been constantly decreasing. For example, UNESCO/PROAP's budget for APPEAL activities decreased from US$663,400 in 1990-1991 to US$445,081 in 1991-1992.

Fortunately, however, international co-operation and mobilization of resources for APPEAL has provided assistance to the following activities:[15]

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a) Training of literacy personnel under APPEAL (504-RAS-11) assisted by the Government of Norway

This project had two phases. Under Phase I (504-RAS-10) APPEAL Training Materials for Literacy Personnel (ATLP) were prepared, printed and translated by the Member States. Seven sub-regional workshops and one regional workshop were organized to train key literacy personnel. Also under this project a number of Member States have organized national training workshops to develop literacy curricula and training materials and have provided training to a large number of literacy trainers.

Under Phase II (504-RAS-11), funded by the Government of Norway, training of literacy personnel has continued but at the same time APPEAL Training Materials for Continuing Education Personnel (ATLP-CE) were developed and assistance provided to the Member States to translate them. Two regional workshops on continuing education were organized (Thailand in 1992 and China in 1993).

The funds provided were:

Phase I :	1989-1991	US$1,033,070.00
Phase II :	1991-1996	US$1,921,000.00
Total		US$2,954,070.00

b) Promotion of literacy in Asia and the Pacific – 1990-1994

Under this project the Government of Japan has provided the following assistance:

1990-1991	US$ 700,000.00
1991-1992	US$ 700,000.00
1992-1993	US$ 700,000.00
Total	US$2,100,000.00

Under this project, the following activities have been implemented:

◆ Training of personnel utilizing ATLP.

◆ Training for the planning and management of literacy and continuing education personnel.

◆ Pilot Project for Girls and Disadvantaged Groups.

◆ Pilot Project for Promotion of Youth and Adults.

◆ Development of basic literacy materials for youth and adults.

◆ Preparation of a video programme on literacy.

◆ Promotion of literacy through Community Learning Centres.

◆ Development of education indicators to assess EFA targets.

Details of these activities are given in Chapters Four and Five.

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c) Expansion of skill-based literacy programmes for women and girls

This is a UNDP assisted project implemented from 1989 to 1994 with a budget of US$1,114,500.

Under this project, literacy materials for raising the awareness levels of girls and women and for training women leaders were developed and training programmes implemented (see Chapter Six).

d) Development of EFA national plans of action

Under this project, the **Asian Development Bank** has provided US$42,500 to help six countries (Bangladesh, China, India, Nepal, Pakistan and Papua New Guinea) develop EFA National Plans of Action. Two sub-regional workshops were also organized under the project.

Besides these sources, the Asian Development Bank, UNDP, UNICEF and the World Bank have provided assistance to the Member States to improve primary education and adult literacy programmes.

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Chapter Three

APPEAL AND UNIVERSAL PRIMARY EDUCATION (UPE)

A. Earlier initiatives – The Karachi Plan

As discussed in Chapter One, almost all developing countries of the region have given the highest priority to expanding their primary school systems, initially as an expression of their independent national identities and then as a means of eradicating illiteracy, improving quality of life and enhancing capacity for development.

The first full-scale regional programme aiming to achieve universal primary education was also mentioned in Chapter Two. This was the programme which became known as the Karachi Plan. In late 1959, UNESCO convened a meeting of Asian Member States in Karachi. This meeting recognized for the first time the need for a plan for the region as a whole which would provide a blueprint for educational development throughout Asia. The plan was refined by subsequent meetings held in Tokyo (1962) and Bangkok (1965).

The original plan aimed at ensuring that fifteen (later eighteen) countries attained the goal of seven years of compulsory primary education by 1980. The programme was welcomed by the countries involved as contributing to nation building and fostering socio-economic development. The plan also focused on the need to integrate educational development into a country's overall development plan so. that educational expansion would be linked to economic growth through workforce planning forecasts. The plan was very ambitious since it was based on an estimated increase in population from 775 million to 1,185 million in the period 1960-1980. The costs of implementing the plan over the twenty-year period were estimated to be US$56,000 million, and it was anticipated that this money would come mainly from international aid.

Another feature of the Karachi Plan was its regional focus. It took a regional approach to problem solving and to the sharing of information. This focus contributed to the emergence of many regional organizations concerned with the promotion of education in Asia and the Pacific, including UNESCO PROAP in Bangkok, a Regional Centre for Training Teacher Educators in Manila, a Regional Centre for Training Planners and Administrators of Education in New Delhi and an Asian Region Institute for School Building Research in Bandung. It also led to the formation of the Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization (SEAMEO).

The plan recognized that quantitative expansion was not enough and that quality would have to be ensured. It therefore stressed the importance of a balanced development. Further, at the follow-up meetings of 1960 (Manila) and 1962 (Tokyo) the scope of the plan was extended to secondary and higher education to ensure that full democratic growth was attained, that trained personnel would be available to maintain quality, and that industrialization, based on the availability of appropriately educated manpower, could proceed.

The Karachi Plan's main contribution was to focus attention on the need for rationally planned, balanced and co-operative educational development, while maintaining quality and fostering

equity. Unfortunately, however, the Plan failed to meet its target of achieving UPE in the eighteen countries by 1980.

Reasons for the failure of the Karachi Plan provide important lessons for future regional initiatives such as APPEAL. They include the following:

1. The financial aid expected from international aid agencies was not forthcoming at the levels or rates anticipated.

2. Population growth exceeded expectation.

3. Economic growth within those countries with a relatively weak economic base in 1960 was not as rapid as expected.

4. Expansion of secondary and higher education was not sufficiently rapid in countries with poor economies to provide the number of teachers needed.

5. Drop-out rates were higher than anticipated, leading to higher levels of adult illiteracy than originally forecast.

6. Quality controls could not always be sustained.

7. The difficulty of providing schooling for people in remote areas, for women and for other disadvantaged groups was under-estimated.

8. Educational systems and approaches based on European models were accepted with little question; in practice these were not always appropriate for the Asian situation.

9. Insufficient attention was given to curriculum reform to ensure relevance for personal development, employment and economic and social development needs.

10. The extent to which the region would be destabilized by war and domestic disturbance was enormously greater than anyone could have envisaged in 1960. In fact, Oceania aside, only Mongolia, Nepal and Singapore escaped the ravages of some type of warfare, political upheaval or military confrontation between the years 1960 and 1980.

Nevertheless the Karachi Plan made a major contribution. It provided a springboard for considerable expansion of education in Asia and established some important principles which have become cornerstones of successful development.

B. The present situation

As discussed above, the Karachi Plan's goal of Universal Primary Education (UPE) was not achieved by 1980. It has still (1994) not been achieved in all countries in the region, although rapid progress has been made in some. From 1980 to 1990 primary education enrolments in Asia and the Pacific grew from 348 to 373 million – a growth rate of only 0.7 per cent per year. This slow-down in overall growth was caused by a massive decline in primary enrolments in China from 146 million in 1980 to 122 million in 1990. This neutralized, to a large extent, rapid growth in South Asia from 102 to 140 million.[1]

Differences between countries in regard to their progress towards achieving UPE can best be demonstrated by reference to gross enrolment ratios. This ratio is the total enrolment in primary schools, regardless of age, divided by the population of the age-group which officially corresponds to primary schooling. Gross enrolment ratios for 28 countries are given in Figures 3.1 and 3.2. In Figure

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3.1, statistics for 1980 and 1990 are shown. In Figure 3.2, the statistics are for 1990 but show gender variations.

China	China
Fiji	Fiji
Myanmar	Indonesia
Indonesia	Philippines
Philippines	Korea, Rep. of
Singapore	Singapore
Turkey	Sri Lanka
Iran Islamic Rep.	Turkey
Korea, Rep. of	Australia
Sri Lanka	New Zealand
Hong Kong	Korea, D.P.R.
Korea, D.P.R.	Iran, Islamic Rep.
New Zealand	Japan
Australia	Mongolia
Lao P.D.R.	Malaysia
Viet Nam	Lao P.D.R.
Japan	Former USSR
Mongolia	Thailand
India	India
Malaysia	Bangladesh
Former USSR	PNG
Nepal	Nepal
Thailand	Pakistan
Bangladesh	Bhutan
PNG	Afghanistan
Pakistan	
Bhutan	
Afghanistan	
■ 1980 ◇ 1990	Females ● Males

Figure 3.1: Gross enrolment
ratios 1980 and 1990
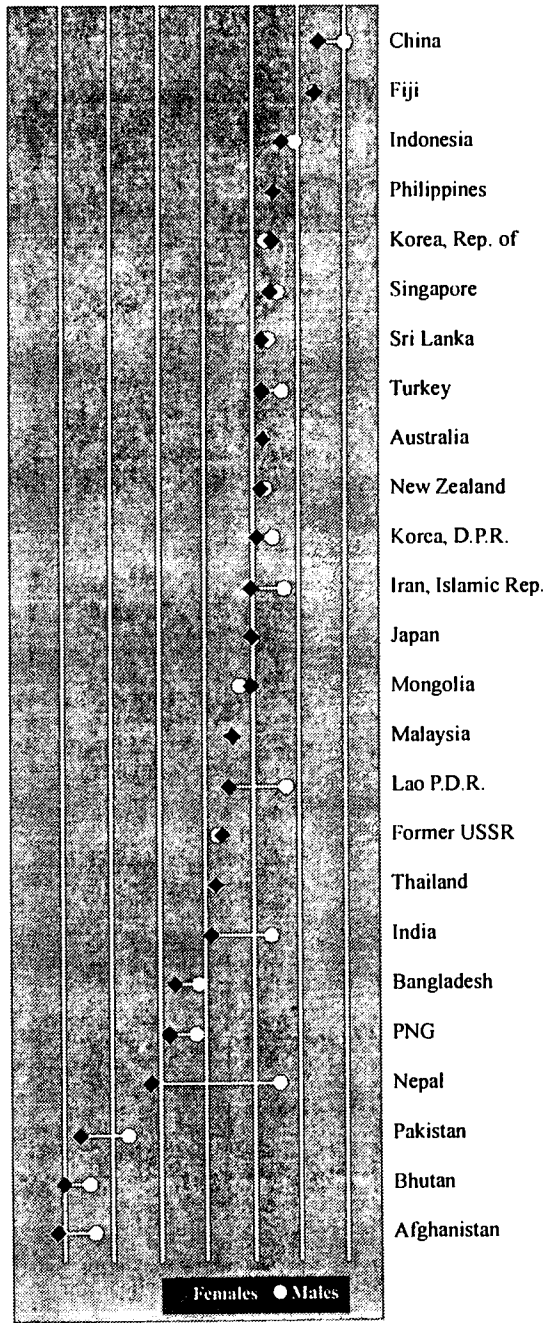
Figure 3.2: Gross enrolment
ratio 1990 by sex

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While a majority of countries have created adequate overall capacities to accommodate primary school-age populations, there are some problems being encountered. A small group of countries, namely Bangladesh, Papua New Guinea and particularly Pakistan, Bhutan and Afghanistan, have very low gross enrolment ratios. In Afghanistan, the participation rate actually declined from 40 per cent to little more than 20 per cent between 1980 and 1990.

In several of the countries with relatively high gross enrolment ratios other types of problems exist. In some, school facilities are unevenly distributed geographically and in many cases ratios are inflated by numbers who enrol late or repeat grades. Enrolment rates of 120 per cent and more reflect the latter point. Better school mapping procedures and improvements in other micro-planning aspects are needed to overcome these problems together with policies to reduce over-age enrolments.

India, Nepal and Laos have demonstrated considerable success in expanding primary school capacities to levels approaching a 100 per cent gross enrolment rate. Gender differences, however, remain a problem in these three countries (Figure 3.2), as indeed they do in Iran, Bangladesh, Papua New Guinea, Pakistan, Bhutan and Afghanistan. There is urgent need in these countries to improve access for girls.

Population trends are also a cause for concern in some countries. This point is demonstrated by the following table which indicates present primary enrolments and projected enrolments to the year 2000 among those countries still to attain UPE.

Table 3.1. Primary school enrolments in fifteen countries and their implications for UPE

Country	Latest year available	Primary enrolment in lya* (000)	Projected primary school age population in year 2000 (000)	Implied enrolment increase between lya and 2000		
				Number of places required (000)	Implied average annual increase (000)	Implied percentage increase (%)
Afghanistan	1989	726	4,954	4,228	384	582
Bhutan	1988	55	281	225	19	407
Pakistan	1990	7,141	23,655	16,513	1,651	231
Papua New Guinea	1990	415	721	306	31	74
Bangladesh	1990	11,940	19,642	7,702	770	65
Nepal	1988	2,109	3,101	993	83	47
Lao P.D.R.	1989	564	797	233	21	41
Mongolia	1990	166	214	47	5	29
Malaysia	1990	2,456	3,101	645	65	26
India	1990	99,118	119,695	20,576	2,058	21
Viet Nam	1987	8,666	9,789	1,123	86	13
Singapore	1989	258	277	19	2	7
Turkey	1990	6,862	7,287	425	43	6
Philippines	1990	10,427	11,043	616	62	6
Thailand	1990	6,465	6,561	97	10	1

* lya = latest year available

The data in Table 3.1 indicate that demographic trends in some countries will retard progress towards UPE. The countries shown in the table can be placed in four groups according to the implied percentage increase in primary school enrolments by the year 2000. These are as follows:

Group I: More than 100 per cent implied increase

A group which will need to make maximum effort to achieve UPE by the year 2000. This group includes Pakistan (231 per cent), Bhutan (407 per cent) and Afghanistan (582 per cent).

Group II: Between 40 and 100 per cent implied increase

A group which will need to have carefully targeted programmes and projects to achieve UPE by the end of the century. This group includes Papua New Guinea, Bangladesh, Nepal and Laos.

Group III: Between 20 and 40 per cent implied increase

A group which is clearly moving in the right direction but which must fine-tune its present programmes. It includes Mongolia, Malaysia and India.

Group IV: Less than 20 per cent implied increase

A group which should have no difficulty in attaining UPE by the end of the century provided present policies are sustained. This group includes Viet Nam, Singapore, Turkey, Philippines and Thailand.

C. Organizing the APPEAL response

As discussed in Chapter One, APPEAL emerged in 1985 from a recommendation of the Fifth Regional Conference of Ministers of Education and Those Responsible for Economic Planning in Asia and the Pacific (MINEDAP V).[2] UNESCO PROAP quickly responded to this by developing and implementing an action plan. Procedural aspects were worked out at a Regional Experts' Meeting held in Bangkok, 20-27 May 1986.[3] At that time UNESCO PROAP's Asia and Pacific Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID) was completing its third programming cycle (1982-1986) and was preparing to enter its fourth (1987-1991). It was considered opportune to have a combined meeting which would, on the one hand, examine APEID's possible role in and contribution to the newly emerging APPEAL programme and, on the other, to seek the views of regional experts in preparing a draft document on how APPEAL should function and on its possible activities. An important consideration of the meeting was to determine how APEID and APPEAL should work together to achieve the objectives of APPEAL in its three areas of concern – UPE, EOI and CED. The following extracts from the report highlight this concern.

"The UNESCO Assistant Director-General for Co-ordination made reference to decisions by the UNESCO General Conference, the highest decision-making body of the Organization, which have led to the creation of the APEID and APPEAL programmes. The two are distinctly different in character, and each will need to maintain an individual identity. Their work, however, needs to be harmonized so that they can become mutually supportive. [It was further stressed that] the successful implementation of the new programme, APPEAL, will require massive actions on a large scale by the Member States, and that APEID, on its part, will need to provide the support of the community of educationists, under its umbrella, who are dedicated to the generation of innovative ideas to tackle emerging challenges."[4]

The UNESCO Assistant Director-General for Education spoke at the meeting. His comments were summarized as follows:

"In clarifying the need to have two separate programmes (i.e., APEID and APPEAL), he indicated that APPEAL would be an integral part of a global strategy of UNESCO, and that it follows the establishment of similar programmes for Latin America and Africa, each programme being adapted to regional needs. He explained that APEID and APPEAL are mutually supportive and reinforcing. While APEID will seek continuing innovation and renewal of educational development, APPEAL will address itself to the critical and urgent operational tasks of achieving UPE and literacy with specific target dates in mind. The present meeting will mark an important milestone in the history of regional co-operation in education. [He] suggested that APPEAL may be viewed as a renewal of the spirit of the Karachi Plan in a new context."[5]

The meeting then addressed specific aspects of how APEID and APPEAL would work together. The following extracts summarize the discussion.

"The participants in general agreed on the principles, objectives and actions proposed under APPEAL, but some of them sought clarification about the relationship between APPEAL and APEID.

Some participants thought that APPEAL should be an area of concentration of APEID. A few participants expressed fear that the creation of a separate regional programme, APPEAL, might siphon funds and personnel, thus weakening APEID. Others expressed concern that the formation of another structure for APPEAL would result in duplication of efforts, and confusion.

Attention of the meeting was called to Resolution No. 2 of MINEDAP V and the recommendation of the Third Session of the Advisory Committee which both specified that UPE and EOI be implemented as one of the programme areas of APEID.

The working group report stressed that APEID is mainly concerned with innovation, whereas APPEAL's thrust is directed at the very root cause of under-development and hence entails a much more massive operation. In support of this argument, some participants argued that the magnitude of this region's illiteracy is far too great to leave APPEAL as merely one of the many areas of APEID. Some participants called for a separate identity for APPEAL in order to gain new impetus. It was agreed that although APPEAL and APEID would assume their now separate entities, they were to be closely and mutually supportive.

In response to the questions, directed at the Secretariat, it was pointed out that two recommendations were made by MINEDAP V concerning "Education for All", one recommending its programme to be implemented as one of the programme areas of APEID (Recommendation No. 2) while the other (Recommendation No. 10) recommending to launch a new major regional programme.

The Secretariat stressed that UNESCO is fully committed to supporting both APEID and APPEAL. It shall ensure that these two programmes will complement and supplement each other in an effort to maximize UNESCO's service to the Member States.[6]

In summary, then, APPEAL emerged as a separate programme with its own clearly defined identity under the general management of a Programme Co-ordinator within UNESCO PROAP. In practice, however, some aspects of the programme, especially those associated with UPE, were initially left to APEID leaving most developments under EOI and CED within the new APPEAL structure. This practical "division of labour" emerged largely because APEID, since its establishment in 1975, had been involved in many aspects of the development of primary education, including direct action in promoting UPE, and so continuity was desirable.[7]

This initial arrangement has had both its pluses and minuses. On the plus side, UNESCO PROAP could maintain continuity in its UPE efforts, a broader group of personnel could share the task of meeting the objectives of APPEAL, and the APPEAL co-ordinator could give initial attention to exploring new approaches to EOI and CED. On the minus side, however, the arrangement (i) tended to reduce the integration of the three strands of APPEAL as a totally holistic programme and (ii) has

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presented the region with two sources of input for APPEAL which, at least initially, may have caused some problems in relation to perceived lines of communication and areas of responsibility.

The working relationship between APPEAL and APEID in practice, however, has been very effective. The Sixth Regional Conference of Ministers of Education and Those Responsible for Economic Planning in Asia and the Pacific (MINEDAP VI), held in Kuala Lumpur in June 1993, reaffirmed the resolutions of MINEDAP V that there be a clearer distinction between the APPEAL and APEID programmes. APPEAL was to concentrate on strengthening UPE, EOI and CED, while APEID was to concentrate on educational research and innovation, making education more relevant to the world of work, and improving teacher education and higher education.[8]

The relationship between APPEAL and APEID was further clarified by the Report and Recommendations of a Consultative Group for APEID (which met in Jomtien, Thailand in late 1993) which stated:

> *"It is assumed that the internal clarification and definition of the APEID and APPEAL mandates (Ref. Recommendation of MINEDAP VI) will be made. For the purpose of Programme Areas of APEID, it is assumed that adult literacy and universal primary education are covered by the APPEAL mandate except research and innovations in basic education which are appropriately under APEID."[9]*

It would seem clear, therefore, that from 1994 most activities under UPE will be implemented as part of the programme of APPEAL.

D. Determining APPEAL priorities for achieving universal primary education

By 1988 several countries of Asia and the Pacific had attained universal primary education. These included Australia, China, Fiji, Indonesia, Iran, Japan, DPR Korea, Republic of Korea, Laos, Malaysia, Mongolia, New Zealand, Philippines, Sri Lanka and most of the micro-states of the Pacific. A few, such as Malaysia and the Philippines could, however, face problems by the year 2000 due to population growth (Table 3.1). It was clear too that India, Thailand and Turkey were on the threshold and would probably reach the goal between 1990 and 2000 for both boys and girls. With increased effort, possibly Bangladesh (in respect of boys) and Papua New Guinea had the possibility of reaching the goal. Those countries which would reach UPE only after 2000 included Afghanistan, Bhutan, Nepal and Pakistan (Table 3.1).

Different countries, therefore, clearly had different priorities in regard to UPE, and these would determine priorities for any programme of action under APPEAL. Priorities for APPEAL in this area therefore were re-affirmed and elaborated during the MINEDAP VI meeting held in Kuala Lumpur in June 1993 [10]. Priorities were clarified under three components of UPE. These were:

♦ Universal access

♦ Universal retention

♦ Universal achievement

In terms of access, the major task was to increase gross enrolment rates for girls. The problem was seen to be especially acute in Bangladesh, Papua New Guinea, Afghanistan, Bhutan, Nepal and Pakistan.

Reducing drop-out rates and raising levels of achievement by the year 2000 call for a massive investment in improving educational quality. MINEDAP VI saw difficulties not only in the lack of material resources but because of inadequate management, especially in the areas of micro-planning, low implementation capacity and weak infrastructure for such tasks as curriculum reform, teacher training, production and distribution of teaching-learning materials and country-wide assessment of schools and students.

The MINEDAP VI report also noted that there are many factors which contribute to non-enrolment, low participation, premature withdrawal from school and poor levels of achievement. These factors were grouped into: (i) those relating to the Governments' ability to support education; (ii) those having their basis in the social and economic situation of the people; and (iii) those for which schools should take the major responsibility. In preparing for MINEDAP VI, UNESCO PROAP reported as follows.[11]

"The government-related factors are concerned with inability or unwillingness to create sufficient places even for those who would willingly enrol in pre-primary and primary schools. This is particularly so in communities which live in remote and sparsely populated areas where opening of schools is found to be economically non-viable and unjustified on the basis of existing norms such as pupil teacher ratios, size of the school, catchment area etc. The existence of single teacher and incomplete schools, which often result in discontinuance of education by students are indicators of this phenomenon. Some governments also find it difficult to strengthen motivation of children and their parents for schooling by such measures as free clothing, free books and stationery, attendance awards, mid-day meals and so on. All these cost money and have, therefore, to be restricted to a very small number.

Social and economic handicaps from which people suffer form another cluster of factors contributing to low enrolment, repetitions and early withdrawals. The poor are unable to spare their children for schooling since this would mean a foregoing of their earnings, howsoever meager they might be. School age children in developing countries work for wages as low paid workers or on household farms. They tend cattle and look after siblings. Unless families are compensated for the loss of income that children's attendance will lead to, it would be unrealistic to expect them to send children to schools on a regular basis. Alternative delivery systems – such as non-formal education centres organized at a time convenient to families – help only partially, since children's chores are often never-ending. The families cannot meet indirect costs of schooling – better clothing, textbooks and stationery, etc. The nutritional status and health condition of children of poor communities are two other major reasons why they do not attend schools regularly and/or progress from grade to grade without interruption.

In the case of girls, social attitudes towards their education in mixed schools or continuance beyond a certain age may adversely affect their continuous participation in education. While in pre-school and primary grades, there is general acceptance of girls studying along with boys, there are some communities in South Asia which show a preference for separate schools for girls. In some communities, which have meager resources, the preference is for educating the male child. Social customs, like early marriage or wearing of a veil, make it difficult for girls to enrol in schools. The

location of a school – how distant it is from home – is another factor restricting girls' participation in education. In some cases parents and the community tend to perceive girls exclusively in their domestic role in the household economy, as potential child bearers and carers, and accordingly devalue female education and prioritize education of boys in the context of scarce resources. In mixed schools girls also need privacy and separate toilets.

With the conditions that prevail in many schools – dilapidated buildings if and when they are there, lack of teaching-learning materials, poorly motivated and inadequately trained teachers, irregular functioning of the school due to teacher absenteeism, lack of hygienic conditions – primary schools, particularly those in disadvantaged communities and locations, fail to attract children, preventing them from progress in the system or attaining desirable levels of achievement. Lack of adequate teacher preparation and motivation adversely affect particularly the first grade children, since for them school, means a transition from the informal environment of the home to the formal structure of an institution. The smoothness of this transition depends largely on the first grade teachers.

Children with special needs (such as the disabled) form a category whose educational needs have so far not been sufficiently addressed. Although they are estimated to constitute around 10 per cent of any given age cohort, children with special educational needs have not shared equitably in the global expansion of educational opportunities over the last two decades. For meeting their educational needs, one has to consider the approach to be adopted – their integration in the normal school setting, where this is possible, with provision of some additional facilities or (as is the case now) the establishment of special institutions for their education.

There are other marginalized groups who need specially tailored educational programmes. Included in this category are: tribal populations with distinct cultures and traditions, often inhabiting hilly tracts with inadequate means of transport; ethnic and linguistic minorities; and socially disadvantaged (such as the scheduled castes of India). The allocation of resources for their education has to be much larger than for the majority of children. For instance, the norms for the establishment of schools in hilly tracts have to be modified since topographical conditions will not allow children to walk long distances. Teaching materials have to be related to local culture. Special allowances might have to be paid to attract teachers to work in difficult conditions. Special effort is required to promote the child's competency in the language used in school which might be different from the language that he/she uses in home and the community."

These and other factors differ in both range and intensity according to any country's status in regard to achieving UPE. APPEAL therefore views its priorities as follows:[12]

> *"It would seem that countries where enrolment ratios are high will have to consider bringing within the fold of primary education those disadvantaged segments which are still outside its reach, make preschool education widely accessible, reduce drop out rates, consider the extension of years of compulsory schooling and generally improve the quality of schooling.*
>
> *In countries which are at the threshold of reaching universal enrolment, effort will have to be directed to make schools available in unserved areas, increase the participation of the disadvantaged and girls, reduce repetition and drop-out rates, expand pre-primary education by promoting voluntary effort and improve the quality of primary education.*
>
> *In countries with low participation rates, special programmes will be needed to provide schools for the disadvantaged and girls, promote their participation through selective use of incentives, appoint women teachers where girls find it difficult to enrol in mixed schools, provide alternative delivery systems for non-enrolled and those who have dropped out and improve the quality of education."*

E. Examples of specific activities

In the area of UPE, APPEAL, working closely with APEID, has sponsored numerous regional and sub-regional workshops and meetings of experts, conducted seminars, produced a series of reports and monographs, and sponsored and fostered initiatives at national level. Some of these activities in four priority areas are described below.

a) Improving female access to primary education

Some of the reasons for the gender gap in primary school enrolment (Chapter Two, Table 2.2) were discussed above in Section D. A survey in South Asia conducted by APPEAL in 1988 confirmed these factors and highlighted others. In particular, the survey showed that the following factors were operative:

i. In many of the countries with records of low female attendance, most of the primary school teachers are men. For cultural reasons many families consider that men should not teach girls, especially those 10 to 12 years of age.

ii. Parents often take the view that since girls will marry and leave home, they are not their life-long responsibility and so feel little obligation to make financial sacrifices to send them to school.

iii. Girls provide help in the home and in particular share domestic duties with the mother who is therefore reluctant to lose this support during school hours.

iv. In Moslem and Hindu societies the prevalent custom of early marriage includes preparing girls for marriage; parents see schooling as opposed to this custom.

In November 1985, just before the formal establishment of APPEAL, APEID sponsored an important sub-regional review meeting on Education for Girls in Asia and the Pacific. It was attended by participants from Afghanistan, Bhutan, China, India, Nepal, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea and

Thailand. The report of the meeting was published in 1986.[13] The report indicated the action being taken in some countries and made some useful suggestions about what needed to be done. Seven areas of concern were examined: (i) access and equity, (ii) social attitudes, (iii) participation and retention, (iv) quality of curriculum relevance, (v) teacher recruitment, training and retention, (vi) management, monitoring and evaluation, and (vii) resources. Selected findings in three of these areas, namely access and equity, social attitudes and participation, are summarized in Tables 3.2 to 3.4.

In 1991, APPEAL, working closely with APEID, took a further initiative in this area. A planning meeting on the promotion of primary education for girls and disadvantaged groups was organized in August of that year in Chiang Mai, Thailand. It was agreed that country-specific pilot projects of a few years duration would be launched in 1992 in China, India and Nepal. These projects have been implemented and have had considerable success.[14]

Table 3.2 Trends in access and equity for primary school girls

1. Access and equity

Current situation	What is being done	What needs to be done
Limited physical access due to inadequate provision of schools, difficult terrain and distance to school from home.	Opening of new schools. School mapping.	Improving accuracy of data collection. Macro- and micro-level planning to ascertain needs of girls. Increasing efficiency in the planning and location of schools. Complementary approaches, e.g., non-formal education, part-time schools, feeder schools, indigenous institutions, distance education, mobile teachers.
Lack of basic facilities and security in and outside school.	Efforts towards providing basic facilities such as buildings, furniture, instructional materials, drinking water, latrines, school compound, etc.	Increasing and improving school facilities. More community involvement and contribution to improve school facilities. Providing escorts to groups of children. Providing safe school compound.
Urban/rural, ethnic, regional imbalances.	More schools being opened in rural areas to overcome rural/urban and regional imbalance. Special programmes launched and/or incentive schemes utilized to increase educational participation of under-privileged ethnic groups.	Increasing provision in rural and disadvantaged areas. Instituting a scheme of better equipped schools; helping disadvantaged schools.
Lack of flexibility in school schedules and consequent absenteeism and dropping out.	Efforts to synchronize school vacations and harvest seasons in some countries.	Flexibility in entry age, multiple shifts, adjustment of the school schedule to meet such community needs as agricultural cycles, religious festivals.

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Activities in China involved work in disadvantaged areas in Gansu, Ningxia and Qinghai Provinces focusing on upgrading the quality of primary schools and on introducing non-formal equivalency programmes for adults. In Nepal, the project supported national non-formal primary education programmes under what is termed the "Lead Centre Approach" in three project sites – Gokarna, Siraha and Kailali. In India, activities were implemented in remote areas of Haryana State, organized by the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT), with the focus on enhancing access of girls to primary school. In early 1994, Viet Nam launched a similar project for girls in minority groups.

Table 3.3 Trends in social attitudes affecting the enrolment of girls in primary schools

2. Social attitudes

Current situation	What is being done	What needs to be done
Negative community and parental attitudes to the education of girls as a result of fear of erosion of religious/cultural values and parental authority. Lack of awareness of the value of education; disillusionment with the immediate benefits of education. Low status assigned to women and consequent low levels of aspirations for girls.	Organization of adult education programmes. Use of the media to create more positive attitudes. Creation of special machinery such as Women's Education Units. Mass community campaigns in one country. Provision of leadership training programmes for women by NGOs.	Intensification of activities already initiated. Consciousness raising: mobilization of community on a large scale to encourage participation and support and to create awareness of the benefits of education. Use of communication network to raise awareness at all levels: leaders, policy makers, administrators, educators, women and girls. Preparation of media materials such as ratio programmes, pictorial booklets, posters, audio cassettes, TV programmes, plays, puppetry, literature. Use of change agents at grass roots level, particularly women, and creation of women's groups. Establishment and strengthening of nutrition and agricultural programmes to create positive attitudes towards change. Motivation of NGOs to offer programmes for out-of-school girls of school age. Promotion of better co-operation between NGOs and NGOs, NGOs and governmental agencies.

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Table 3.4 Trends in girls' primary school participation and retention

3 . Participation and retention

Current situation	What is being done	What needs to be done
Low participation and retention rate.	Free education, reduced tuition fees for larger families.	Free education and other incentives
	Free textbooks, uniforms and mid-day meals.	
	Use of attendance officers in one country.	Compulsory education where facilities are available.
	Remedial instruction for slow learners.	Improving the quality of the learning environment and training of teachers.
	Non-detention policy (repetition) to counter adverse effects of examinations on retention rates.	'Non-detention' policy supported by remedial instruction programme.
Gender and socio-economic disparities in enrolment and retention.	Special attendance scholarships for girls.	Disseminating information regarding special incentives.
		Increasing secondary school facilities and other educational opportunities for girls.
	Incentive awards for schools increasing participation.	
	Part-time primary education, feeder schools, separate schools for girls, boarding schools in remote areas	Multiple entry system to schools and linkages between formal and non-formal education.
	Provision of more female teachers in remote areas; preference given to the appointment of local people as teachers.	Reduction of frequent transfer of female teachers.
		Evaluation of the appropriateness and effectiveness of school programmes for girls.
		Promoting pre-school centres to reduce dropping out.
		Encouraging community members and especially women's groups to monitor attendance of girls.

The main achievements of the projects included:[15]

i. Development of an appropriate curriculum framework and learning materials for non-formal primary education in both China and Nepal.

ii. Development, publication and effective use of handbooks for teacher trainers who are training non-formal primary teachers in China and Nepal and the development of handbooks for teacher trainers promoting education of girls in India.

iii. Development and use of materials for advocacy campaigns in China and India to support and promote the education of girls and of children in disadvantaged communities.

b) Improving the quality of primary education

Non-achievement, early drop-out and high repetition rates are all too frequently the result of qualitative deficiencies. If the quality of educational inputs can be improved, especially by improving teaching methods, producing better learning materials and gaining community support, then it is more likely that UPE can be achieved. Because of this concern UNESCO PROAP organized a series of expert and consultative meetings between 1983 and 1985 to identify key factors affecting quality.[16] The following factors were identified as being critical in raising achievement levels of primary school children:

i) *Effective preparation of young children for primary education.* Early childhood education has been found to be very important for the promotion of UPE. There are several reasons for this. First, it promotes motivation for schooling. Second, it develops some of the basic skills necessary for formal schooling. Third, it frees girls from domestic chores involving looking after younger children while the parents are at work and increases their opportunity to attend school.

ii) *Improved competencies of teachers.* The roles of teachers and their required competencies must be broadened to focus on ensuring higher enrolment, reduced drop-out rates and higher levels of achievement. This means that teachers should be able to identify the problems of out-of-school groups, become involved in community education and undertake intensive work with potential drop-outs.

iii) *Effective involvement of parents and the community.* In particular, parents need to know how to help their children learn and how to give them support and encouragement. In more general terms the community can also help in mobilizing resources, in motivating parents to send children to school and in assisting the prevention of teacher absenteeism.

iv) *Improved curricula, methods of teaching and learning materials.* The curriculum should be relevant to the needs of diverse groups, particularly the disadvantaged. Teaching methods should give less stress to theory and more to practical activity. Materials should be diverse and encourage active participation and not just rote learning. Textbooks need to be supported by supplementary resources. Monitoring and evaluation should be continuous, with special attention given to monitoring the progress of children at risk to ensure that they do not drop out of school.

v) ***Improving the learning environment.*** Educational administration and supervision should be positive, supportive and conducive to achievement. The physical environment of the school should be comfortable and appropriate. For example, there should be a fence around the school to demarcate its boundaries and limit movement. Clean water and toilet facilities should be available. The classroom should be comfortable, secure and suitably equipped and furnished. A midday meal should be provided.

With these factors in mind, the Asia Pacific Centre of Educational Innovation for Development (ACEID) prepared in 1985 a framework for a Joint Innovative Project (JIP) on Raising the Achievement Level of Children in Primary Education. The participating countries included China, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Nepal, Philippines, Republic of Korea and Sri Lanka. Programmes were implemented in each of these countries. Activities in China were especially successful and are briefly described below.[17]

In China, the Joint Innovative Project was first started in 100 rural schools in Gansu, a remote province in the northwest. In 1986 it was expanded to five other provinces – Guizhou, Hebei, Henan, Qinghai and Yunnan. Gansu was chosen at the outset because of its unfavourable natural environment and relatively slow rate of socio-economic development. The situation in primary schools in Gansu at the start of the project was as follows:

i.   The drop-out rate was 4.8 per cent.

ii. Completion rates were low. From 1983 to 1988 the cohort completion rate was as low as 49 per cent.

iii. Repetition rates were high – at grade one it was 37.7 per cent.

iv. Although 91.4 per cent of school-aged children entered school in 1986, only 77.2 per cent of those 12-15 years of age completed primary education by the end of 1989. In other words, nearly one quarter of the pupils of Gansu failed to meet quality requirements within the minimum time period.

The JIP therefore aimed at raising levels of achievement, increasing opportunities to attend school, ensuring completion and reducing educational wastage.

The project involved action in the following areas:

i.   Preparing children for primary education;

ii. Training teachers and other educational personnel including administrators and parents;

iii. Promoting more effective instructional methods and materials; and

iv. Mobilizing parents and the community.

Actions taken in each of these areas are briefly summarized in the following table (Table 3.5).

Table 3.5.   Summary of activities in four areas under the Joint Innovative Project for primary schools, Gansu Province, China, 1986-1993

Area I :	Preparing children for Primary Education
	1 Three methods were used to expand preschool education: - Available kindergartens for 4-6-year-olds were upgraded. - One year of preschool education was introduced in schools in locations lacking kindergartens. - Short-term training programmes were provided for children in poor communities immediately before and after the beginning of each school year. 2. Short-term training was provided for pre-school teachers, appropriately qualifying nearly 73 per cent of them. 3. Relevant preschool materials, different in content and mode from those used in primary schools, were developed. 4. Many prefectures mobilized local communities to support preschool education.
Area II :	**Training teachers and other personnel**
	1. Open instruction was provided by using the JIP classrooms for observation of methods. Teachers from other schools and parents attended "open days". 2. Three levels of teachers' competencies were defined and training provided to move teachers from level to level. Progress was monitored and achievement evaluated. 3. With the assistance of UNESCO PROAP a mobile training team visited Australia and Thailand to study innovative practice. 4. Training workshops and seminars were organized, focusing on collaborative problem solving involving teachers from all 100 schools in the project. 5. Teachers were encouraged to undertake a variety of in-service training activities such as correspondence courses, in-service tutorials via radio and TV and self-learning activities. By such means more than 6,000 teachers (expressed in person times) improved their professional skills (1986-1993).
Area III :	**Development of materials**
	The following materials were produced and distributed during 1987-1993. In addition, several video training programmes and all papers and reports of project activities were distributed to all project schools: 1. APEID JIP: theory and practice in Asia. 2. JIP in Gansu: working proceedings and background data.

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3. Handbook on family education for primary schools.

4. Training handbook for preschool teachers.

5. Serial lectures on preschool preparation.

6. Handbook on teaching Chinese language.

7. Handbook on teaching mathematics.

8. Papers presented at the National Workshop on Raising the Achievement Level of Children, Dunhuang, May 1988.

9. Summary report and documentation of the Regional Workshop on Quality of Educational Opportunity for Disadvantaged Population Groups, Beijing – Lanzhou, October 1988.

10. Resource book on co-operation between family and school education.

11. A textbook for parental schools.

12. Innovations and exploration in primary education.

13. Strategies and methods for improving primary education: a JIP training handbook.

14. Outcomes and impact of innovation in primary education.

15. Progress and outcomes of APEID Joint Innovative Project in Gansu, China.

16. Instructional handbook on teaching Chinese at lower grades.

17. Instructional handbook on teaching mathematics at lower grades.

18. Handbooks on training headmasters, teachers and parents for enhancing the learning achievement of children in disadvantaged areas.

19. JIP in China: a quarterly journal on innovative studies and practice in primary education (nine issues).

Area IV :	Mobilizing parents and the community

1. Public awareness campaigns were organized involving lectures, meetings of parents and radio and TV programmes.

2. Leaders in educational administration were encouraged to become involved in the work of project schools.

3. The State Education Commission issued policy statements on the running of project schools, which made it easier to mobilize local support.

4. Parental schools were established to teach parents about what their children are learning at school, as well as principles of child development and methods of educating children within the family.

5. Parental committees were formed to support the project schools.

6. School boards consisting of village representatives and religious leaders supervised school operations, helped find solutions to problems and advised parents.

7. Religious and ethnic leaders were encouraged to support education and to take an interest in project schools.

8. Various functions were organized for parents to consolidate their relationships with project schools.

9. Local communities were mobilized to help in improving the school environment. For example, in one prefecture the 47 project schools received construction materials and labour from the community equivalent to RMB 381,000 Yuan over a period of three years.

In addition to the activities listed in Table 3.5, a system of exchange and co-operation was established between the 100 project schools. Implementation was also sustained with regular monitoring and evaluation.

The project was highly successful, leading to a number of outcomes:

1. Achievement levels in project schools were significantly upgraded. The retention rate increased from 77.9 per cent in 1986 to 99.0 per cent in 1992 and the repetition rate dropped from 6.4 per cent to 2.0 per cent in the same period. The drop-out rate fell from 0.9 per cent in 1986 to 0.3 per cent in 1992, compared with a fall from 3.7 per cent to 3.0 per cent over the same period in non-project schools.

2. Preschool preparation was greatly strengthened with the number of new entrants having preschool training increasing from 56.9 per cent in 1986 to 97.2 per cent in 1992.

3. Teachers showed increased willingness to take part in educational innovation. Teacher-centred approaches were gradually replaced by more participatory and interactive teaching styles.

4. The project successfully mobilized teachers, parents and other community members in the promotion of primary education. Education became a shared responsibility of the whole community.

5. The success of the project has ensured its replication and similar projects are now well under way in five other provinces, with positive outcomes already evident.

6. Important positive lessons were learnt for the management of similar educational development projects.

c) Enhancing multi-grade teaching

One reason why some countries have not yet achieved UPE is that for financial and also for logistical reasons they have been unable to establish effective primary schools in some remote and thinly populated areas. It has not been considered feasible to establish a large number of schools with low enrolments and large numbers of pupils below the generally accepted norm of teacher-pupil ratios. A partial response to this problem is to establish schools that use multi-grade teaching by joining

together several grades. In this way, normal or slightly larger than normal sized classes can be formed. In practice, this means that class groupings can occur in a school with only two or three teachers. Multi-grade teaching can also be utilized under certain circumstances in larger educational establishments, in ungraded early childhood preschools and in special situations where multi-grade aggregations confer certain educational advantages. It is important to stress, however, that multi-grade teaching is not an answer to meeting teacher shortages, but is a useful strategy to improve the quality of education in remote rural areas.

APEID has recognized the importance of multi-grade teaching and has organized several expert group meetings, produced a range of publications on the topic and has facilitated innovative projects in many Member States. An early initiative, for example, occurred in 1980 when a study group met in Jakarta with participants from India, Indonesia, Maldives, Nepal, Philippines, Republic of Korea, Sri Lanka and Thailand. A useful report establishing basic principles was issued.[18]

In 1988 APEID produced a methodological guide on multi-grade teaching for single teacher primary schools with inputs from four collaborating countries, Japan, Malaysia, India and Nepal.[19] This resource has been widely used in the region for training teachers to work in multi-grade situations. A workshop was held in Jakarta that year in co-operation with the Office of Education and Cultural Research (Balitabang Dikbud), Ministry of Education and Culture. The report of that workshop provides useful practical suggestions for establishing and managing multi-grade schools.[20] It has also been widely used in the region.

The APEID methodological guide sets out the following situations where multi-grade schools might be required to promote UPE:[21]

♦ **Geographical:** Difficult terrain, lack of easy means of transportation, straggling settlement areas, small islands, fishing and forestry areas.

♦ **Demographic:** Few children living in thinly populated pockets, and small educationally backward communities.

♦ **Teacher Shortage:** Inadequate numbers of teachers for various reasons such as scarcity of funds, teacher unwillingness to work in remote rural areas and general shortages of trained and competent teachers.

♦ **Absence of Teachers:** Schools with unfilled vacancies.

♦ **Shortage of Classrooms** to accommodate all the available classes.

♦ **Migration and Displacement:** Displaced people, nomadic tribes, and temporary migrants.

♦ **Disadvantaged People:** For education of people, especially girls, who cannot be brought to the formal schools.

Multi-grade teaching is in no way a "second best" form of primary education. In fact, the APEID guide points out that it has several educational advantages.[22]

♦ The same teacher teaching the same group of children each year will know each child as an individual and will thus be able to give the right kind of help and guidance.

♦ Senior pupils can help junior ones in learning, which also helps the former to reinforce what they have learnt.

♦ Pupils are assessed on the basis of the teacher's judgment more than on the basis of one short examination.

♦ There is greater chance for mutual understanding and co-operation among children of various ages and grades while staying together in the same classroom and participating in various activities.

♦ Each child gets a chance to learn at his or her own pace.

♦ It is less expensive than single grade or subject teaching.

Multi-grade teaching requires experienced well-trained teachers because of the diversity of pupils and their different levels of achievement. The background of pupils who enrol in multi-grade schools is also quite different from those attending normal schools and teachers would have to be trained to understand and respond to these differences. In general, the children studying in multi-grade schools have the following type of background.[23]

♦ **Living in rural, isolated areas:** Many of the children live in remote areas, on distant islands or in new settlement areas. Most of them have little or no exposure to the mass media and their experience is limited.

♦ **Economically poor:** Most children come from comparatively poor families. In some places, especially in India and Nepal, electricity, piped water, medical services and other facilities are lacking. Parents in general cannot afford to pay even small expenses required for their children's schooling.

♦ **Higher rate of diseases and malnutrition:** Lack of awareness and of means results in poor living conditions and neglect of the rules of hygiene and sanitation. The incidence of diseases is high, especially among younger children who generally suffer from malnutrition.

♦ **Need to work at home:** Children are often required to work at home. They take care of their younger siblings or take animals out to graze or help their parents during the busy agricultural seasons. In some places, parents tell their children to carry their baby brothers and sisters to school to save themselves from the need to look after the young ones.

♦ **Lack of parental support:** Because of ignorance and illiteracy in general, parents cannot give necessary support for their children's education.

♦ **Discriminatory treatment:** In a number of rural societies, girls and women are discriminated against. People belonging to disadvantaged communities, hill tribes, and scheduled castes are often not treated on an equitable basis by the other privileged classes in the society.

♦ **Superstitions and stereotypes:** Most rural people in remote areas are victims of superstitions and have their own biases and prejudices.

It is this very context which makes the multi-grade approach so important. It enables schools to extend themselves to those pockets of resistance which remain in certain countries and which would otherwise be barriers to the achievement of UPE. By promoting the development of multi-grade

teaching in countries such as India, Nepal and Pakistan, APPEAL is contributing greatly to achievement of UPE in those countries.

In order to ensure that projects to enhance multi-grade teaching are implemented at the national level, APEID launched a Joint Innovative Project (JIP) in July 1990. This was inaugurated at a workshop held in Perth, Western Australia.[24] Eight countries participated and projects were designed and implemented in each. Projects were of two to three years duration. The scope of each national project is briefly outlined below:

♦ **Australia:** Completion of a research study on the effect of multi-grade teaching on achievement and progression through the school system and the preparation of teacher training materials for multi-grade situations.

♦ **India:** Preparing a source book for teacher trainers on aspects of multi-grade teaching and the organization of a sub-regional training workshop for teachers and educators on multi-grade teaching.

♦ **Indonesia:** Developing a "visiting teacher" model for very remote regions where it is not even possible to establish a small multi-grade school.

♦ **Japan:** Developing teaching materials on basic education, health and environment for use in rural primary schools in Japan and other countries.

♦ **Malaysia:** Strengthening multi-grade teaching staff, initially in Sabah and then in other states, with special reference to inspectors and supervisors.

♦ **Nepal:** Strengthening training of teachers for multi-grade situations, including the production of appropriate training materials with special emphasis on self-instructional modules.

♦ **Pakistan:** Designing and implementing national master trainers' workshops on multi-grade teaching.

♦ **Philippines:** Organizing in-depth national workshops for teacher trainers on multi-grade teaching, including writing workshops for the preparation of multi-level curriculum materials.

d) Improving micro-planning

One of the factors inhibiting achievement of UPE in some countries has been the inadequate use of micro-level planning. In particular, some countries have allowed schools to be established by local groups without reference to local requirements and national coverage. APPEAL, therefore, is anxious to strengthen micro-level planning capacity and capabilities in these countries in the following areas:

♦ Upgrading of school mapping techniques so as to ensure that appropriate and effective schools are located throughout the country where they are needed.

♦ Promoting cluster schools to encourage networking between schools and to ensure that schools with good standards and suitable resources can assist less well-developed schools.

♦ Promoting the establishment of district resource centres to help schools prepare learning materials and to offer in-service training to teachers.

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The UNESCO PROAP's Division of Planning and Management has now (1994) joined forces with APPEAL to foster development in this area. In 1990 UNESCO PROAP produced the *Handbook on Micro-level Planning and Management*. It remains an important input for APPEAL activities in this area.[25] The discussion below is based on the handbook.

1. Promoting cluster schools

The cluster school approach has been successfully implemented in several countries. APPEAL aims at further strengthening it and to facilitate its extension to other countries of the region. The basic idea of the cluster approach is to form a conglomerate of schools and to treat it as a unitary system for selected services. Members of a cluster can pool resources and benefit from each other's strengths.

School cluster approaches have been particularly successful in Thailand, Bangladesh, India, Sri Lanka and the Philippines, and some aspects of each of these systems are briefly described.[26]

♦ **Thailand**. The school cluster movement has been operational for more than 20 years. Each cluster consists of from five to ten primary schools. Within a few years of initiating the programme, almost all primary schools in Thailand had constituted themselves into school clusters. Each cluster is co-ordinated by a committee consisting of the school principals or directors. The aim is to share resources and promote co-operation. In 1978 the introduction of a new primary syllabus gave further impetus to the movement as the Department of Curriculum and Instructional Development made informal use of the cluster system to help introduce the new curriculum. Schools with well qualified staff and good facilities were designated as "lead" schools and were expected to provide academic support and supervisory assistance to other schools in the cluster. In some Provincial Primary Education Offices, technical centres with appropriate audio-visual resources were established to give further support to school clusters.

♦ **Bangladesh**. Clusters of about 10-12 primary schools are used for training primary school teachers. One lead school in each cluster is a resource school for others and is equipped with audio-visual resources and other teaching aids. An officer entitled Assistant Upazilla (Sub-district) Education Officer (AUEO) supervises two clusters and organizes training in small groups. Training is further supported by the provision of simple self-instructional "Teachers' Leaflets".

♦ **India**. In India the term "school complex" is preferred. Each complex generally covers an area of five to ten miles in radius and contains one secondary school, five higher primary schools and eight to ten lower primary schools. The aim is to share resources and organize co-operative activities. The principals of the primary schools form a school complex management committee under the chair of the principal of the secondary school.

♦ **Sri Lanka**. In Sri Lanka the term "school zone" is used. These were set up on a pilot scale in 1983. A cluster of a small number of secondary schools, together with nearby primary schools, is formed. The best staffed and equipped secondary school is identified as the "core school" in each cluster. The principal of the core school co-ordinates the work of each cluster. Clusters are then aggregated into "zones" of about ten schools

located reasonably close to each other. The zonal schools, however, arrange meetings of school principals for organizing and sharing human and material resources.

♦ **Philippines**. The Philippines has introduced an interesting variant of the school cluster approach. What are termed Learning Action Cells (LACs) have been introduced at four levels – regional, divisional, district and school levels. Each District Learning Action Cell (DLAC) comprises all the school principals of the district, led by the District Supervisor of Schools. School level LACs (SLACs) may be single schools or a cluster of schools. In the latter case one principal is elected as the leader of the team. The main responsibility of each SLAC is to arrange for the continuous professional development of teachers and to mobilize human and material resources for this purpose. This activity is supported by the higher levels of the LACs.

2.   Promoting formation of district resource centres

School clusters are one way of maximizing the use of existing resources. Another approach, which is now fairly common throughout the region, is to establish networks of district and provincial level educational resource centres. Resource centres are usually established by Governments supported by local communities. Their purpose is to support all schools in their neighbourhood by: (i) helping them produce educational materials; (ii) providing advisory and information services including professional libraries; (iii) providing in-service training for teachers; (iv) lending specialized items such as audio-visual equipment and software; and (v) fostering exchanges and other co-operative activities among schools served by each centre.

Resource centres operate most effectively if they develop in association with school clusters and as part of a network of learning centres. For example, the school cluster system in Thailand has established technical resource centres in Provincial Primary Education Offices which assist schools by lending audio-visual materials and by helping teachers produce non-print resources.

In some countries specialized resource centres have been established to provide back-up facilities to primary schools. In Japan there is a network of Science Education Centres. Australia has networks of Teachers' Centres which are concerned mainly with professional development. Some countries have Environmental Studies Centres. In Papua New Guinea, for example, there is a network of teachers' centres which support a programme of school-based staff development. The centres also provide some facilities for teachers from less well-equipped primary schools to make simple materials such as charts, models, displays, tests and other resources.

Resource centres should be staffed by appropriately trained personnel, preferably those experienced in in-service teacher development and with some skills in educational technology. They should have outreach programmes which could include provision of mobile resource vans which visit schools for repair and maintenance of school equipment, training teachers and for giving specialized lessons using equipment not usually available in the schools.

Resource centres need the support of the local community. They should seek donations of materials such as books, magazines, equipment, furnishings and so on. They should also seek support from local people who could help in training and in the development of materials.

APPEAL is promoting the development of resource centres mainly through its activities in the area of continuing education. In its CED programme the development of "learning centres" is promoted as community centres for life-long learning. Networks of learning centres need to include district and provincial level resource centres which serve all the educational institutions in the district or province. APPEAL's work in this area is discussed more fully in Chapter Five.

F. Facilitating national responses

This chapter has reviewed some of the policies and activities of APPEAL for the promotion of UPE. The approach that has been particularly successful has focused on projects and programmes organized through a multilevel system. Regional policy meetings, meetings of experts and regional workshops have established policy frameworks. Many of these in turn have then been assessed and evaluated through sub-regional activities, usually through consideration by expert groups. Various strategies have then ensured implementation at national level.

One of the strategies for fostering UPE projects at national level has been to invite participants attending regional and sub-regional meetings to develop action plans for their countries. Many of these then form the basis for country-wide initiatives, frequently supported by APPEAL or other agencies of UNESCO.

A second approach which has been particularly successful has been to promote Joint Innovative Projects (JIPs) for UPE under ACEID. These are frequently implemented through APEID Associated Centres in each country. There is a network of some 200 such centres in the region. Joint Innovative Projects are frequently initiated and supervised by these centres.

A third way that national-level projects for UPE have been promoted is through the work of the various National Commissions for UNESCO. These use the regional-level policies and frameworks developed under APPEAL for designing and implementing national projects.

This multilevel approach has ensured the effectiveness of APPEAL in promoting UPE at national levels. This is probably one characteristic which sets it apart from earlier initiatives such as the Karachi Plan (see Section A of this chapter) which operated mainly at the regional level without establishing its own direct mechanism to ensure a national-level response.

In this way APPEAL has been able to support and accelerate the movement towards UPE. Similar models have been applied in other areas of concern to APPEAL, namely the eradication of illiteracy (EOI) and the promotion of continuing education for development (CED). These programmes are discussed in Chapters Four and Five.

G. Remaining problems and issues

While most countries of Asia and the Pacific have attained UPE, there still remain some which have not. Further, the mere provision of school buildings and places in the classroom is not sufficient to ensure effective education. Some problems remain to be resolved. Among them are the following:

♦ In countries which have not yet attained UPE, there is a need to identify locations and communities which do not have sufficient primary school places. These are usually in remote areas with special transportation problems or in particular communities such as those in extreme poverty, those with a migratory or nomadic way of life, and refugee communities. Alternative systems, such as distance education, nomadic schools and multi-grade teaching need to be explored to meet this need.

♦ In many countries – including those which have and have not attained UPE – quantitative expansion has sometimes° occurred at the expense of quality. Teacher training has not always been as effective as one would like and standards of classroom teaching need to be improved. Frequently, curricula are inappropriate and need to be made more relevant. Textbooks and other resources are frequently in short supply. What is needed here is a major effort to improve the quality of programmes, to produce adequate numbers of better quality learning materials and to establish an effective system of staff development – both pre-service and in-service.

♦ In many countries of the region preschool education remains under-developed. Effective preschool education is a major factor in improving the drawing power of schools and in ensuring satisfactory levels of achievement in the later years of schooling. There is a need, therefore, to explore ways of expanding preschool education, perhaps with close co-operation between governments and NGOs.

♦ In most Member States, the formal educational system at all levels remains fairly traditional in regard to issues such as progression from grade to grade, testing, accreditation, age of entry and so on. EFA would be greatly facilitated if these aspects were more flexible. Various alternatives, such as provision of places for people of widely varying ages and abilities, accelerated progression for high achievers, alternative modes of delivery, cross accreditation and credit for life experience, should be explored to open up the system.

♦ In countries with well-developed systems of non-formal education catering to those who have dropped out and those who fail to attend formal schools, there is a need to strengthen the relationship between the formal and non-formal sectors. In particular, transfer and cross accreditation need to be made as flexible as possible so that learners can move from system to system without penalty and to their maximum advantage.

♦ In all countries of the region schooling and especially primary schooling tends to be seen only as a phase of life and not as a component of lifelong education. Educational administrators, especially educational planners, need to take a broader view. Primary schooling, whether in a formal school or through a non-formal alternative, should be seen as the preparation for continuous learning throughout life. Relationships with higher levels of formal learning, with adult literacy programmes and with the opportunities for lifelong learning provided by continuing education, need to be understood and strengthened. Education needs to be viewed holistically so that it is readily available to all people at all stages of life.

♦ All societies have minority groups in need of special attention. These may include women and people in rural areas, the physically and emotionally handicapped, people with special learning difficulties, minority groups who cannot speak the national language, or refugees. Primary schooling, and indeed all levels of education, must be sufficiently flexible to meet the needs of such groups. This flexibility may include the development of specialized alternative curricula, a different range of learning resources, alternative methods of teaching and delivery, and innovative approaches to assessment and grading. While many Member States are exploring such approaches, there remains a need to be more responsive in this area so as to achieve genuine and meaningful education for all.

♦ Countries which have yet to attain universal secondary education need to clarify policy in this area and to develop action plans to achieve this goal. Primary schooling alone is not sufficient to meet the demands of societies developing as industrialized economies. In fact, the expenditure necessary to achieve UPE is largely wasted if there are no opportunities for people to continue their education after grades five or six.

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Chapter Four

APPEAL AND THE ERADICATION OF ILLITERACY (EOI)

A. Background

The overall patterns of adult literacy and illiteracy in Asia and the Pacific were outlined in Section D of Chapter One. It was pointed out that while the overall literacy rate in the region improved from 55.4 per cent in 1980 to 65.2 per cent in 1990, the number of illiterates increased from 685 million to 695 million due to an overall increase in population size. Countries with considerable populations of adult illiterates include Iran (46 per cent), Lao PDR (46 per cent), Papua New Guinea (48 per cent), Afghanistan (70.6 per cent), Bangladesh (64.7 per cent), Bhutan (61.6 per cent), India (51.8 per cent), Cambodia (64.8 per cent), Pakistan (65.2 per cent) and Nepal (74.4 per cent).

The literacy experts, Gabriel Carron and Sheldon Shaeffer, writing in the July - September 1990 issue of UNESCO's *IIEP Newsletter* (UNESCO: International Institute for Educational Planning), speculated on why the crisis in adult illiteracy still persists after decades of many literacy campaigns and innumerable locally targeted specific programmes.[1] They feel that "Illiteracy persists partly because the programmes designed to combat it have not been responsive to the real issues of survival and development faced by illiterate populations. They have not invited genuine involvement in the programmes by the target groups. They have often been divorced from local knowledge and indigenous culture, have seldom been considered to be owned by the illiterate populations, and therefore have neither been sustained as programmes nor have achieved sustainable literacy".[2]

Carron and Shaeffer go on to suggest what might be achieved in the 1990s:

"In this decade those countries with adequate resources and efficient infrastructures should be able to make considerable strides in increasing both the absolute number of literates and the literacy rate. For many other countries, however, where adequate funds are not available for schools, let alone adult literacy programmes, and where effective bureaucracies are not in place, achievements can likely not be measured in dollars or in numerical targets of new literates. Success in these countries should rather be measured in the development of mechanisms, processes, and partnerships – within and across government agencies, NGOs, and communities – able to achieve more significant and sustainable progress in the first decade of the next century."[3]

Carron and Shaeffer indicate the following barriers to the eradication of illiteracy:[4]

1. People needing to be literate are usually the last 30 per cent or so of a society to be included in the process of social and economic development. They are usually poor, disadvantaged and powerless and therefore there is no assurance that they will demand literacy. They need opportunities to become literate not so much as individuals but rather as members of families and communities. In particular it is women, unschooled youth and drop-outs who must be specially targeted.

2. Literacy programmes have not been adequately functional. Adults should be placed at the centre of their particular environment and empowered to control it. They must be given the tools to enhance their own development.

3. Delivery systems have been inadequate. There needs to be greater collaboration among governments, NGOs and community associations in the diagnosis of needs and in planning, management, implementation and evaluation of literacy activities. Literacy programmes need to be delivered more informally through interaction within families and communities and in contexts such as health education programmes, child care facilities and agricultural extension activities.

In 1985, UNESCO PROAP undertook a survey throughout the region to identify key factors responsible for the failure of some countries to eradicate adult illiteracy.[5] The findings of the survey are summarized below:

1. While most countries recognized the importance of functionality, the functional messages chosen were not always of direct or immediate relevance to participants. Further integration of functional components with graded development of the technical skills of reading, writing and numerical calculation were often random and unsystematic.

2. In many countries, there was no existing nationally recognized adult literacy curriculum framework that defined standards and competencies and allowed for the development of locally responsive programmes.

3. Most importantly, many countries lacked a nation-wide infrastructure for effective delivery of adult literacy programmes. This condition has led to the development of ad hoc, random, and unsystematic programmes and activities delivered by a multiplicity of unco-ordinated government agencies, NGOs and community associations. The lack of a systematic infrastructure has made it difficult for various providers of literacy programmes to visualize how they could most effectively contribute to the overall national effort by eliminating redundancy to ensure comprehensive coverage.

4. Because of the absence of a recognized literacy curriculum framework, training materials were frequently inappropriate and educationally unsatisfactory. In particular, many had the following weaknesses:

    ♥ Use of language style and context more suitable for children than adults. In some extreme cases formal materials for school grades 1-5 were utilized rather than materials designed especially for adults.

    ♥ Emphasis on rote learning rather than on inquiry, problem solving and critical thinking.

    ♥ Teacher rather than learner-centred approaches with little opportunity for learners to accept responsibility for their own learning.

    ♥ Formal didactic rather than informal participatory approaches to learning.

    ♥ Lack of systematic structure, especially in terms of adequately graded levels of literacy competency. In particular, materials were often produced title-by-title and not according to structured and graded levels.

♥ Absence of an in-built system of self evaluation to enable presenters and learners to assess their own progress according to agreed-upon criteria.

♥ Lack of flexibility in meeting the needs of diverse groups.

5. Many countries had unsystematic, inadequate and inappropriate approaches to the training of literacy personnel. In most instances untrained volunteers were employed with little or no attempt made to provide orientation or training in even the basics of presentation and group management skills. Frequently, no training materials were available.

6. A most serious weakness, especially in countries with low levels of adult literacy, was an inadequate provision for neo-literates to continue to learn to read and write so that they would not regress.

7. Finally, a widespread weakness was the failure of many countries to provide specific programmes for groups with special needs, e.g., rural women, people in remote areas, slum dwellers, refugees and new immigrants, school drop-outs and unemployed youth.

B. Origin, aims and scope of APPEAL training materials for literacy personnel (ATLP)

To help correct the weaknesses described above, APPEAL convened a series of workshops from 1986 to 1988, which brought together literacy training experts from the region to develop an exemplary training system and materials. The overall goal was to produce and promote materials related to the specific needs of various levels of personnel involved in the management and implementation of literacy programmes. At a Technical Workshop for Developing Personnel Training Plans, held in Thailand, 16-25 September 1986, three levels of personnel were identified (Figure 4.1).
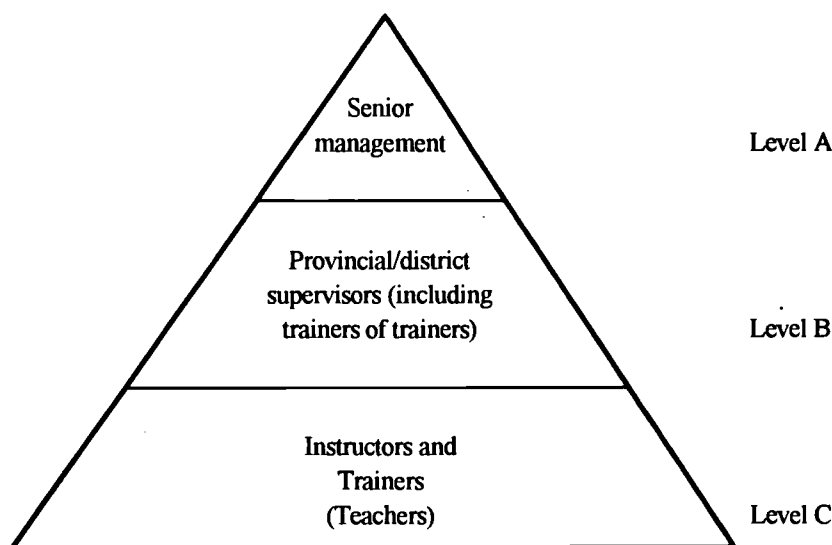
Figure 4.1. ATLP caters to three levels of literacy personnel

The next step was to establish within the Member States a training network to facilitate exchanges of information, documents, experience and expertise, and to strengthen the institutional framework of the literacy personnel and training institutes. This was initiated in 1987 when a co-ordinating committee was established. The committee has subsequently had two important follow-up meetings (in Chiang Rai, 1-7 August 1989, and 25-29 November 1991) to further strengthen the network and to determine priorities.[6]

The substantive work under the project, however, was undertaken through a multiphase Regional Workshop under APPEAL which brought together literacy and instructional design experts from the region to design a training system and develop exemplary materials. Phases I and II of the Workshop were held in September and October 1987 in Bangkok, Thailand and Kathmandu, Nepal. The Nepal meeting was particularly important as it afforded an opportunity to try out the approach advocated in a remote, largely illiterate mountain village community. This in fact was a turning point in the project as it demonstrated that the system could be effective in an extremely difficult and challenging developmental situation. Phase III of the workshop was held in Harbin City, China, in August 1988. This meeting was also highly significant because it not only established the validity of the approach for ideographic languages and diverse cultures but also finalized the overall design of the system and materials. The immediate product of this multiphase workshop was a set of twelve volumes of training materials. The titles and scope of these volumes is indicated in Table 4.1.[7]

Table 4.1: Title and scope of ATLP materials

Volume No.	Title and scope	Level (see Figure 4.1)
1	Principles of curriculum design for literacy training	All
	Discusses how to develop a systematic literacy training curriculum in defined steps or levels and with competency standards at each step. It also deals with integrating functional knowledge with the technical skills of literacy.	
2	Principles of resource design for literacy training	All
	The systems approach to materials design is reviewed and its application for the development of activity-based literacy training materials is described.	
3	Manual for senior administrators of literacy training programmes	A
	Arguments for the eradication of illiteracy are discussed and the approach adopted by ATLP is described and reviewed. Roles of level A, B and C personnel are discussed and a training model is presented.	

Volume No.	Title and scope	Level (see Figure 4.1)
4	Manual for Supervisors – Resource Development and Training Procedures	B
	This is a practical training manual for level B personnel. It gives an overview of the ATLP literacy curriculum and materials design. It also reviews aspects of implementation including how to organize programmes and establish linkages. Monitoring, evaluation, follow-up and assessment aspects are also stressed.	
5	Exemplar Training Manual I – Extra Money for the Family	C
	A practical example of a learner's workbook and teacher's guide developed through a systems approach and involving integrated functional knowledge on income generation and literacy skill.	
6	Exemplar Training Manual II – Our Forests	C
	A second practical example of workbook and guide with functional knowledge and literacy skill dealing with forest conservation.	
7	Exemplar Training Manual III – Village Co-operatives	C
	A further example of training materials, with focus on establishing and managing village co-operatives.	
8	Exemplar Training Manual IV – Health Services	C
	This final example of training materials stresses functional aspects of health.	
9	Specifications for Additional Exemplar Training Manuals	B and C
	Guidelines are provided for the preparation of specifications for developing literacy training manuals. Specifications are given for four additional model manuals. Guidelines are also provided on how to write effective manuals.	

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Volume No.	Title and scope	Level (see Figure 4.1)
10	Post-Literacy Activities and Continuing Education	A and B
	The relationships between basic literacy programmes and continuing education are explored. Importance of providing continuing opportunities to learn beyond basic literacy is stressed.	
11	Evaluating a Literacy Training Programme	A and B
	Principles and procedures for evaluating effectiveness and impact of literacy training programmes are described and reviewed.	
12	Implementing a Literacy Training Programme	All
	An overall model for the implementation of the ATLP approach in Member States is presented and discussed.	

All volumes of ATLP were initially developed in draft formats and were not finalized until tested and validated by using them as training resources in a series of six sub-regional workshops and one regional workshop for training literacy personnel held from 1989 to 1991.[8]

The total number of participants and observers by country attending these seven workshops is given in Table 4.2 below:

The response by Member States to the ATLP, especially those with lower rates of adult literacy, was very positive. In fact, even while the ATLP volumes were in draft form several countries had translated them into their local languages. By 1991 eight Member States had prepared translations – Bangladesh, China, Indonesia, Laos, Pakistan, Thailand, Tonga and Viet Nam.

Table 4.2. Total number of participants and observers from the Member States
who attended Regional/Sub-Regional Workshops for Training of
Literacy and Continuing Education Personnel

Country	Participants			Observers		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1. Afghanistan	6	3	3	–	–	–
2. Bangladesh	14	12	2	6	1	5
3. Bhutan	4	2	2	–	–	–
4. China	14	11	3	9	9	–
5. Fiji	2	1	1	–	–	–
6. India	10	7	3	–	–	–
7. Indonesia	9	4	5	–	–	–
8. Korea DPR	6	5	1	6	6	–
9. Lao PDR	10	9	1	–	–	–
10. Malaysia	9	6	3	–	–	–
11. Maldives	5	4	1	–	–	–
12. Mongolia	4	3	1	–	–	–
13. Myanmar	6	4	2	–	–	–
14. Nepal	17	14	3	–	–	–
15. 5	12	9	3	5	–	5
16. Pakistan	9	7	4	–	–	–
17. Philippines	6	1	5	–	–	–
18. Samoa	3	–	3	–	–	–
19. Sri Lanka	4	2	2	–	–	–
20. Thailand	9	7	2	5	2	3
21. Tonga	3	2	1	–	–	–
22. Viet Nam	7	6	1	–	–	–
23. U.S.S.R	4	3	1	–	–	–
Total	173	122	51	31	18	13

*All observers fully participated during the entire period of each workshop.

C. Components of ATLP

ATLP provides a holistic and systematic scheme for the eradication of adult illiteracy. As a model it is not intended to be applied directly but to be used for planning purposes. It is sufficiently flexible to enable each Member State to use ATLP principles to develop its own system and programmes in response to its own particular needs and circumstances.

The ATLP design offers planning models in each of the following areas:

a) A framework for the design of a national adult functional literacy curriculum.

b) A model of instructional design based on a systems approach which can be applied in the development of effective learning materials.

c) A framework for developing an infrastructure for the effective delivery and implementation of adult literacy programmes.

d) A training curriculum for personnel involved in the design and delivery of adult literacy programmes.

Each of these components is briefly described below:

a) Curriculum framework

After an extensive analysis of current practices the ATLP approach advocates a competency-based curriculum involving 200 hours of instruction leading to a level of literacy competency which would enable adults to continue to learn on their own without the direct intervention of a literacy instructor. Another important feature of the curriculum framework is the integration of reading, writing and numerical competencies with functional knowledge. The curriculum is organized into three competency levels: I. Basic (100 hours), II. Middle Level (67 hours) and III. A Self-Learning Level (33 hours).

A modular approach is advocated. There are 24 modules: twelve for Level I, eight for Level II and four for Level III. Each module involves approximately eight hours of instruction with 60 per cent of the time for introduction of new work and 40 per cent for revision and consolidation of accumulating expertise.

In regard to functional knowledge, UNESCO surveys have indicated that the following areas are covered in almost all literacy programmes of the region:

♦ Family life
♦ Economics and income
♦ Health
♦ Civic consciousness

In each of these areas specific topics vary to some extent from country to country but the coverage is remarkably similar throughout the region.

b) Systems approach to the design of learning materials

One of the weaknesses in the literacy programmes of the region as identified by the PROAP 1985 survey was the lack of a systematic approach to the design of learning materials. In many cases

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the materials were more teacher-centred than learner-centred and failed to encourage active parti-cipation by adult learners.

To overcome these weaknesses ATLP adopted an approach to instructional design for developing literacy training manuals based on a systems approach originally developed by Meyer[9]. In this approach learning sequences are organized as linear chains of input-process-output (IPO) cycles linked together as shown in Figure 4.2.

I = Input
P = Process
O = Output
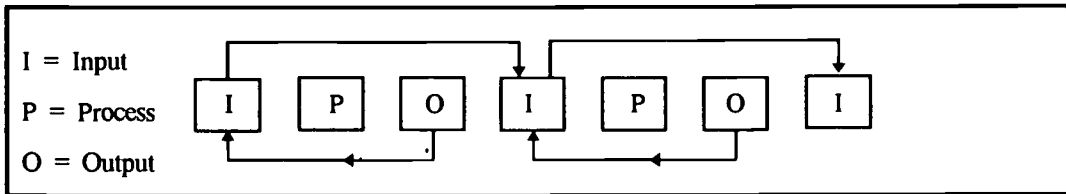
Figure 4.2: A systems approach to the design of learning materials (Meyer, 1979)

In any given manual designed for six to eight hours of active involvement, there may be as many as twelve or more IPO cycles.

Input is the information presented to a learner for consideration or action; it is the objective and/or content of a segment of work. A **process** is some form of interaction between a learner and the content. **Output** means a demonstration of achievement by the production of something tangible; the demonstration of a new skill, construction of an object or written preparation of a report.

A simple example of an IPO cycle would be the following:

1. **Input**: Listening to a five-minute audio recording of a lecture on how to prepare a script;

2. **Process**: Identifying and/or rating certain characteristics of the programme with the aid of a checklist; and

3. **Output**: Outlining a script for an original five-minute audio programme and producing the programme.

As Figure 4.2 implies, the output of one IPO cycle feeds into the next. It also feeds back to the input phase of that cycle, because the output phase is a practical manifestation of the input phase. This means that the input of each IPO cycle is not only the underlying generator of its own cycle, but also of the next cycle.

This simple design for the linear events in a learning sequence has very important advantages.

1. Because the processing and output steps are undertaken by **the learner,** the emphasis is on a learner-oriented rather than a teacher-oriented approach and active participation by the learner is ensured.

2. Each IPO cycle is a stimulus-response dyad, with the input representing the stimulus and the process; and output representing the combined elements of the response.

3. Reinforcement can be built into each part of the response phase, that is, rewards can be provided (e.g., through encouragement or success) during the processing and output phases. This reinforcement enhances learning.

4. Awareness of IPO cycles in designing learning resources ensures that the instructional material is broken into small steps and that all relevant elements are brought together in time and space.

5. Because each IPO cycle includes at least two stages involving overt behaviour (processing and output), it is very easy to provide the learner with feedback following the performance of a task or skill.

6. A variety of learning experiences can be built into the sequence, which will sustain interest and motivation and thus enhance the learning process In any learning sequence, the way information is presented during the input phase, the method used for processing, and the type of output required should vary as much as possible from one IPO cycle to the next. Structuring the learning sequence around IPO cycles, therefore, ensures variety and makes learning easier.

Literacy training manuals were developed by ATLP based on the IPO approach. Each manual consists of a Learner's Workbook and a Teacher's Guide.[10]

The Learner's Workbook is organized step by step in the same sequence as the steps in the Teacher's Guide and all steps are numbered and laid out for easy use by the learner and the teacher. Instructions, response spaces and illustrations are provided using communication methods appropriate for the level of literacy development required for each particular lesson (module).

The teachers' editions of the training manuals have been developed in considerable detail to give step-by-step guidance on the presentation of the lesson materials. The teaching notes for each IPO stage give information on topics, timing, teaching steps, grouping, resources to be used and methods to be followed.

This detail is considered necessary because, for many literacy teachers, it is virtually the only help and guidance they will have. In countries employing many hundreds or thousands of literacy teachers, it is impracticable to ensure that they will all be trained centrally or even attend a short-term training camp. Most will have to rely almost entirely on the help of the notes provided in the Teacher's Guide section of each manual.

Of course, the Learner's Workbook section of each manual must also be produced separately for use by learners. It is much shorter and therefore easier to mass produce because it lacks the extra material needed by the teacher.

Full details of the design and layout of the ATLP literacy training manuals are described in ATLP, Volume 2. Volumes 5, 6, 7 and 8 give examples of specific manuals and Volume 9 has specifications for the development of additional manuals.

c) Infrastructure and procedures for implementing adult literacy programmes

As discussed earlier, ATLP caters for three levels of literacy personnel – Level A, senior management; Level B, provincial/district supervisors including trainers of trainers; and Level C,

literacy instructors (teachers). ATLP, therefore, has developed an implementation model (infrastructure) to link together these levels and to ensure a fully co-ordinated nation-wide approach to the eradication of adult illiteracy. The overall components of the model are shown in Figure 4.3.

```
              APPEAL — INTERNATIONAL
                 LITERACY NETWORK
                        ↕

┌─────────────┐    ┌──────────────────┐    ┌─────────┐
│ CONTINUING  │←───│       EOI        │───→│   UPE   │
│  EDUCATION  │    │     LEVEL A      │    │         │
└─────────────┘    │ MANAGEMENT MANUAL│    └─────────┘
                   │  (POLICY-MAKERS) │
                   └──────────────────┘

   Feed back                      Policy
      on                         Decisions
    Policy
              ┌────────────────────────────────────┐
              │                EOI                 │
              │             LEVEL B                │
              │         TRAINING MANUAL            │
              │ (SUPERSVISORS AND TRAINERS OF      │
              │           TRIANERS)                │
              └────────────────────────────────────┘

   Feedback                      Implementation
      on                          Procedures
  Implementation

┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│   EOI LEVEL C TRAINING GUIDES (Teachers/Trainers)     │
├──┬──┬──┬──┬──┬──┬──┬──┬──┬──┬──┬──┬──┬──┬──┬──┬──┬──┬──┤
│1 │2 │3 │4 │5 │6 │7 │8 │9 │10│11│12│13│14│15│16│17│18│...24│
└──┴──┴──┴──┴──┴──┴──┴──┴──┴──┴──┴──┴──┴──┴──┴──┴──┴──┴──┘
```

Key : EOI = Eradicatation of Illiteracy
UPE = Unversal Primary Education

Figure 4.3. An infrastructure for the implementation of adult literacy programmes

Figure 4.3 suggests how a national literacy training curriculum may be implemented through the development of resources for the three levels of literacy training personnel. It also suggests the importance of establishing strong links between national programmes and the regional literacy network established under APPEAL. The importance of developing such a scheme in relation to continuing education and to the universal primary education movement is also indicated.

In brief, the infrastructure provides for national-level policy making (Level A), provincial-level supervision, training of literacy personnel and materials development (Level B) and local-level delivery using the literacy curriculum and materials described above (Level C).

The ATLP series of 12 volumes therefore presents a model system for training literacy personnel in any country. It represents a systematic approach to training and management based on a carefully planned curriculum and appropriately designed resources.

Implementation of ATLP must vary from country to country. As a model, it should be seen as an initial step in the development of a comprehensive literacy programme. How this step is followed up by any country will depend on needs, policies, resources and limitations. For example, factors such as the initial level of literacy in the country, the number of languages spoken, demographic factors, the budget available and the political will to bring about change will determine how the programme is implemented.

An especially important factor is the availability of relevant personnel. The success of any literacy programme depends on the availability of people at the top, middle and lower levels of management who are willing and able to make the programme work. Training, not only for those who are illiterate but for those involved in setting up all aspects of a literacy programme, becomes the key to success. One strength of ATLP is that it provides a clear example of how such training can be accomplished efficiently and effectively.

Another important point is that for success any programme needs to be continuously evaluated and modified according to need. There is a natural human tendency to keep moving forward without looking back to learn from the past. ATLP provides mechanisms for continually assessing improvements in literacy and for monitoring and evaluating the effectiveness and efficiency of the literacy programme as a whole.

It should also be stressed that the development of literacy is only one step towards improving the quality of life of all citizens. It is a necessary but not sufficient condition for the emergence of autonomy in learning, for the growth of continuing education and for the evolution of a learning society. Movement from stage to stage in this growth will vary from country to country. The level of development in this regard must be carefully understood if ATLP is to be implemented effectively.

The ATLP approach presents a framework and an opportunity for those Member States, which may need to do so, to review and upgrade their literacy training programmes. In some countries there is no recognized training curriculum and literacy materials are unco-ordinated and unrelated and not written according to recognized principles or standards. In some countries, a central curriculum exists but literacy materials have been developed independently with little reference to it. In other countries, a curriculum and related materials exist but for various reasons they are in need of revision and upgrading. ATLP provides a framework and a mechanism for bringing about effective change in all such situations.

While each country should develop implementation strategies and procedures that are suited to its own needs and situation, the following process is suggested for consideration (Figure 4.4).

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1	Project initiation
2	Project design
3	Project finalization and approval
4	Selection of areas for needs assessment
5	Workshop on curriculum development
6	Workshop on resource development
7	Validation session
8	Trial of curriculum and resources
9	Revision and second trial
10	Conclusion and finalization of the outcomes
11	Diffusion and training
12	Evaluation and feedback

Figure 4.4. Possible steps in implementing ATLP in Member States

d) Exemplary approach for the training of literacy personnel

While all twelve volumes of ATLP are, by definition, intended to be used for the training of adult literacy personnel, certain aspects of the content of these volumes have particular relevance for specified groups.

1. **Level A Personnel** (National-level policy makers)

   Literacy policy makers should find all twelve volumes of ATLP of value in determining overall policy and in formulating strategies for implementation. Volume 3, however, provides an executive summary and is intended mainly as a resource for personnel at this level.

The volume outlines the literacy crisis in some Member States and presents arguments for eradicating illiteracy. The ATLP exemplary literacy curriculum is described and the ATLP approach to literacy materials development is reviewed. A possible implementation infrastructure and procedure is outlined with special reference to the roles and training of personnel at Levels B and C. A training curriculum for Level B is outlined. The volume also stresses the importance of effective co-ordination including networking.

2. **Level B Personnel** (Provincial-level supervisors and trainers of trainers)

ATLP Volume 4 is a practical training manual for Level B personnel. It functions as an entry point to the full set of 12 volumes and guides Level B personnel through all aspects of the ATLP approach. The manual is practical in its orientation and describes step by step how an effective literacy curriculum could be developed through the application of the ATLP approach. There is also material on the design and development of modular learning materials for use by adults in literacy programmes. Implementation aspects are also reviewed including supervision, co-ordination and networking. Procedures for training Level C personnel are outlined. Aspects of monitoring, evaluation, follow-up and assessment are dealt with from a practitioner's point of view.

3. **Level C Personnel** (Literacy instructors and teachers)

Level C personnel need not study all twelve volumes of the ATLP series although we hope that many would choose to do so, provided the volumes are available in the appropriate local languages.

As revealed in the 1985 UNESCO PROAP regional literacy survey, the training of the many thousands of Level C adult literacy presenters (teachers and facilitators) has presented a major problem for those Member States with low levels of adult literacy. This is partly because of the large numbers involved, partly because many are unpaid or nominally paid volunteers, partly because of a rapid turnover in appointments and partly because many literacy teachers are themselves not very highly educated and have little knowledge or skill in the methods of teaching literacy to adults. In extreme cases, some literacy teachers are themselves only a few educational steps ahead of those they are teaching.

In consideration of this problem, ATLP proposes two approaches. The first is for Level B personnel to provide short training courses of about ten days duration for leading key Level C personnel. Volume 4 of the ATLP series includes a possible training programme for this group.

Because it may not be possible financially or logistically for Level B personnel to train all Level C personnel, a fail-safe contingency approach has been built into the materials. This alternative is to produce self-evident learning materials with detailed teachers' guides which explain teaching procedures step by step. Of course, intervention and supervision by Level B personnel will help Level C personnel to become competent presenters, but even without such intervention the ATLP approach makes it more likely that Level C personnel will be effective in their organization and presentation of adult

literacy classes. This is one of the reasons why ATLP so strongly advocates that Level B personnel design and produce a literacy curriculum and learning materials based on the approaches recommended.

D. Three related projects

In response to need in specific areas of adult literacy education, APPEAL has extended its scope to cover three additional areas.

♦ Adaptation of the ATLP materials for specific use within adult literacy programmes for women in Asian and Pacific countries.

♦ Production of a monograph and sponsoring of in-country activities on research into aspects of adult functional literacy in Asia and the Pacific.

♦ Conjoint activities with the Asian Cultural Centre for UNESCO (ACCU), Tokyo, Japan.

Each of these related projects is described and discussed below:

a) Adaptation of ATLP for women

As discussed in Chapter One (see especially Section D, Figure 1.5), the gap between male and female adult literacy rates remains a major challenge for some countries of Asia and the Pacific. Women, especially in remote rural areas, remain severely disadvantaged. In a partial attempt to address this problem, APPEAL in 1990 commissioned a group of adult literacy experts in the region who were specialists in the field of Women in Development (WID) to produce an adaptation of the ATLP model specifically focusing on the needs of women.

The WID experts decided to develop a specialized edition of ATLP Volume 3 *(Manual for Senior Administrators of Literacy Programmes)* and to produce three training manuals specifically for use in literacy programmes for women. The scope and objectives of the specialized volume are listed in Table 4.3. A draft edition was produced in 1991; after extensive field-test and revision a final edition was produced in 1994.[11]

Table 4.3. The scope and objectives of the ATLP manual for adapting APPEAL Training Materials for Literacy Personnel (ALP) for women.

1. Overview of women's and girls' education
Objective: – to gain insights into the current state of women's and girls' education, including constraints and problems involved.
2. Women in development
Objective: – to gain insights into the current status, roles and responsibilities of women in development – to be assured of the need to educate women and girls, as well as the effects of women's education on development.

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3. Designing literacy programmes for women

Objectives: — to recognize the special characteristics, potential and limitations of women as a distinct group of learners.

— to be aware of basic principles in planning and designing literacy programmes for women.

4. Adapting ATLP for women

Objective: to gain insights into how to adapt ATLP for women and put it into practice.

5. Adapting ATLP curriculum for women

Objectives: — to be able to adapt ATLP curriculum so that it has more emphasis on gender issues.

— to be able to develop a curriculum grid which is congruent with the concepts of gender equality and women in development.

6. Developing the local curriculum

Objective: to be able to develop the local curriculum which is supplementary to the ATLP curriculum so it is more appropriate for female learners.

7. Instructional design of ATLP exemplar training materials for women

Objective: to be able to develop/modify ATLP Training Manuals based on the ATLP principles of instructional design (IPO).

8. Systems management of ATLP for women

Objectives: — to be able to design an appropriate management system for a literacy programme for women.

— to be able to plan implementation of a literacy programme for women in a systematic manner.

9. Adapting ATLP personnel training programmes for women

Objectives: — to identify the different roles of Level A, Level B and Level C personnel in ATLP for women.

— to enhance knowledge and skills in designing literacy training programmes for women.

The adapted volume, while catering for a special group, is broader in scope than the original Volume Three of ATLP. In fact, it includes many of the processes and procedures given in Volume Four for Level B personnel but shows how these processes and procedures can be applied to meet the

specific needs of women. In addition, the manual has a practical action-focused orientation indicating how literacy personnel in WID programmes can make ATLP more effective for women.

Three additional manuals were also produced. These show how the ATLP's IPO approach to instructional design can be effectively used for the development of learning materials for women's literacy programmes. Each volume contains both a Teacher Guide and a Learner's Workbook.

b) Research into functional literacy

While industrialized countries of the region such as Australia, Japan, New Zealand and the Republic of Korea have long since attained Universal Primary Education (UPE) and can now boast of universal secondary education (and therefore presumably a 100 per cent adult literacy rate), it is now clear from recent research that actual levels of competency leave much to be desired. For example, a study undertaken in Australia in 1989 (based on procedures used in a similar survey in the United States in 1987 undertaken by the National Assessment of Educational Progress Project) showed that only 70 per cent of Australian adults could fully interact with and understand documents, prose and quantitative data at a satisfactory level. Quantitative and technological areas were particularly weak.[12]

Developing countries in the region have much to learn from such studies. Even when UPE has been attained, we cannot assume that levels or standards of adult literacy are adequate for the needs of individuals or for the development of the nation as a whole. What is needed, therefore, is for all Member States to initiate research studies to determine the various percentages of the adult population which are functionally literate at defined levels of competence. Only when this information is available can basic literacy programmes be strengthened to ensure adequate standards and suitable post-literacy programmes developed to raise levels of literacy competency.

In response to this need, APPEAL organized a sub-regional workshop on Research Design for Functional Literacy in Seoul, Republic of Korea, 26 April - 1 May 1993. It was attended by experts from Australia, China, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Republic of Korea and Thailand. A final report was published in 1994.[13]

The immediate outcome of the workshop was the preparation of research study designs for surveys at macro-(national) and micro-(community) levels. A longer-term outcome was the initiation of the in-country research study based on the design approaches advocated by the workshop participants. Four Member States have initiated such projects: China, Indonesia, Thailand and the Republic of Korea. The following research projects are currently (1994) being undertaken with the support of UNESCO PROAP under APPEAL:

1.	China:	*Research on functional literacy for rural development*
2.	Thailand:	*Research on the functional literacy status of urban migrants in selected communities in Bangkok*
3.	Indonesia:	*A study of functional literacy levels in selected provinces of Indonesia*
4.	Republic of Korea:	*National follow-up study on adult functional literacy in Korea*

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The findings of the research studies will have considerable value in helping these countries to adjust their general adult functional literacy programmes to ensure that the majority of the people function at appropriate levels of literacy competency. The studies will also provide models and exemplars to help other Member States initiate similar research projects.

c) Conjoint activities with the Asia Cultural Centre for UNESCO (ACCU), Tokyo, Japan

1. Background to ACCU Activities

The UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific organized a Regional Expert Meeting in Bangkok on 22-28 November 1977 to study the literacy situation in Asia and the Pacific and to suggest strategies to improve literacy in the Member States.[14] At the conclusion of the meeting, it was recommended that UNESCO should provide assistance to the Member States in the following areas:

♦ Improvement of planning and administration of literacy programmes.
♦ Curriculum and learning materials development.
♦ Monitoring and evaluation of literacy programmes.

Following the recommendation, UNESCO/ROEAP organized three Regional Workshops:

● Regional Literacy Workshop on Curriculum and Materials Development, Udaipur, India on 29 November - 20 December 1979 to discuss strategies and methods in developing curricula and learning materials for literacy programmes.[15]

● Regional Literacy Workshop on Planning, Administration, and Management in Ho Chi Minh City, Viet Nam from 25 April to 7 May 1980 to discuss the planning and management process of literacy programmes.[16]

● Regional Literacy Workshop on Research and Evaluation held in Jakarta, Indonesia from 20 March to 14 April 1981.[17]

After these workshops, UNESCO/ROEAP in 1981 and 1982 published materials in two series:[18, 19]

The Workshop on Curriculum and Materials Development recommended very strongly that UNESCO should produce prototype literacy materials which could be adapted by Member States. The recommendation was based on the participants' observations that most basic literacy materials for adults were unattractive, uninteresting and very prescriptive.

Thus by 1980 UNESCO/ROEAP was looking for help to produce attractive, interesting and useful literacy training materials. At that time the Government of Japan provided funding to the Asian Cultural Centre for UNESCO (ACCU) to produce materials suited for rural development. ACCU is a non-governmental non-profit organization established in 1971 through the efforts of both the private and public sectors of Japan to support the work of UNESCO. ACCU approached UNESCO for advice. UNESCO/ROEAP advised ACCU that literacy materials would be the best means to disseminate knowledge and skills related to rural development. Thus a conjoint programme emerged called *A Programme for Development of Literacy Follow-up Materials for Neo-Literates for Rural Areas in Asia and the Pacific.*

The programme, which started in 1980, has three components:[20]

● Sub-Regional Workshops to train materials developers in the area of neo-literacy such as writers, illustrators and organizers.

● Production and dissemination of prototype materials for neo-literates, and

● Training of literacy material developers at the national level and adaptation of regional prototype materials.

Activities under this programme are described below.[21]

2. ACCU Regional training and production workshops

Apart from Japan, eighteen countries participate in the activities of ACCU: Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, Cambodia, China, India, Indonesia,Iran, Laos, Malaysia, Maldives, Mongolia, Nepal, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, Philippines, Thailand and Viet Nam.

Table 4.4. Regional workshops conducted by ACCU to train literacy materials developers and to produce prototype literacy materials, 1983-1993

No	Theme	Venue and date	No. of participants
1st	Development of Literacy Follow-up Materials	Japan and Philippines, 18-29 April 1983	24 participants/12 countries
2nd	Preparation and Field Testing of Materials for Neo-Literates	Chiangmai, Thailand, 3-12 October 1994	23 participants/11 countries
3rd	Development and Utilization of Neo-Literate Materials	Tokyo, Japan, 25 November - 3 December 1985	18 participants/11 countries
4th	Practical Method for Preparation of Neo-Literate Materials	Bandung, Indonesia, 20-29 October 1986	16 participants/7 countries
5th	Field Survey, Preparation and Field Testing of Neo-Literate Materials	Pune, India, 9-18 November 1987	18 participants/10 countries
6th	Preparation of Neo-Literate Materials for rural Development	Kuching, Malaysia, 21-30 September 1988	22 participants/13 countries
7th	Preparation of Literacy Materials for Women in Rural Areas	Kathmandu, Nepal, 17-26 October 1990	23 participants/12 countries
8th	Development of Audio-vusual Literacy Materials for Women in Rural Areas	Pattaya, Thailand, 9-20 October 1990	24 participants/12 countries
9th	Development of Literacy Follow-up Materials for Women and Other Disadvantaged	Islamabad, Pakistan, 2-13 November 1991	26 participants/16 countries
10th	Preparation of Literacy Follow-up Materials on Agricultural Vocational Training for Adults in Rural Areas	Dalian, China, 6-17 October 1992	29 participants/16 countries
11th	Preparation of Literacy Follow-up Materials on Agricultural Vocational Training for Adults in Rural Areas	Ho Chi Minh City, Viet Nam, 22 November - 3 December 1993	19 participants/18 countries
12th	Preparation of Literacy Follow-up Materials on Agriculture for Adults in Rural Areas	Dhaka, Bangladesh, 18-29 December 1994	18 participants/17 countries
13th	Preparation of Literacy Follow-up Materials on Vocational Training with Cultural Development for Adults in Rural Areas	Yogyakarta, Indonesia, 21 November - 3 December 1995	17 participants/16 countries

Along with an increasing demand for quality literacy materials, qualified personnel in materials development are urgently needed. In view of this, ACCU has been holding since 1983 an annual regional workshop for specialists in literacy material production from the eighteen participating countries with the main objective of providing training experiences in developing new materials for neo-literates. The table (Table 4.4) shows the regional workshops held so far up to December 1993.

3. Prototype materials for neo-literates

Since 1980 ACCU has been carrying out the Asian/Pacific Joint Production Programme of Materials for Neo-Literates in Rural Areas (AJP) intended for people who have acquired a primary knowledge of reading and writing (neo-literates), but who may easily lose their reading skills due to the lack of appropriate reading materials.

By blending the expertise and experience of the participating countries, and with the collaboration of UNESCO PROAP, 47 AJP materials in the form of booklets, posters, games and audio-visual materials on various subjects closely related to daily life in rural areas have so far been developed as prototypes (in English). These have emerged largely from the products of the regional workshops described above (Table 4.4) and from national workshops supported by ACCU. The process involved in the development of the materials is summarized in Figure 4.5.

ACCU provides support for the production of prototype materials at the national level, including translation into local languages. The materials have been greatly appreciated and are widely used in the region.

Further activities in this area include publication and dissemination of a training manual.[22] Another publication of ACCU is a valuable source of exemplary materials.[23]

ACCU has also produced a series of video programmes which have been widely used and greatly appreciated as one of the most effective forms of instructional media for learners. In response to a great demand for effective and attractive media to be used in the field of literacy, ACCU has produced, in co-operation with UNESCO and experts in the region, the following video programmes.

- ♦ Water in Everyday Life - AJP material (16 minutes)

- ♦ Poultry for Additional Income - AJP material (11 minutes)

- ♦ How to Develop Literacy Materials for Women (25 minutes)

- ♦ Street Children and Literacy (27 minutes)

- ♦ Mina Smiles - literacy promotion animation (16 minutes)

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Needs and Problems in Literacy Field in Asia and the Pacific

Annual Regional
Workshops
(18 countries)

Field Survey

Field Survey

National
Workshop

Preparation of
1st Draft Materials

Existing Materials
(for reference)

Preparation of
1st Draft Materials

Field Testing

Field Testing

Preparation of
2nd Draft Materials

AJP Meeting (held
annually in Tokyo,
with several (experts
invited))

Examination of Materials and Adoption
as AJP Materials
(suggestions for improvement made)

not adopted

Adopted

Materials are improved and
submitted to Regional
Workshop again for further
development

Preparation of
Final Texts and Illustrations
(Necessary improvements
and editing carried out)

Printing

Completed
AJP Prototype
Materials

**Figure 4.5. The ACCU process of developing materials for neo-literates
under its AJP activities**

4.   *Training of materials developers*

Apart from the training provided by the regular regional workshops, ACCU provides in-country training. An international mobile team of experts is available to support writing workshops organized by respective countries. These workshops are usually attended by both government and non-government personnel working in the area of literacy materials production. The schedule of the mobile team of experts from 1986 to 1992 appears in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5.   Schedule of units by a mobile team of experts supporting
national level workshops for the production of literacy
materials 1986-1992

Year	Venue	No. of participants	Host organization
1st (1986)	Kathmandu, Nepal	36	Ministry of Education and Culture
2nd (1986)	Bandung, Indonesia	30	Ministry of Education and Culture
3rd (1987)	Fuzhou, China	34	State Education Commission, China; Chinese National Commission for UNESCO Fujian Provincial Education Commission
4th (1988)	Hanoi, Viet Nam	25	Complementary Education Department and Research Centre for Adult General Education Ministry of Education
5th (1989)	Islamabad, Pakistan	33	Primary and Non-formal Education Wing Ministry of Education
6th (1990)	Penang, Malaysia	28	Community Development Division (KEMAS) Ministry of Rural Development
7th (1991)	Quezon City, Philippines	32	Bureau of Non-formal Education Department of Education, Culture and Sports
8th (1992)	Ulan Bator, Mongolia	32	Ministry of Education
Total	8 countries	250	

Also in the area of direct training of personnel, ACCU has organized two sub-regional workshops with financial support from Japanese Funds-in-Trust for the promotion of literacy administered by UNESCO PROAP. These workshops aimed to train relevant personnel in the development of basic literacy reading materials including basic literacy primers, teachers' guides and supplementary materials.

The First Sub-Regional Workshop was held in Calcutta, India in July 1992. It was attended by 21 participants and three resource persons from seven Southwest Asian countries. Each country team developed draft basic literacy primers based on the curriculum in their vernacular languages.[24]

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The Second Sub-Regional Workshop was held in Chiang Rai, Thailand, 22 February - 5 March 1994, with 16 participants from nine Southeast Asian countries. The aim of this workshop was to improve and develop basic literacy materials for minority peoples whose mother tongues are not any of the national languages. The participating countries were encouraged to have follow-up programmes to develop innovative basic literacy reading materials with technical and financial assistance by ACCU and UNESCO/PROAP.[25]

E. Evaluation of ATLP

In 1991, APPEAL initiated a major study to assess the impact of ATLP on the improvement of literacy programmes in the region.

The objectives of the study were:

♦   To assess the impact of the ATLP Programme at the national, sub-regional and regional levels.

♦   To determine the potentiality and utility of the ATLP approach.

♦   To identify ways and means of enhancing the utility and impact of the ATLP Programme in future.

A part-time team of evaluators was appointed. This team consisted of three to five persons in each participating country working with a specially appointed international co-ordinator. Sixteen Member States were contacted and of these eleven fully participated in the survey. Priority was given to those Member States with relatively low levels of adult literacy or which were experimenting with changing approaches. The eleven Member States which were fully involved were as follows:

Bangladesh	Laos	Indonesia	Philippines
China	Malaysia	Pakistan	Thailand
	Nepal	Papua New Guinea	Viet Nam

A four-pronged strategy was adopted to carry out the evaluation.

1.   The in-country teams led by one key person who had been involved in the development of ATLP undertook surveys within each participating Member State. These surveys involved the use of document analysis, field visits, interviews and the use of structured and unstructured questionnaires.

2.   Senior personnel, key trainers and resource persons who had participated in ATLP workshops completed a detailed questionnaire. There was, however, a limited response (30 per cent) due to time constraints and other factors, but the returns were fully representative.

3.   The international co-ordinator undertook field visits to project sites to observe ATLP activities and conduct interviews.

4.   UNESCO PROAP support for sub-regional and national activities was assessed in relation to technical and financial aspects.

The evaluation report was issued in 1992.[26] The major findings of the evaluation are summarized in Table 4.6.

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Table 4.6. **Summary of main findings of a study on the impact of ATLP on the adult literacy programmes of eleven participating member states – 1991**

1. Significance of ATLP

    1.1   The participating Member States have attached significance to ATLP as an important step toward achieving the objectives of APPEAL, particularly in relation to training literacy personnel, improving curricula and developing training materials.

2. ATLP materials

    2.1   The ATLP materials met the long-felt need for appropriate literacy resource materials for literacy personnel in the Member States. As a matter of fact, it filled the vacuum left by the lack of such materials.

    2.2   The participatory approach adopted in the development of ATLP materials not only helped build a sense of involvement and commitment among the regional literacy experts, but also enabled them to play a leading role in dissemination and training activities as resource persons and consultants at the sub-regional and national levels.

    2.3   The quality and relevance of ATLP materials were highly appreciated. However, there is a need for more elaboration (the I-P-O approach) and more illustrations (such as in the design of literacy materials) of some topics.

    2.4   Several countries have translated and printed ATLP materials in their national languages for wider dissemination.

    2.5   ATLP materials used have either been in English or translated into national languages.

    2.6   Understanding of ATLP materials was good among Level B personnel, and less so among Level A personnel.

3. The ATLP approach

    3.1   The design principles of curriculum development and the systems approach to designing training materials (IPO) as advocated in ATLP have been appreciated and used by Member States. Local needs assessment methods have been widely used.

    3.2   Some Member States have developed a literacy curriculum in line with ATLP, and others have refined their curricula using the recommended integrated approach.

    3.3   Several countries have developed training manuals for trainers and teachers' guides in line with ATLP.

    3.4   ATLP has so far had little impact on networking of literacy training institutions either at the national level or at the sub-regional and regional levels.

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4. Regional-level activities and support

4.1 UNESCO/PROAP organized a regional-level workshop to develop ATLP materials (12 volumes) and supported six sub-regional workshops for the dissemination of ATLP materials and training of key literacy personnel in the ATLP approach; these were highly appreciated by all participants.

4.2 UNESCO/PROAP provided technical and financial support to national/sub-national workshops on curriculum development and to literacy personnel training programmes. It also supported some Member States in translating and printing ATLP materials. This support was greatly appreciated.

5. National-level activities

5.1 One of the significant impacts of ATLP is that it generated a series of literacy promotion activities at the national and sub-national levels.

5.2 Most frequently conducted activities at the national/sub-national level include literacy personnel training programmes, orientation of curriculum and training materials.

5.3 The ATLP workshops and training programmes have considerably upgraded the technical competencies of literacy personnel in the Member States. However, more intensive training programmes are required for Level C personnel.

6. Potentiality of ATLP

6.1 The potentiality of ATLP is rated high by key personnel, particularly in the improvement of the quality of training programmes and materials, and they anticipate similar efforts in launching and consolidating post-literacy and continuing education programmes.

7. Contributions of key personnel and resource persons

7.1 The resource persons and consultants have played a major role in advocating ATLP in their own countries as well as in other Member States where they served as resource persons or consultants. They participated in the writing of ATLP materials and also facilitated the promotion of ATLP in Member States.

7.2 Several key literacy personnel who participated in sub-regional workshops have been enthusiastically engaged in applying the principles and approaches of ATLP to consolidate the national literacy system in their respective countries.

8. Resources

8.1   The ATLP has helped in generating resources internally as well as from international agencies for the promotion and consolidation of literacy activities. Considering the interest shown and participation of international agencies such as UNICEF, UNDP and ASPBAE, there is still ample opportunity to mobilize resources for the promotion of ATLP and allied activities.

8.2   Several respondents have noted that the resources made available for ATLP activities are not adequate to bring about its optimal impact.

9. Emerging needs

9.1   In the case of low literacy rate countries, there is a need to expedite the consolidation of national literacy systems by using ATLP strategies, namely, establishing institutional infrastructures and training the required number of literacy personnel so that these resources could be used later on for launching continuing education activities.

9.2   A wide variety of post-literacy/continuing activities in operation now in high literacy rate countries need to be given a unified direction and organized within a programmatic framework.

It is remarkable that the evaluators were able to identify such positive outcomes just two years after the final editions of the twelve volumes were published. They also found some problems and constraints but these were largely extrinsic and outside the framework of ATLP activities. They included factors such as shortage of funds, material resources and personnel, and in some cases the lack of political will and commitment at senior levels of Government and an absence of knowledge about ATLP among policy makers.

F. National level workshops – selected examples

Between 1990 and 1994, national agencies especially concerned with programmes of adult literacy have held a series of national or sub-national workshops to adapt the ATLP approach to meet their particular needs. Many of those were directly supported from the APPEAL budget (see Chapter Two, Section F). Others were independently funded from national budgets or from agencies such as UNICEF. In Table 4.7, a few representative workshops are listed. Many others, some conducted and reported in local languages, are not included.

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Table 4.7. Selected national and sub-national workshops on adaptations of ATLP to meet national needs

Date	Country	Title of report	No. (reference list
30 March - 11 April 1990	Myanmar	Development of Curriculum Learning Materials for Non-Formal Education	27
26 April - 5 May 1990	Viet Nam	National Workshop on Training for Literacy Personnel - Level B	28
14-22 June 1990	Thailand	A Final Report on Local Curriculum Development in the Context of ATLP	29
8-17 July 1990	Nepal	National Workshop on Literacy Curriculum and Teacher Training Materials	30
October - November 1990	Philippines	Seminar Workshop Adapting UNESCO's APPEAL Training Materials for Literacy Personnel (ATLP) to train Department of Education, Culture and Sports (DECS) Literacy Personnel	31
15-24 December 1990	Pakistan	National Workshop on Adaptation of APPEAL Training Materials for Literacy Personnel	32
8-14 December 1990	Indonesia	National Workshop for Training of Literacy B-2 Level	33
7-15 February 1992	Malaysia	Workshop for Development of Supportive Material for APPEAL Training Materials for Literacy Personnel (ATLP)	34
10-25 March 1992	China	Sub-National Workshop for Training of Literacy and Rural Adult Education Personnel	35
3-12 November 1992	Pakistan	Master Trainers of Non-Formal Adult Literacy Programmes Workshop	36
20-30 December 1992	Maldives	National Workshop for Training of Literacy and Continuing Education Personnel	37
24-30 December 1992	Bangladesh	Training Workshop on APPEAL Training Methodology for the Literacy Personnel, Resource Development and Training Programme at Dinajpur	38
March 1993	Philippines	Development of Literacy Measures	39

The success of workshops such as these suggests that the ATLP approach is widely accepted and is being applied systematically and effectively for improving programmes of adult literacy. One key reason for its acceptance and widespread implementation is that it does not impose a particular

curriculum, infrastructure or set of materials but provides a framework for systematic and holistic planning. ATLP materials help to bring about effective responses to the actual needs and circumstances of a given country or community and so are likely to result in major improvements.

G. Remaining problems and issues

While considerable advances have been made in the area of adult literacy over the past decade, there are some unresolved problems and issues which continue to remain areas of concern. They include the following:

♦ The critical problem is essentially one of demography. While the absolute number of adult literates is increasing so too are the numbers of illiterates because of the rate of increase in the total population. This is especially the case in countries such as Bangladesh, India, Pakistan and Nepal where illiteracy rates remain unacceptably high. How this problem is to be resolved is a difficult question and unless population control measures succeed it is unlikely that certain countries will have sufficient resources to make all adults literate within the foreseeable future.

♦ Gender differences remain a concern, especially in those countries with high levels of adult illiteracy.

♦ In some Member States, especially those with high rates of illiteracy, the infrastructure and delivery system for adult literacy programmes remain weak and there is an absence of systematic nation-wide policies and procedures. APPEAL can continue to assist in the development and implementation of more holistic approaches to the eradication of illiteracy.

♦ Some countries still lack a recognized framework for developing a literacy training curriculum and for producing appropriate training materials although many have now addressed this issue by implementing the ATLP approach.

♦ While the relationship between government agencies and NGOs working in the area of adult literacy is appropriate and effective in many countries, in some situations there could be more close co-operation and integration.

♦ In industrialized and newly industrialized countries there is a growing realization that levels of adult literacy are not always adequate or appropriate for the needs of economies based on sophisticated technology. There is an unacceptably high level of semi-literacy among certain categories of the population. As the world of work becomes restructured around new technologies, the work force needs higher standards of literacy and general education. This is a problem not only for industrialized countries at present, but for the whole region in the future. How to improve literacy standards of a population which is already basically literate remains a key issue.

♦ The relationship between literacy programmes, socio-economic development, and continuing education in some countries remains unclear. Policy makers need to appreciate that it is not sufficient just to make a population basically literate. There must be opportunities for people to continue to learn throughout life so that they can contribute to the development needs of the nation.

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In conclusion, the eradication of illiteracy remains a problem for several countries, especially for those with rapid rates of population growth and with large numbers of people below the poverty line. Such countries need to give higher priority to the education sector as the key to development. Many such countries in the past have held the demonstrably wrong view that if they concentrate on achieving UPE, illiteracy will not continue as a problem. Such policies overlook the fact that primary schooling, especially poor quality primary schooling, is pointless on its own and must be linked to a system which provides life-long learning for all. Further, a poorly educated and largely illiterate adult population is an economic liability. Programmes to remedy this situation should have the highest priority.

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Chapter Five

APPEAL AND THE PROMOTION OF CONTINUING EDUCATION FOR DEVELOPMENT (CED)

A. Background

As a community becomes fully literate, the question arises: "literate for what?" The answer of course is that adults can continue to learn on their own throughout life. There must be an **opportunity** for learning to continue and the means for people to fulfill this opportunity. Continuing education provides the means whereby people can develop to their maximum potential and ensure improved well-being and a high quality of life for all.

There are two prerequisites for effective lifelong learning. The first is that adults need to be literate and that literacy skills must be at a sufficiently high level to permit autonomous learning. The second prerequisite is that there has to be a rich educational environment with a wide and diverse range of opportunities for individuals to undertake the various learning projects needed throughout adult life. In other words, there should be as many agencies and facilities as possible providing programmes and resources to enable all literate citizens to choose the area and mode of learning. All literate adults should have immediate and effective access to these programmes and resources.

Under APPEAL, the UNESCO Sub-Regional Committee Meeting held in Canberra, Australia in November 1987, defined continuing education as follows:

> **Continuing education** is a broad concept which includes all of the learning opportunities all people want or need outside of basic literacy education and primary education.

This definition implies the following:

1. Continuing education is for anyone, but particularly for literate youth and adults.
2. It is responsive to people's needs and wants.
3. It can include experiences provided by formal and non-formal education and through informal learning.
4. It is defined in terms of "opportunity" to engage in lifelong learning after the conclusion of primary schooling or its equivalent.

The relationship between lifelong learning and continuing education can be shown by a simple diagram (Figure 5.1). In this diagram the central column shows how an individual can plan and schedule educational programmes throughout life. These programmes may be formal, non-formal or informal in nature.

EDUCATION   LIFE-LONG   EDUCATIONAL
"SYSTEM"   PROJECTS   PROGRAMMES

Age

FORMAL →

NONFORMAL →

INFORMAL
(Self Learning) →
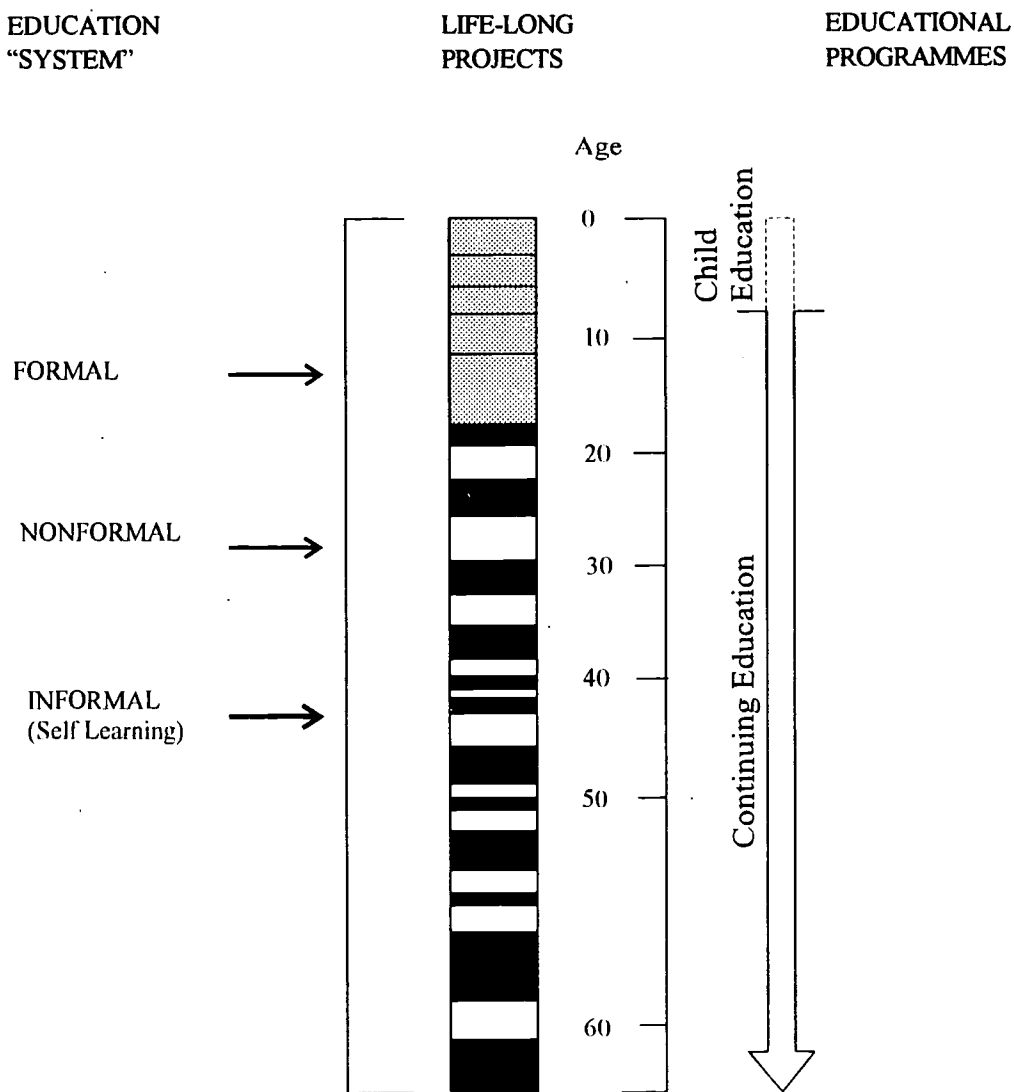
**Figure 5.1. The relationship between lifelong learning and continuing education
(The bands represent individual learning projects.)**

Informal regional surveys undertaken by UNESCO PROAP in 1989-1990 and in 1991
indicated that most countries in the region have facilities and programmes for continuing education.
These include the following:

♦ programmes offered by educational centres to meet the immediate needs of neo-literates;

♦ non-formal education (including distance programmes) for youth and adults intending to
upgrade educational levels;

♦   industrial education where industry provides organized training and retraining of workers to cope with technological changes in the work place;

♦   extension lectures and programmes organized by universities, community colleges and other educational institutions;

♦   programmes offered by demonstration farms and agricultural extension programmes; and

♦   activities offered to the general community by line ministries such as employment, health, agriculture, rural development, housing and industry.

The survey found, however, that information available on each of these and on other activities (if any) was generally inadequate. Subsequent enquiries also revealed that there were several major weaknesses in the continuing education efforts of many Member States. These are summarized below (Table 5.1).

Table 5.1.   Weaknesses in the provision of continuing education in some
Member States surveyed 1989-1991

1.   Weaknesses in policy
1.1   An inadequate understanding of the concept of continuing education as an opportunity to engage in lifelong learning;
1.2   Limited policies linking basic adult literacy programmes to continuing education so as to ensure continued learning by neo-literates;
1.3   Inadequate appreciation of the role of continuing education in personal and socio-economic development;
1.4   Lack of holistic policies to ensure continued access to formal and non-formal education and informal learning throughout the lifetime of all adults.
2.   Weaknesses in organization and delivery
2.1   Generally poor co-ordination and lack of networking among the varied agencies providing continuing education;
2.2   Lack of infrastructure linking Levels A (national), B (provincial) and C (local) in the delivery of continuing education;
2.3   Low levels of co-operation between government agencies, non-government agencies and the private sector in the provision of continuing education.
3.   Weaknesses in scope and coverage
3.1   Narrow focus for continuing education with some countries specializing in post-literacy and equivalency programmes at the expense of other types;

> 3.2 General lack of awareness of the types of programmes which could be and perhaps should be made available;
>
> 3.3 Limited access to continuing education so that only small proportions of the adult population could participate.
>
> **4. Weaknesses in resources**
>
> 4.1 Limited budgetary provision in most Member States with 95 per cent of the educational budget given to formal education and less than five per cent to other areas such as continuing education;
>
> 4.2 Shortage of trained personnel to provide effective continuing education.

The UNESCO report *Learning to Be* recommended that all countries try to promote a learning society whereby everybody learns and also teaches others throughout life. In a learning society, schools and colleges as well as all other organizations such as factories, businesses, churches and social agencies work as education providers. In the 1970s and 1980s, it was very difficult for many developing countries to promote the idea of a learning society as many children, youth and adults did not even have a chance to acquire basic education. The idea of developing a learning society is now becoming more and more viable. In Asia and the Pacific, with the exception of a few countries in South Asia, almost all of the countries have been able to provide basic education for a majority of the population. These countries are aware that education and human resource development will play a key role in the twenty-first century. Therefore, they are eager to promote a learning society in each of their countries in preparation for the information age.

As stressed by many, the next century will be "knowledge-based". Those who can acquire, understand and use knowledge will prosper and those who cannot will lag behind. Because of the mass media, information is abundant. We are bombarded by information through radio, TV and the print media every day. But information alone is not helpful unless it is properly organized, analyzed and synthesized with some objectives in mind. Education enables people to analyze and synthesize information in a systematic way and to use it wisely. Nobody can claim that what we learn in school and college will be sufficient throughout life. The situation changes all the time, compelling people to respond to new challenges – hence the need for lifelong learning. The role of literacy and continuing education is to help people acquire knowledge according to their needs and to help them arrange and use information systematically in order to improve their quality of life.

Education is now being viewed as a single system consisting of formal and non-formal education sub-systems and involving informal learning. The following figure illustrates this system (Figure 5.2).

This holistic view of education supports the concept of the learning continuum that encourages lifelong learning. No stage of learning should be viewed as final. The goal of the learning continuum is not merely the achievement of literacy, but to promote the ideal of lifelong learning itself.

Educational System

Formal Educaton Sub-System   *Non-Formal Education Sub-System*

Universities	Open universities

➤ Secondary education
VI/VII - X/XII
 	
General vocational
	➤ Continuing education
	   Types of continuing education:
	★ Post-literacy promotion programme
	★ Equivalency programme
	★ Vocational education programme
	★ Quality of life promotion
	   programme
	★ Individual interest promotion
	   programme
	★ Future oriented programme

➤ Primary education
Grade I-V/VI
	➤ Literacy/non-formal education pro-
	   gramme for children and youth
	   (age-group 6-14)
	
	➤ Literacy/non-formal education for
	   youth and adults (age-group 15-35):
	I : Basic level
	II : Middle level
	III : Self-Learning level

➤ Pre-primary schools	Family and community based early childhood education

Figure 5.2. A holistic view of the education system

B. The APPEAL response

As indicated earlier, many countries in Asia and the Pacific have often viewed their education policies from the perspective of formal education alone and have therefore not formulated any overall policy on continuing education. Those countries which do have emerging continuing education programmes, or even those with well-established systems, have areas in need of improvement.

APPEAL, therefore, has been working very closely with Member States to facilitate improvement in formulation of policy, planning, management and systematic development of continuing education. An aim has been to help each country develop its human resources in the broadest sense as defined by the 1991 Human Development Report of UNDP.

> "Human development is defined as the processes of enlarging the range of people's choices - increasing their opportunities for education, health care, income, and employment, and covering the full range of human choices from a sound physical environment to economic and political freedoms."

Appropriately educated people develop positive attitudes and skills and can improve the quality of their work and increase their incomes. A general upgrading of the socio-economic structure of society occurs with the emergence of secure, happy and prosperous individuals and families. With improved human capabilities and a stronger domestic economy, developing countries would be better able to manage their scarce national resources and so ensure effective, appropriate and sustainable development.

Countries in East Asia, Southeast Asia and the Pacific are trying to extend compulsory school education to eight or nine years of schooling. In addition, they are trying to provide post-literacy and continuing education through non-formal approaches to all youth and adults who are out of school. In fact, all of the countries in the region are trying to promote and improve their post-literacy and other continuing education programmes. Therefore, based on the successful experience of ATLP, UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific (PROAP) developed a series of manuals on continuing education.

The First Meeting for Regional Co-ordination of APPEAL held in 1988 recommended that APPEAL promote the following six types of continuing education programmes in the region:

1. Post-Literacy Programmes (PLP)
2. Equivalency Programmes (EP)
3. Quality of Life Improvement Programmes (QLIP)
4. Income-Generating Programmes (IGP)
5. Individual Interest Programmes (IIP)
6. Future Oriented Continuing Education Programmes (FOCEP)

A project for developing these types of programmes was then formulated. It had the following aims:

♦ To inculcate the habit of continuous learning and reading.

♦ To upgrade general and vocational education levels.

♦ To empower youth and adults to improve the quality of life. To equip youth and adults with technical, vocational and entrepreneurial competencies.

♦ To enable all adults to pursue and improve individual interest activities through education.

♦ To encourage all citizens to anticipate and prepare for the future.

UNESCO PROAP organized a series of Technical Working Group Meetings of Experts to develop a series of APPEAL training materials. The resulting materials consisted of eight volumes under the series title *APPEAL Training Materials for Continuing Education Personnel (ATLP-CE)* with the following specific titles.[1]

Volume I	:	New Policies and Directions for Continuing Education Programmes
Volume II	:	Post-Literacy Programmes
Volume III	:	Equivalency Programmes
Volume IV	:	Quality of Life Improvement Programmes
Volume V	:	Income-Generating Programmes
Volume VI	:	Individual Interest Promotion Programmes
Volume VII	:	Future Oriented Continuing Education Programmes
Volume VIII	:	A Manual for the Development of Learning Centres

APPEAL also held a series of regional and sub-regional workshops to validate the draft versions of the various volumes and to ensure that key personnel from Member States became familiar with the materials so that they could initiate relevant in-country programmes and activities. Initially the workshops were held in co-operation with ATLP regional and sub-regional activities (see Chapter Four) but later workshops were held specifically for ATLP-CE. The schedule of workshops is given below in Table 5.2[2].

Table 5.2. The schedule of ATLP-CE workshops for validation and dissemination of the ATLP-CE concepts and procedures 1990-1994

A.   Conjointly ATLP and ATLP-CE
A.1   Fifth Sub-Regional Workshop for Training of Literacy and Continuing Education Personnel, Port Moresby, Papua New Guinea, 3-15 December 1990.
Member States represented: Fiji, Maldives, Papua New Guinea, Samoa, Solomon Islands, Tonga
Number of participants and observers: 16
A.2   Sixth Sub-Regional Workshop for Training Literacy and Continuing Education Personnel, Pyongyang, DPR Korea, 28 August - 12 September 1991.
Member States represented: China, DPR Korea, Mongolia, USSR
Number of participants and observers: 24
A.3   Regional Workshop for Training of Literacy and Continuing Education Personnel, Chengdu, China, 27 June - 13 July 1991.
Member States represented: Afghanistan, Bangladesh, China, India, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, Nepal, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, Philippines, Thailand, Viet Nam.
Number of participants and observers: 37

B. Specifically ATLP-CE

B.1 Regional Workshop for Training of Continuing Education Personnel, Chiangmai, Thailand, 13-23 August 1993.

Member States represented: Australia, Bangladesh, Bhutan, Cambodia, China, Fiji, India, Indonesia, Iran, Laos, Malaysia, Maldives, Mongolia, Myanmar, Nepal, New Zealand, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, Philippines, Republic of Korea, Samoa, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Tonga, Viet Nam.

Number of participants and observers: 45

B.2 Second Regional Workshop on Continuing Education for Development, Shijiazhuang City, Hebei Province, China, 16-25 May 1994.

Member States represented: Bangladesh, Cambodia, China, India, Indonesia, Iran, Laos, Malaysia, Mongolia, Myanmar, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Republic of Korea, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Viet Nam.

Number of participants and observers: 36

B.3 UNESCO Regional Workshop on Learning Centre Development, Colombo, Sri Lanka, 3-11 November 1994.

Member States represented: Bangladesh, Cambodia, China, India, Japan, Indonesia, Laos, Myanmar, Nepal, Pakistan, Republic of Korea, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Viet Nam

Number of participants and observers: 34

B.4 Third Regional Workshop on Continuing Education for Development, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, 19-28 August 1996

Member States represented: Bangladesh, Bhutan, Cambodia, China, India, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, Nepal, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, Philippines, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Viet Nam.

Number of participants and observers: 57

A number of observers participated in the workshops.

The ATLP-CE Project has been well received in the region. All participants attending regional and sub-regional workshops dealing with the various ATLP-CE materials (Table 5.2) prepared action plans for follow-up activities at the national level. Already several countries have translated the earlier volumes in the series into their local languages and are currently (November 1997 translating the more recent volumes. Those countries with well-advanced translation programmes include Bangladesh, Cambodia, China, India, Indonesia, Laos, Republic of Korea, Thailand and Viet Nam.

An overview of the ATLP-CE approach is given below in Sections C to G. The summary shows how the project addresses the weaknesses identified by the UNESCO PROAP regional survey, 1989-1991. It is important to stress that at this stage, however, the ATLP-CE Project aims to provide exemplars only. **The volumes provide planning and development frameworks to enable each Member State to develop an appropriate continuing education system according to its particular needs and circumstances.**

A further point is that the ATLP-CE design is based on a systems approach to curriculum, materials design, delivery and training. It provides a development framework for each of the following aspects of continuing education:

♦ Conceptual framework for six types of programme (Section C);

♦ Curriculum and materials design for activities (Section D);

♦ Development of an infrastructure and delivery system (Section E);

♦ Curriculum for the training of continuing education personnel (Section F);

♦ Monitoring and evaluation of continuing education programmes and activities (Section G);

♦ Guidelines for the establishment and management of learning centres (Section H).

C. Six types of continuing education

Following suggestions first formulated at a sub-regional seminar held in Canberra, Australia in 1987 the Regional Co-ordination Committee for APPEAL has categorized continuing education into six types. The objectives, client groups and delivery systems for each of the six types are given below:

> **Type 1. Post-Literacy Programmes (PLPs).** *These aim to maintain and enhance basic literacy, numeracy and problem solving skills, giving individuals sufficient general basic work skills to function effectively in their societies.*

Post-literacy programmes (ATLP-CE Volume II) should be designed to strengthen literacy skills so that learners can take advantage of other opportunities offered by other continuing education programmes. The main objectives are:

1. retention of already acquired literacy skills;

2. improvement of literacy skills, and

3. application of literacy skills for individual and community development.

To motivate participation in post-literacy programmes functional knowledge must be carefully selected to interest participants and to meet their needs. The most effective post-literacy programmes are those in which functional knowledge relates to the work environment. Apart from that obvious category it is important to consider which other areas should be included. There are several obvious possibilities such as civics and social values, principles of economic growth, development theory and cultural aspects including religion. However, it is important to give participants some choice and not to make all elements compulsory as in basic literacy programmes.

Moreover, not *all* areas of a functional literacy programme need to focus on functional significance. Some of the programme should be recreational and cater to personal interests. There is a strong argument therefore, for the inclusion of fiction and biography among the options, and to provide a sufficient variety of materials for individuals to follow their own interests.

The project has recommended the following five content areas:

1. Recreational Topics/Fiction
2. Social and Development Issues
3. Civics and Social Values
4. Work-related Knowledge and Skills
5. Culture

The content categories, however, are prescriptive.

Type 2. Equivalency Programmes (EPs). *These are designed as alternative education programmes equivalent to existing formal general or vocational education.*

It is assumed that most of the countries in the region will very soon achieve universal primary education. ATLP-CE has attempted to develop a model of equivalency programmes only for secondary education (ATLP-CE, Volume III). In case countries want to develop equivalency programmes for primary schools, they can certainly use the principles and methods given for secondary education. Equivalency programmes are supposed to be more flexible than formal secondary education.

This flexibility is usually reflected in the following ways:

a) Progression from level to level is usually more relaxed with less emphasis on formal levels or grades.

b) The rate of progress from level to level can be accelerated so that the time needed to reach a particular grade level equivalent to the formal system can be reduced.

c) Because most of the learning is self-directed and self-paced it is easier to provide alternative programmes to cater for special interests (e.g., vocational education vis-a-vis general education).

Type 3. Income-Generating Programmes (IGPs). *These help participants acquire or upgrade vocational skills and enable them to conduct income-generating activities. IGPs are vocational continuing education programmes delivered in a variety of contexts and which are directed in particular towards those people who are currently not self-sufficient, that is, those persons at or below the poverty line.*

At present many Member States in Asia and the Pacific offer several kinds of income generating programmes with many a target group in mind. Though the main aim is to raise the level of income of the participants, most programmes generally end up emphasizing skill development. They are conducted by many types of agencies in an ad hoc and poorly co-ordinated manner. Frequently there is overlap, and sometimes important needs are ignored.

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It must be recognized that an IGP, as a distinct type of continuing education, is not an isolated programme or activity offered in a particular vocation or occupation. It covers a whole range of courses offered and services extended to enable all sections of society to continuously update and upgrade their competencies for the purpose of enlarging and enriching their sources of income and quality of life. IGPs go beyond offering courses for skills development. They equip participants with managerial and enterprise skills that would enable them to use the facilities and services made available by the community to engage in a variety of gainful income generating activities.

In view of these circumstances, it is necessary to develop a systematic approach for bringing greater effectiveness in the planning, programmeming, implementation and evaluation of IGPs (Volume IV of ATLP-CE). A possible programme framework, which is action-oriented, is presented here for the use of planners, managers and other organizers of IGPs. The framework provides a general model for nation-wide action at one level, and the development of specific activities such as projects and courses at the other.

The content of IGPs ranges from providing basic literacy to establishing participants in gainful employment. The major components of training need to be selected from among the following to meet the specific needs of the diverse target groups:

a) Functional literacy

This comprises basic literacy, numeracy and social awareness with emphasis on health, nutrition, hygiene, sanitation, safety, first aid, ecosystems, community, technology and basic science in the context of the life of rural people, their problems and opportunities.

b) Upgrading of literacy

The emphasis is usually on village organization, management, leadership, co-operatives, rural banking, technological change, world of work and employment opportunities.

c) Occupational theory

This covers input requirements, processes, products and related science, technology and mathematics.

d) Basic occupational skills

These focus on increasing capacity and skill to carry out income generating activities effectively.

e) Higher-order occupational skills

These enable participants to undertake income generating activities with increased productivity and quality control using modern tools and processes at proficiency level.

f) Entrepreneurial skills

These comprise book-keeping, accounting, marketing, problem-solving, risk taking and communication skills.

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g) Follow-up technical and support services

These may include rural enterprise projects, credit facilities, and co-operatives for sharing costly inputs.

The need for each of these components depends on the educational background of the participants, and the scope and nature of their employment requirements.

Type 4. Quality Of Life Improvement Programmes (QLIPs). *These aim to equip learners and the community with the essential knowledge, attitudes, values and skills to enable them to improve the quality of life as individuals and as members of the community.*

Quality of life improvement programmes are development focused and have a strong future orientation. They are concerned with helping establish an enriching vision of the future and with helping the community devise and undertake development activities to achieve that vision through education.

The various elements or aspects of quality of life can be expressed in the form of indicators. As the term suggests, these represent a set of variables which can be measured to assess progress.

The Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) has suggested that quality of life indicators be classified into three groups as follows[3]:

1. Economic Indicators
2. Objective Social Indicators
3. Subjective Social Indicators

Type 5. Individual Interest Promotion Programmes (IIPs). *These provide opportunity for individuals to participate in and learn about their chosen social, cultural, spiritual, health, physical and artistic interests.*

The objective of these programmes is to provide learning experiences to promote and improve the individual interests of various groups such as youth, women or elderly people. They basically aim at strengthening learning activities that promote (a) leisure utilization, (b) life improvement and (c) self-actualization (see ATLP-CE, Volume VI).

IIPs can be categorized into the following types.

1. Hobbies and Leisure
2. Cultural
3. Self-Reliance
4. Sports
5. Personal Development and Self-Actualization

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It is not always possible to differentiate IIPs from IGPs and QLIPs, because someone may pursue individual interests through training and practice while at the same time gaining some income. If a person attends a course with the motive to advance his or her career and to increase income, it is an IGP, but if the person attends the same course only for self-development, it can be considered an IIP. What usually happens in practice is that courses emerge at the local level. A group with a common interest comes together, co-ordinated by a local leader or expert in the area of interest. In a more developed community this interest could be one of many and may require a good standard of general education. Courses in creative writing, for example, would require people to be able to read and write at a high standard. In less developed countries the common interests are more likely to relate to local cultural traditions such as religion, dance, music, folklore and traditional medicine where the general educational background is less important than knowledge of local traditions. These interests can be a springboard for the emergence of a wider range of interests as development proceeds.

In more developed countries, IIPs generally arise spontaneously. There are skilled qualified presenters available and participants are self-motivated. There are agencies willing to promote, sponsor and present IIP activities and mechanisms are available to organize and administer the programmes.

In less developed countries, the main focus at all levels is on more obvious aspects of socio-economic development and priority may not be given to the preservation of the traditional culture through IIPs. What is needed is a clear government policy in this regard. Governments need to broaden their views of continuing education so as to provide opportunities for individuals to participate in local religious, cultural, sporting and other traditional activities in order to preserve and foster those values and other traditional practices (medical practices, sports and games, farming techniques) which are still appropriate and relevant for society.

> **Type 6. Future Oriented Programmes (FOPs).** *These give workers, professionals, regional and national community leaders, villagers, businessmen and planners new skills, knowledge and techniques to adapt themselves and their organizations to social and technological changes.*

Formal schooling is a relatively structured way of providing the basic knowledge, skills and values for human development and the formation of personality. Nevertheless, it is likely that people will increasingly rely on the more flexible forms of continuing lifelong education to help them face inevitable socio-economic change. Specifically, they will turn to non-formal educational systems and guided informal learning to (i) review the knowledge and skills originally acquired from schooling but rapidly becoming obsolete in the changing world, (ii) mobilize social participation and (iii) develop new values needed to cope with newly emerging problems and issues on a societal level.

D. Curriculum and materials design for continuing education

The systems approach to curriculum and materials design developed under ATLP (Chapter Four) was extended to continuing education.

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a) Curriculum

Curriculum development for ATLP-CE is in the context of the six types of continuing education programmes outlined in Section C. Specific courses and activities within each type are required to meet the needs of particular groups in specific socio-economic situations. Volumes II to VII of ATLP-CE give examples of programmes within the framework of each of the six types of continuing education. It is suggested that for each type of course or activity curriculum development follow the steps of the systems approach as discussed in Chapter Four of this present volume.

In contrast to the development of a basic literacy curriculum, however, curricula for continuing education need to be designed more flexibly since in most cases, continuing education courses do not need to be as carefully structured in terms of graded competencies and standards as for basic literacy. The exceptions are post-literacy and equivalency programmes which do need to be organized in carefully sequenced learning steps. Each of the six types of continuing education prepared under ATLP-CE has unique characteristics which determine how the systems approach to curriculum development can be applied for the design of specific courses and activities. The *Manual for the Development of Learning Centres* indicates the points of emphasis that need to be kept in view in curriculum development for the six programmes of continuing education.

b) Learning materials

While the learning materials need to be produced systematically for each course or activity within each type of continuing education, they do not need to be tightly structured. While an IPO system as suggested for basic literacy (see Chapter Four) can have a place in some types of programmes, many of the materials and resources for continuing education need to be more informal and flexible. What is needed is an interesting activity with a learner-centred approach. In many cases, materials can be produced by local groups as part of the products of various learning activities.

E. Infrastructure and delivery of continuing education

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                    APPEAL - INTERNATIONAL NETWORK

    EOI                      LEVEL A                           UPE
                         CE MANAGEMENT
                         (POLICY-MAKERS)
                         VOLUME I: ATLP-CE

            Feedback                          Policy
               on                             Decisions
             Policy

                  CONTINUING EDUCATION LEVEL B
                  SUPERVISORS AND TRAINERS OF
                            TRAINERS
                  TRAINING MANUALS ATLP-CE
                         VOLUME 2-10

            Feedback                          Implementation
               on                             Porcedures
          Implementation

                  LEVEL C LEARNING CENTRES
```

FAMILY PLANNING   BANKS   RETAIL   GOVERNMENT   SPORTING
   CENTRES   OUTLETS   AGENCIES   GROUPS
                                                                       OTHERS
   LOCAL   EVENING   Level C   CLUBS
GOVERNMENT   COLLEGES   PROVIDERS   BOTANICAL
  AGENCIES   GARDENS

AGRICULTURAL   VOCATIONAL   HEALTH   RELIGIOUS
 EXTENSION   TRAINING   CENTRES   INSTITUTIONS   COUNSELLING AND
 PROGRAMMES   CENTRES   GUIDANCE SERVICES
               CHURCH/TEMPLE/   COLLEGES   TRANSPORT
                 MOSQUE   CENTRES
  OTHERS   OTHERS   SCHOOLS
                                                                       PROVINCIAL
BOOKMOBILES   FACTORIES   VILLAGE   CENTRES
                            FARMS   READING
POST-LITERACY   TEACHERS   CENTRES   SECONDMENTS
  CENTRES   COLLEGES   RECREATION
                                 CULTURAL   GAME PARKS/ZOOS   CENTRES
                FORESTY NUITS   CENTRES
DISTANCE EDUCATION   OTHERS   CONSERVATION
 PROGRAMMES   OTHERS   HOBBY   PROGRAMMES
                                         GROUPS   LIBRARIES
   PRIVATE   POLYTECHNICS
   HOMES   UNIVERSITIES   INTERNSHIPS   MUSEUMS
                                                   APPENTICESHIP
BUSINESSES   COOPERATIVES   PROGRAMMES
                                                                          OTHERS
    HOME IMPROVEMENT   MISSIONS   COMMUNNITY   HEALTH
        CENTRES   CENTRES   CLINICS   HOSPITALS

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Key :   EOI = Eradication of Illiteracy
        UPE = Universal Primary Education
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Figure 5.3. The essential framework for ATLP-CE

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CABINET

LEVEL A
NATIONAL

National Planning Authority	
R & D Centres	
Data Banks	

NCCCE

NCCCE Executives

| International network |
| Think tanks |
| Commission for the Future |

CONTINUING EDUCATION

LEVEL B
PROVINCIAL

PCCCE

LOCAL AND PROVINCIAL

PCCCE Executive

Trainers
Counsellors

Monitors
Evaluators
Field Consultants

Programme
Designers Resource
Developers

NETWORK

Learning Centre
Management
Committee

LEVEL C LOCAL

Institutional
learning

Learning
Centre

Non-Institutional
learning

Providing
Agencies

Resources
Facilities

NCCCE = National Co-ordinating Committee on Continuing Education
PCCCE = Provincial Co-ordinating Committee on Continuing Education

Figure 5.4. An infrastructure for continuing education

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F. Training curriculum for continuing education personnel

One of the weaknesses in the continuing education activities of some Member States as shown by the UNESCO PROAP regional survey (1989-1991) was a lack of trained continuing education personnel. ATLP-CE has therefore developed a model curriculum for the training of continuing education personnel at the three levels:

Level A   :   Senior administrators and policy makers

Level B   :   Provincial/district supervisors (including trainers of trainers)

Level C   :   Instructors and trainers (teachers)

The training curriculum involves a competency-based modular approach derived from an analysis of the likely duties and tasks (competencies) required by the types of personnel at each level.

While the Level A competencies in the curriculum are grouped only under general duties, those for Levels B and C are grouped under (i) general duties common to all aspects of continuing education and (ii) special duties associated with each of the six types of programme outlined in Section C above. To illustrate the approach, the grid of the modular training curriculum for Level B personnel is reproduced below (Table 5.3).

Volume I of ATLP-CE describes the contents of each cell of the three curriculum grids in general terms. Volumes II to VII give more details of the training suggested for each of the six types of continuing education programme.

G. Monitoring and evaluating continuing education activities

All educational programmes and projects should be monitored during implementation and evaluated to assess their effectiveness and overall impact. These are particularly important activities, because for many Member States continuing education is a relatively new area and many experimental approaches are being tried. These need to be carefully monitored and evaluated so as to determine areas of success and weakness, thereby facilitating appropriate future development.

ATLP-CE places considerable emphasis on these aspects of continuing education. A generally accepted model of monitoring and evaluation is applied for all six types of continuing education but for each type specific aspects are stressed. The general model is illustrated in ATLP-CE, Volume IV, *Quality of Life Improvement Programmes.*

Table 5.3 A modular training curriculum for level B personnel

DUTIES		TASKS OR COMPETENCIES OF LEVEL B PERSONNEL					
		1	2	3	4	5	6
G E N E R A L D U T I E S	B1.1 Train level C personnel	B1.1 Needs analysis	B1.2 Design curriculum	B1.3 Materials develop-ment	B1.4 Design training activities		
	B2 Establish linkage	B2.1 Foster links between agencies in-volved in CE	B2.2 Mobilize resources and agencies for CE	B2.3 Publicize CE in the province	B2.4 Provide a community-wide consultancy service in CE		
	B3 Monitor and evaluate	B3.1 Monitor and supervise level C	B3.2 Evaluate and report work of level C	B3.3 Undertake research including impact studies			
	B4 Staff develop-ment	B4.1 Integrate HRD into CE programme	B4.2 Organize CE programme				
	B5 Organize post-literacy programme in the province	B5.1 Develop curriculum in advanced reading	B5.2 Promote reading centres				

Points of emphasis in monitoring and evaluation to be stressed for each of the six types of continuing education are briefly summarized below in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4. Monitoring and evaluation factors in Continuing Education

CE Type	Monitoring	Evaluation
I Post-literacy (PLP)	Enrolment figures Drop-out rates Rates of progress Achievement levels Quality of instruction	Number continuing to learn after completing the programme. Impact on personal growth Impact on socio-economic development
II Equivalency (EP)	Enrolment figures Drop-out rates Rates of progress Maintenance of standards Quality of equivalency Quality of instruction	Records of those using their awards for career advancement Impact on levels of competency in areas of employment
III Quality of Life (QLIP)	Achievement of each step of the project. Adherence to action plan. Quality of instruction Quality of project outcomes	Quality of objectives achieved. Impact on social well-being of community. Implications for further development Replicability of project
IV Income Generation (IGP)	Enrolment figures Drop-out rates Quality of goods produced Levels of income achieved Sustainability of programme	Long-term studies of income levels of successful participants Levels of improvement in the community Entrepreneurial skills Improvements in the socio-economic levels of the community
V Individual Interest (IIP)	Enrolment figures Needs surveys Ranges of interests Quality of instruction Development of new interests	Increases in general education levels of the community Increases in breadth and depth of community interests Rate of expansion of IIPs in the community
VI Future Oriented (FOCEP)	Quality and practicability of the future vision Adherence to the work plan Quality of the intervention	Improvements in organizational climate Likely impact of achieving the future vision on the organization and/or the community. Quality of future planning.

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In general terms, monitoring and evaluation of continuing education activities should be undertaken by policy makers to determine areas of need and the overall effectiveness of alternative approaches. Monitoring and evaluation of particular programmes and activities should be undertaken by providers and by participants to ensure that they are appropriate for the types of clientele involved and that they meet the real development needs of individuals and of the community as a whole.

H. Development of learning centres

In Asia and the Pacific, learning centres have emerged as key institutions for the delivery of continuing education. Learning centres are defined as follows:

Local and educational institutions outside the formal education system for villages or urban areas, usually set up and managed by local people to provide various learning opportunities for community development and improvement of people's quality of life.

Volume VIII of the ATLP-CE on Learning Centres was initially developed during a Technical Working Group Meeting held in Pattaya, Thailand, August 1994. This meeting was attended by experts from Australia, China, India, Japan, Nepal, Sri Lanka and Thailand. The volume was validated at the UNESCO Regional Workshop on Learning Centre Development at Colombo, Sri Lanka, in November 1994 (Table 5.2).

The volume expands on ideas discussed in Chapter One of this guidebook, describing in particular how learning centres emerged and discussing their functions and management.

In the developing countries of the region the idea of providing an infrastructure and an institutional base for holistic lifelong education gradually emerged and became operational through the establishment of local community-based learning centres, usually organized and managed by the people themselves. They also assumed many of the roles of non-formal education (NFE), but did so in a way which enabled beneficiaries (i) to continue to learn after completing specific NFE programmes and activities, and (ii) to apply knowledge and skills in continuous and sustained community development.

Initially most centres were established in rural communities and were built into an overall programme of rural development linking the initiatives not only of NFE but of other ministries and departments such as housing, health, industrial development and agriculture. Non-government organizations (NGOs) and agencies also established centres or worked together with Government in establishing and running centres. The learning centre movement expanded to serve urban areas and to broaden its activities so as to address a variety of social problems and issues.

Gradually a network of community-focused institutions emerged that provided continuing education related to the broader issues of community welfare and development.

In industrialized countries non-formal education was not a separate movement complementing formal education. The formal system itself was able to meet basic educational needs, providing primary and secondary education for all and alternative education for those needing qualifications and certificates at any age and under almost any circumstances. But even so, the so-called formal system did not meet all the needs of a rapidly changing society, especially one undergoing major structural changes in the work force. Formal institutions tended to be time-bound and

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certification-oriented and did not always cater to all aspects of lifelong education, especially the demands for training in specific work-related skills, the requirements of special groups such as ethnic minorities, unemployed youth and the elderly, or the need for educational programmes on topics such as the creative use of leisure. Community members therefore began to demand something more from education than the formal programmes offered by schools, colleges and universities. Many government agencies (usually local government bodies), many NGOs, private enterprise institutions, industry and the formal education system itself responded by establishing networks of adult·learning centres which provided a broader range of educational opportunities and which promoted lifelong learning. In parallel and independently of them, learning centres have become very significant agencies for continuing education in industrialized societies.

Learning centres have the following functions, which take different forms in different socio-economic and cultural situations (Figure 5.5).

Volume VIII of ATLP-CE discusses how various types of learning centres promote lifelong learning, have an outreach approach, contribute to community development, and are mandated from and usually managed by the local community. It also reviews how a community organizes programmes which are responsive to the needs and aspirations of community members.

Volume VIII reviews the general and specialized activities of learning centres and provides guidelines for the development of various types of programmes and activities. It also discusses organizational and management aspects and considers linkages with community development activities and with formal education, development agencies and other relevant groups. There are many examples of learning centres in action. The volume is intended as a "how to" manual to help planners and managers set up or to revitalize learning centres.

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                    ┌─────────────────────┐
                    │  APPROPRIATE VENUE  │
                    │    FOR LEARNING     │
                    └─────────────────────┘
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┌──────────────┐ ┌──────────────┐ ┌──────────────┐ ┌──────────────┐
│ COMMUNITY   │ │   │ │ COMMUNITY   │ │   GENERAL   │
│ INFORMATION │ │ EDUCATION   │ │ DEVELOPMENT │ │ COMMUNITY   │
│ AND RESOURCE │ │ AND TRAINING │ │ ACTIVITIES (e.g. │ │ ACTIVITIES │
│   CENTRE   │ │   │ │   QLIPS)   │ │   │
└──────────────┘ └──────────────┘ └──────────────┘ └──────────────┘

                  ┌──────────────┐ ┌──────────────┐
                  │ COUNSELING │ │ TRAINING OF │
                  │ AND ADVISORY │ │ PERSONNEL   │
                  │   SERVICES   │ │   │
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                  ┌──────────────────────────┐
                  │   EDUCATIONAL CO-   │
                  │   ORDINATION AND   │
                  │   NETWORKING   │
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                  ┌──────────────────────────┐
                  │   FUTURE VISIONING   │
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              ┌──────────────────────────────────┐
              │ PROMOTION OF LIFELONG LEARNING   │
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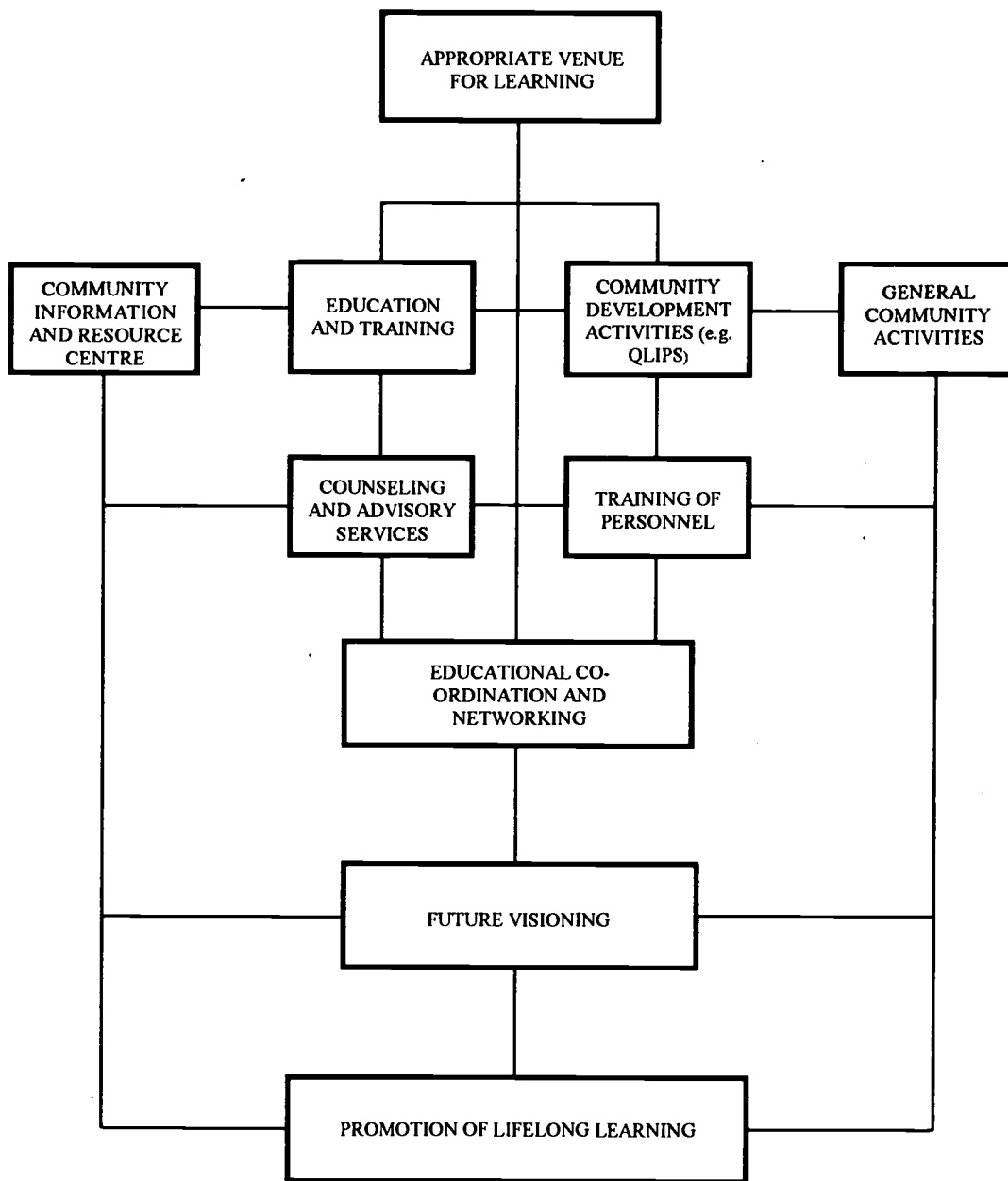
Figure 5.5.   The functions of learning centres differ according to social context

In practice, a learning centre reflects the educational life and needs of the community that it serves. It has a long-term development focus in terms of improving the welfare of all members of the community and fostering socio-economic development from a humanistic point of view (Figure 5.6).

Farming Group

Coordinator of programmes/activities within the community

Housewives Group

NGO's

Others

Retail Group

Local Health Office

Others

Executes its own programmes

LEARNING CENTRE

Executing Agency for other groups

School

NGO's

GO's

Factory

Community Leaders

Information Centre for the Community and other agencies

NGO's

Others

Ministry of Education

Ministry of Agriculture

Private Factories

Figure 5.6. A learning centre can become the focal point for educational development in a community

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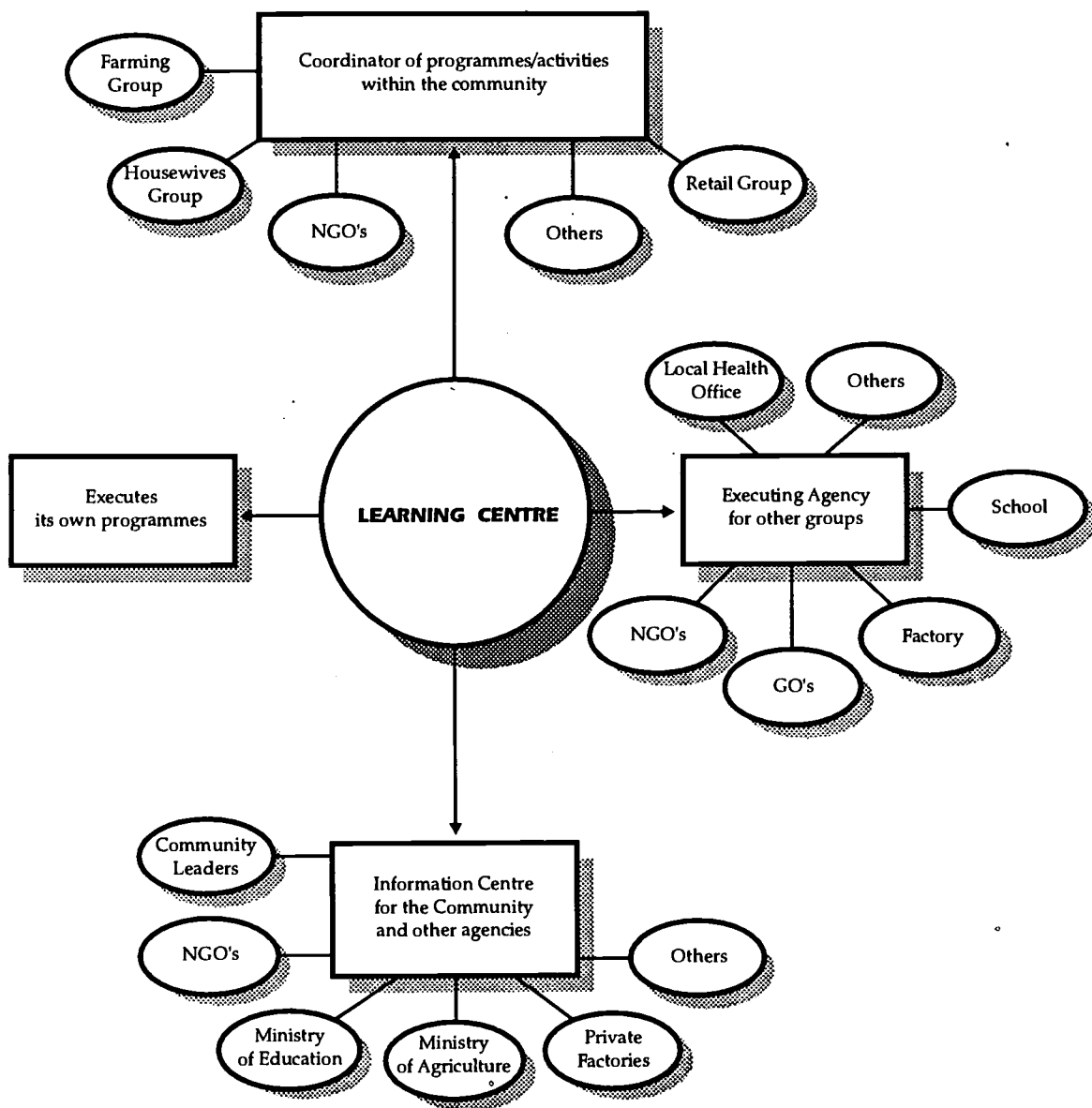### I. APPEAL Manuals for Planning and Management of literacy and continuing education (AMPM): a related project

The survey of continuing education in the region conducted by UNESCO PROAP from 1989 to 1991 revealed weaknesses in some Member States in regard to the formulation of policy and the organization and delivery of services. There was a clear need for strengthening planning and management mechanisms. In response to this need, in 1990 UNESCO PROAP commissioned a group of regional experts in the field of continuing education and adult literacy management to produce a series of four manuals specifically designed to help programme managers determine policy, develop planning systems, implement continuing education and basic adult literacy activities, and monitor and evaluate relevant programmes in these areas.

Initial work on the manuals began during a specially convened Sub-Regional Workshop held in Manila in September 1990[4]. This workshop was attended by a group of thirteen experts from Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, China, India, Indonesia, Iran, Laos, Nepal, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, Philippines and Thailand. The manuals were substantially drafted during this workshop. Subsequently, they were refined by a small editorial group which met in Jomtien, Thailand in April 1991.

The editorial group organized the material into four volumes. These were released in draft editions in 1992 under the series title *APPEAL Manual for Planning and Management of Literacy and Continuing Education Personnel (AMPM)*. After field testing, the AMPM manuals (Table 5.6) were finalized and printed for mass circulation. Their titles are as follows:

Volume I   :   *Policy Framework for Literacy and Continuing Education*
Volume II   :   *Planning for Literacy and Continuing Education*
Volume III   :   *Management of Literacy and Continuing Education*
Volume IV   :   *Monitoring and Evaluation of Literacy and Continuing Education*

These manuals are intended to be used by senior personnel responsible for designing and implementing national programmes of adult literacy and continuing education. "It is expected that practitioners in different countries would adapt the manual with suitable modifications in order to make it more country specific and locally relevant"[5]. The materials have been translated into local languages by China, Indonesia and Viet Nam.

UNESCO PROAP has since held two regional workshops to familiarize personnel with the materials and to train them in planning and management skills for the administration of programmes in literacy and continuing education. The first of these was held in New Delhi, India, in August 1992[6]. The objectives of the workshop were:

♦   to discuss and identify unique problems of policy making, planning and management of literacy and continuing education programmes; and

♦   to develop knowledge and skills necessary for planning and management of literacy and continuing education at macro, micro and project levels including design of monitoring and evaluation systems.

The workshop was attended by fourteen key personnel from Afghanistan, Bangladesh, China, India, Indonesia, Iran, Malaysia, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Thailand and Viet Nam.

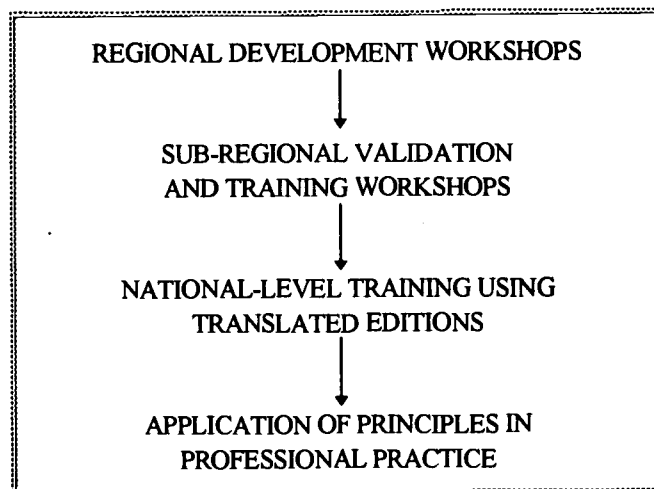The second regional workshop was held in Bhurban, Pakistan, in April 1994.[1] Its objectives were:

♦ To identify and discuss problems and issues in the Planning and Management of Literacy and Continuing Education and develop necessary knowledge and skills in policy making, planning and management, and the monitoring of literacy and continuing education.

♦ To provide practical experience in planning, management and monitoring to the participants to generate multiplier effects through follow-up national workshops.

The second regional workshop was attended by fourteen senior administrators in the fields of literacy and continuing education from Bangladesh, Bhutan, China, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Nepal, Pakistan, Thailand and Viet Nam.

The two regional workshops validated the AMPM materials by demonstrating their use as training resources for key personnel. Another important outcome of each workshop was the development of national-level follow-up action plans.

During 1994, the three countries (which had by then translated the materials into their local languages) implemented their action plans. Indonesia organized a seven-day national training workshop in February 1994. It was attended by 55 key personnel from most provinces representing national, regional, provincial, district and sub-district levels of the administration.[2] In July, Viet Nam organized two workshops each for 50 participants, China followed in October with a similar workshop also for 50 participants. UNESCO PROAP provided government support for the translation of the manuals and for the organization of national workshops.

In developing and implementing the AMPM materials, the following general model was applied:

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│         REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT WORKSHOPS        │
│                      ↓                        │
│           SUB-REGIONAL VALIDATION             │
│           AND TRAINING WORKSHOPS              │
│                      ↓                        │
│         NATIONAL-LEVEL TRAINING USING         │
│             TRANSLATED EDITIONS               │
│                      ↓                        │
│          APPLICATION OF PRINCIPLES IN         │
│            PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE              │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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Informal feedback indicates that training has already made a qualitative impact on the management of continuing education in the countries concerned, especially in planning, improvement of infrastructure and systems of delivery.

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**Table 5.5.   Content of the APPEAL Manuals for Planning and Management
of Literacy and Continuing Education (AMPM)**

Vol. I	Policy Framework for Literacy and Continuing Education
	The conceptual framework for APPEAL is described in the context of the UNESCO World Declaration on Education for All. The present situation in Asia and the Pacific in regard to adult literacy, adult literacy programmes, quality of primary education, school drop-outs, and continuing education is reviewed. The relationships between adult literacy, continuing education, human development and national development are discussed. Guidelines are provided for the formulation of a national policy for literacy and continuing education. The volume concludes with some consideration of the planning context and the setting of goals and objectives for literacy and continuing education.
Vol. II	Planning for Literacy and Continuing Education
	Guidelines are provided for quantitative and qualitative analysis of the situation and requirements for improved literacy and continuing education in a given country. Planning techniques are described and reviewed with special reference to the building of alternative scenarios. Suggestions are given on planning for implementation, especially planning for action at community level with some emphasis on planning and management of projects.
Vol. III	Management of Literacy and Continuing Education
	Organizational arrangements, including administrative structures and technical support systems, for the implementation of effective programmes of adult literacy and continuing education are reviewed and discussed. The management process is outlined and guidelines provided for the training of personnel. Sections are included on the development of curricula and learning materials and on co-ordination and linkages.
Vol. IV	Monitoring and Evaluation of Literacy and Continuing Education
	This volume provides guidelines for monitoring and evaluating programmes of adult literacy and continuing education. A section is included on reporting and disseminating information about the implementation of relevant programmes.

J.   The present status of continuing education at the national level

The continuing education project is relatively new, having been developed in 1990. The programme has been very well received and has already made a significant input on continuing education in the region. Many of the action plans developed by participants attending the six regional and sub-regional workshops held since 1990 (Table 5.2) have already been implemented and the early volumes of the series have been translated into local languages by several Member States including China, Bangladesh, Republic of Korea, Laos, Thailand and Viet Nam.

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Training in principles and procedures has been provided at regional levels for almost 200 senior personnel working in key positions in the field of continuing education in more than 30 Member States.

Many Member States have already initiated national-level training on the basis of the suggested approaches. For example, in September 1994 the Bureau of Non-formal Education of the Department of Education, Culture and Sports, the Philippines, conducted a five-day workshop for approximately 70 senior continuing education personnel from all major regions of the country. A detailed report has been produced which not only summarizes the main features of ATLP-CE as a whole but suggests how they can be translated into action within the Philippine context.[3]

The project has been well received because almost all Member States are now at a stage where they perceive the need to develop systematic approaches to the provision of lifelong learning. There is a growing realization that the development of human resources through the promotion of a learning society will be the key to success in the competitive but closely integrated world of the twenty-first century.

K. Remaining problems and issues

Both in industrialized economies and in newly industrialized countries, the provision of lifelong learning through continuing education is well-established and is a key to successful personal and socio-economic development. In other countries, the provision of continuing education is uneven and in some instances a very new and untried concept. In all countries, however, there are problems and issues which remain to be addressed:

♦ In countries which are just beginning to develop systems of continuing education there is the need for a clear formulation of policy and the development of an appropriate infrastructure.

♦ In countries where well-organized systems of non-formal education have emerged to compensate for deficiencies in formal education, the nature, scope and direction of the former need to be broadened so that it becomes a key agency for lifelong learning.

♦ In many countries of the region, there is a need to expand local resources for continuing education through the provision of a network of community learning centres which are differently constituted and have different priorities according to the socio-economic contexts in which they operate.

♦ In some countries, there is a piecemeal approach to educational development. All education systems need to be planned holistically so that each level, each sub-sector and each institution contributes to lifelong learning.

♦ Even in more advanced industrialized countries the scope of continuing education may not be sufficiently broad to meet all personal and community needs. Programmes should therefore include all six types of continuing education.

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♦ The provision of lifelong learning needs to be seen by all as the key to personal development and to effective socio-economic growth. It therefore should be given a very high priority in terms of resources and national effort. At present, this is not always the case.

♦ Because the universal provision of continuing education is one characteristic of a learning society, such provision must be the responsibility of the society as a whole. If it is the responsibility of governments alone, it may fail through lack of resources and commitment. All agencies of society, NGOs and the private sector need to be involved, including industry and commercial enterprises. Governments need to provide leadership in this regard without too much direct intervention and control.

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   ii) For the development of Volumes II and III of ATLP-CE

   See

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   [*Note:* The Report took the form of the two volumes in preliminary draft edition.]

   iii) For development of ATLP-CE Volume IV

   See

   UNESCO PROAP. Technical Working Group Meeting on *Quality of Life Improvement Continuing Education Programmes,* (Penang, Malaysia, 8-16 May 1992), Draft Report. Bangkok. UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, 1992.

   iv) For the development of Volume V of ATLP-CE

   See

   UNESCO PROAP. Draft Report on *Technical Working Group Meeting on Income-Generating Continuing Education Programmes,* (Pattaya, Thailand, 14-23 September 1992). Bangkok. UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, 1992.

   [*Note:* The report took the form of ATLP-CE Volume IV in preliminary draft edition.]

   Also see

   Subbarao, T. Survey of Income-Generating Continuing Education Programmes, [Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, Republic of Korea and Sri Lanka] [for] *Technical Working Group Meeting on Income-Generating Continuing Education Programme,* [Pattaya, Thailand, 14-23 September 1992]. Bangkok. UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific. 1992.

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> Thongoun, Seg. Survey of Income-Generating continuing Education Programmes, [Thailand, Malaysia, Philippines and Peoples Republic of China] [for] *Technical Working Group Meeting on Income Generating Continuing Education Programmes,* (Pattaya, Thailand 14-23 September 1992). Bangkok. UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific. 1992.

v) For development of ATLP-CE Volumes VI and VII

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vi) For development of ATLP-CE Volume VIII

See

> UNESCO PROAP. APPEAL Training Materials for Continuing Education Personnel (ATLP-CE), Technical Working Group Meeting on Learning Centres for Basic and Continuing Education, [Pattaya, Thailand, 9-16 August 1994], Vol. VIII, *Learning Centres,* Draft Final Report. Bangkok. UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacifc, 1994.

2. For Conjoint workshop see references in Chapter Four Note 8.

For workshops specifically under ATLP-CE

See

> UNESCO PROAP. *APPEAL Regional Workshop for Training of Continuing Education Personnel,* Chiangmai, Thailand, 13-23 August 1993. Draft Final Report. Bangkok, UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, 1993.

> UNESCO PROAP. *APPEAL Second Regional Workshop on Continuing Education for Development,* Shijiazhuang City, Hebei Province, Peoples Republic of China, 16-25 May 1994. Draft Final Report. Bangkok, UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, 1994.

UNESCO PROAP. Learning Centres Development. *UNESCO Regional Workshop on Learning Centre Development, and NFUAJ Third Workshop for the Promotion and Development of the UNESCO Co-action World Terakoya Movement* (Jointly organized by UNESCO/PROAP, NFUAJ and SLFI) Colombo, Sri Lanka, 3-11 November 1994. Draft Final Report. Bangkok, UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, 1994.

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6. UNESCO PROAP. UNESCO PROAP and the National Institute of Education Planning and Administration (NIEPA), Government of India. *Regional Workshop on Planning and Management of Literacy and Continuing Education,* New Delhi, India 3-14 August 1992. Draft Final Report. Bangkok, UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, 1992.

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Chapter Six

APPEAL AND WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT (WID): THE UNESCO-UNDP PROJECT – EXPANSION OF SKILLS-BASED LITERACY PROGRAMMES FOR WOMEN AND GIRLS

A. Background

The educational situation of women and girls remains unsatisfactory in several countries of Asia and the Pacific. Between 1980 and 1990 the overall number of female illiterates grew from 432 million to 446 million. The disparity gap between males and females is particularly severe in Iran, Papua New Guinea, Laos, India, Bhutan, Cambodia, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Afghanistan and Nepal.

In some countries, therefore, educational development has not done adequate justice to women. This has been in part due to social forces that undervalue the importance of educating women. In these countries, parents and indeed society as a whole have considered girls to be transient members of the family who later marry and serve another family. Boys on the other hand are the family heirs who carry on the family name. The roles of women as traditional home-makers have also exacerbated the problem. Girls are expected to assist with child raising and home management while boys remain free of this responsibility. This view persists even when women find employment outside the home. In extreme cases, women are perceived to be the servants of men and expected to subordinate their lives in support of the male members of the family. In the work place too, they face the likelihood of discrimination.

In some cultures, where poor parents have to make a choice between sending a boy or girl to school, it is the girl who almost always stays home. There is little appreciation of the value of educating a girl. The dire need to keep young girls at home, as domestic help to fetch water, fodder, cow dung and firewood and to mind younger children far outweighs the unrecognized gains from a long-term investment in education, especially when early marriage will mean that girls leave the family with no return on the family investment.

Other reasons for the failure of girls to go to school include the absence of schools within reasonable walking distance, parental hesitation to send girls to boys' schools lacking female teachers and general parental unhappiness about the birth of a daughter.

Because of exposure to negative attitudes toward them, women and girls often develop a negative self-concept. They have low self-esteem, few aspirations and high levels of self-denial.

In recent years, particularly the last decade, the role of education for women's empowerment has been more intensively discussed. There has been a growing sense of disillusionment over routine literacy and traditional primary school programmes which have focused on the skills of reading, writing and numeracy together with a handful of gender-biased income raising skills and so-called "quality of life" components which have, in fact, tended to reinforce traditional subservient roles. These programmes have centred on areas determined by women's reproductive functions to the exclusion of the equally important economic roles that they perform. Education for women, therefore, must involve

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training for better productivity and should go considerably beyond a mere "enabling" function. Education must view women as active members of society participating meaningfully and effectively in all spheres of life in equal partnership with men.

In fact, it is now clear that failure of women to reach their full potential wastes half of the human resources of a nation. The overall progress of a nation is contingent upon the extent to which its women participate in the development process. A study by the World Bank has substantiated this observation. Evidence from more than 120 countries indicates that nations with a high enrolment of girls in primary schools pay less in social costs than those with low enrolment rates. Primary school enrolment rates of girls also correlates positively with GNP per capita.

With these considerations in mind, APPEAL has given high priority to the special needs of women in regard to universal primary education (UPE), eradication of illiteracy (EOI) and continuing education for development (CED). APEID had already made initiatives in 1985 and 1986 to promote girls' access to primary schooling.

In Chapter Four on the eradication of illiteracy, the special sub-project under ATLP, **Adapting the ATLP System for Women**, was described. This important initiative has already helped to improve women's adult literacy classes, especially in South Asia.

In the area of continuing education, APPEAL has given emphasis to the needs of women. Each of the six types of continuing education provides opportunities for women to engage in lifelong learning and so take a partnership role in development.

It has been argued that while individual initiatives in the area of women's education were important, there was also a need to deal with the problems more holistically and directly. In 1988, the UNESCO PROAP Office approached UNDP with the view of establishing a project under APPEAL specifically to expand skills-based literacy programmes for women and girls.[1] · The rationale was that improvements in the quantity and quality of literacy programmes for women would not only directly equip them for lifelong learning, enabling them to take a more active role in community life and national development. In addition, literate mothers would also be more likely to send their girls to school, thus accelerating the achievement of UPE.[2]

B. Objectives and scope of the UNESCO-UNDP project

The rationale of the project was to "improve girls' and women's skills and knowledge for their development through the systematic training programmes and materials based on actual situations in the participating countries".[3]

"The project aims at enhancing national capacities for development of participating countries by improving the productive abilities of women and out-of-school girls and youth through improved access to education as well as providing an education which is directly relevant to their specific needs and conditions".[4]

While the main thrust of the project was to prepare a group of trained personnel in each country who could develop a needs-based curriculum as well as relevant learning materials and conduct training at the grassroot level, the specific objectives were as follows:[5]

1. To enhance institution building for the training activities under the project through:

    a) identification and establishment of demonstration/pilot projects

b) strengthening existing national training institutions responsible for the project and networking them

c) developing model training materials based on APPEAL Training Materials for Literacy Personnel (ATLP).

2. To organize national training courses for key personnel at the national and sub-national levels preferably using demonstration and pilot areas as training field sites.

3. To assist participation in development and publication of specially designed reading materials for new learners, and readers with limited reading skills.

The scope of the project included:

♦ **creating** some replicable projects in each country to demonstrate how education can be shaped in order to increase the contribution of women and girls to development;

♦ **setting up and strengthening** training institutions capable of developing training curricula, materials and evaluation systems and incorporating them into a network of other training institutes in the country to share expertise and facilities;

♦ **training** key literacy and basic education trainers at the regional and sub-regional levels who in turn will develop training materials and conduct training at the national and sub-national levels;

♦ **developing** through the operational training workshops, training manuals, guidebooks, and exemplary individual self-learning packages for training local supervisors and instructors at national and local levels using ATLP as a model;

♦ **developing** in each of the participating countries, at the training workshops, book and non-book materials such as posters, charts, wall newspapers, and magazines including folk art and folk media; and

♦ **training** at the national and sub-national levels approximately 1,800 instructors/ supervisors.

National-level responses under the project were ensured by expecting all participating governments to do the following inputs:

♦ **Analyze the learning needs** of the target group as a basis for the development of curriculum and training materials for integrated education programmes for girls and women including assessment of the adequacy and appropriateness of existing educational provisions and resource support.

♦ **Assign suitable institutions and persons** to participate in the regional workshops and continue to pay their salaries during the period of training.

♦ **Promote services** of specialists and exchange of resource persons, among the countries implementing the project.

♦ **Make provision** of staff, facilities, equipment and related services including necessary support for organization and hosting of workshops, study visits and attachments.

♦ **Carry out** national and local-level training activities as follow-up of regional and/or sub-regional workshops and training courses.

♦ **Expand** project activities to cover other areas within the country.

♦ **Identify** continuously agencies and persons whose participation and contribution to the promotion of women's and girls' education is needed.

Although the project was initially planned to begin in August 1989, its implementation was postponed by one year because of the need to negotiate carefully with participating countries. Of the originally proposed ten countries, Bangladesh, Bhutan, China, Laos, Myanmar, Papua New Guinea and Viet Nam have fully participated. As the project was implemented from 1990 through 1994 however, it attracted considerable interest in the region and other countries became involved in spin-off and complementary activities funded separately from sources such as the UNESCO regular programme, UNICEF and the UN Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP), as well as national budgets. Several countries not originally participating sent participants to various regional and sub-regional project workshops under the project and also initiated in-country activities of their own, thus extending the scope and impact of the project. For example, ESCAP, with the support of UNICEF, adopted aspects of the project and incorporated them into its Sub-regional Project for Literacy for Female Youth, funded by the Japanese government through ESCAP and conducted with PROAP's technical assistance. This project implemented sub-regional training workshops which led to national workshops in Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Laos, Pakistan and Sri Lanka. Materials were produced by these national workshops based on the empowerment approach advocated by the UNESCO-UNDP project. Support was also provided for programmes in Malaysia, Pakistan and Thailand from the UNESCO regular programme and other sources.

C Key activities

Between 1991 and 1994, the following activities were undertaken:

1. Establishment and strengthening of focal point institutions (FPIs) in each participating country, including provision of appropriate equipment.

2. Conducting a series of regional and national workshops to train personnel and developing prototype training materials.

3. Development of a training manual to assist personnel in the design of effective training programmes and materials based on the principle of empowerment.

4. Publications in English of a wide range of the prototype materials developed during the workshops.

5. Assistance to Member States in designing and implementing effective training programmes utilizing materials developed during the workshops later.

6. Assistance to Member States in the expansion of their training programmes and in improving the quality of the programmes to ensure achievement of the goals of APPEAL.

Each of these activities is described and discussed below:

1. Focal point institutions

All seven participating countries nominated "focal point" institutions and demonstration sites for implementing the project.[8]

Country	Focal point institution
Bangladesh	Dhaka Ahsania Mission
Bhutan	Dzongkha Development Commission, National Women's Association of Bhutan
China	Yunnan Education Commission and Hunan Education Commission
Laos	Lao Women's Union in co-operation with the Department of Literacy and Adult Education, Ministry of Education and Sports
Myanmar	Myanmar Educational Research Bureau, Ministry of Education
Papua New Guinea	National Women's Division, Department of Home Affairs and Youth
Viet Nam	Continuing Education Department, Ministry of Education and Training, Viet Nam Women's Union

Each focal point institution established an implementation committee. These committees organize meetings of experts to finalize and implement country action plans. They work co-operatively with other agencies such as UNICEF, World Food Programme (WFP), United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) and various international NGOs such as REDD BARNA and Save the Children.

An important result of the project has been the improvement in the capability and capacity of participating institutions. To this end UNESCO PROAP has provided technical assistance and Thailand's Department of Non-formal Education has supported an institution building programme. The latter involved the field test of training methods and the organization in December 1990 of a series of study visits to appropriate centres in Thailand.

Institution building was also strengthened through a key regional workshop held in Kunming, China in July 1990 for the planning of women's literacy programmes, which was attended by participants from all focal point institutions.[9] The workshop provided training in the following areas: (i) awareness of gender issues; (ii) development and implementation of national implementation plans; (iii) development of skills-based literacy programmes for women and (iv) networking. At this workshop, there was an important policy decision to focus on women's work both at home and in the work place.

Each participating institution also received equipment. Some (in Bhutan, China, Myanmar, Papua New Guinea and Viet Nam) received further support from UNESCO technical advisory missions.

2. Regional workshops

Since the core activity of the project was to provide training for personnel working in the area of literacy for women, it was important to develop an effective training manual for use by all participating Member States. In 1993, a training manual, *Educate to Empower: A Manual for Trainers*, was published by UNESCO PROAP.[10] This manual was the result of a series of regional and national-level workshops, some of which were funded under the project and some under the regular programme of UNESCO. Under the project three workshops took place, one in Trivandrum, India, in February 1991[11] and two in Hua Hin, Thailand in November 1991[12] and June 1992.[13] These three workshops trained over 90 participants from the seven participating countries and from four other countries outside the project, namely India, Pakistan, Philippines and Thailand.

These three regional workshops sensitized participants to gender issues and provided training in the design and development of curriculum units and training materials. Sample materials including learner's workbooks, teacher's guides, teaching resources, and instructional aids were produced. Fifty-three curricular units were produced and have been used as training resources for other regional, sub-regional and national workshops. UNESCO PROAP has printed 36 of the booklets and is currently (November 1994) printing a further series of 14 (see Section 4) below).

Three related workshops were organized under the UNESCO regular programme. One of them was organized in Melbourne, Australia. The workshop theme was the elimination of sex stereotyping in schools.[14] The two other regional workshops for the Development of Materials for Women's Self-reliance were held in Chiang Rai, Thailand in October 1990.[15]and in Chiang Mai, Thailand in July-August 1991.[16] These two workshops involved participants from all project countries. They focused on literacy training to enhance the status of women by emphasizing functional work and domestic skills. These two workshops produced a further series of 29 booklets in the form of reading materials for use in national level activities under the project (see Section 4) below).

Funding from the UNESCO regular programme, together with support from UNICEF, UNDP and ESCAP, was also used to increase participation in the three regional workshops and for national level workshops in several of the participating countries.

A feature of each of the workshops was the careful selection of personnel. Both men and women participated. The main criterion for selection was that all were either working directly in programmes focusing on the educational needs of women or were involved in determining policy in that area. Most were practitioners responsible for organizing and implementing literacy training for women within their respective countries.

The workshops:

♦ Strengthened awareness about gender issues amongst key policy-makers and trainers working in the area of women's literacy.

♦ Provided training to a cadre of personnel in the techniques of curriculum design and the development of materials for the empowerment of women and girls;

♦ Developed a series of training materials for use in adult literacy programmes for women and female youth;

◆ Established training systems for women's literacy in countries where this remains a high priority; and

◆ Produced the training manual *Educate to Empower* which has been widely used in the region.

From different perspectives, the concept of **empowerment** emerged as the main theme for literacy training materials. The empowerment issues identified by workshop participants have inspired the various topics covered by the curriculum units and other training materials.

3. The Training Manual – Educate to Empower

The programme processes and procedures in the series of workshops described above were summed up in a manual, *Educate to Empower – A Manual for Trainers*, put together by the staff of UNESCO PROAP in 1993 based on the results of the workshops.

The aims of the manual are as follows:[17]

◆ To raise participants' gender awareness and relate it to the organization of literacy programmes for women.

◆ To familiarize participants with the principles of curriculum development based on existing materials.

◆ To promote skills acquisition by providing hands-on experience in developing curricula for skills-based literacy programmes for women.

◆ To develop sample curricular units.

4. Publication of prototype materials

Almost all materials produced in various regional workshops were published in draft form. Many of them were considered to be of sufficiently high quality to be given wider currency. UNESCO PROAP, therefore, undertook to edit and print four series of curriculum units and supplementary reading materials based on the products of the workshops. These were released between 1991 and 1994 in English language editions. The purpose of printing them was to provide exemplars based on the actual experience of practitioners. They were not necessarily intended to be used in any particular programme (although many could) but to provide guidelines and examples of approaches which could be adapted to meet local needs.

There are two series of training booklets based on the results of the second and third regional workshops, Hua Hin, Thailand, held in November 1991 and June 1992:

◆ Self-reliant Women   18 titles [18]

◆ Empowered Women   14 titles [19]

Each booklet represents a unit in a literacy training curriculum for women and includes a learner's workbook and a teacher's guide and is accompanied by teaching materials and instructional aids. Each is based on a needs assessment undertaken by the author before he or she joined the workshop and thus reflects the real situation in the author's country. Each learner's workbook involves a wide variety of active learning methods. These methods include songs and dances, games, exercises,

drawing pictures, analyzing audio-visual materials, case studies, textual analysis, group discussion, individual reading, individual work and coaching.[20]

The teacher's guide in each volume is presented in detail following the input-process-output design. The guide gives instructions on how to present each step including information on timing, grouping and resources needed. In this way, the guide becomes a tool for training trainers and increases the likelihood of successful implementation by improving the quality of instruction.

Two other series of booklets in English have also resulted from regional workshops.[21, 22] These are in the form of readers and not curriculum units. They are intended as possible resources for the development of training manuals of the type exemplified by the two sets of curriculum units described above.

As in the case of the curriculum units, each reader is based on a needs analysis undertaken by the author before attending the relevant writing workshop.

The reading booklets in the two series have the following characteristics:

♦ They represent various levels of literacy skill and so can be sequenced into a structured literacy curriculum.

♦ The content is functional and reflects empowerment issues.

♦ They encourage the learner's active participation through questions and discussion.

♦ Each booklet has a helpful set of notes and guidelines for the facilitator or teacher.

♦ Most provide a summary which stresses the main events and issues covered by the text.

♦ Each is lavishly illustrated showing the actual situation and way-of-life of the culture of the author.

♦ Each places the reader in a situation to which she can relate in terms of her own life.

The booklets are intended to be used in national literacy programmes after adaptation to meet local needs. They also provide models to help Member States produce similar resources which not only develop skills in reading, writing and numeracy but also sensitize readers to gender-related views and empowerment.

Analysis of the titles indicates that the major emphasis is on "women in work". While other aspects have been covered, most titles deal with work in the home and also in employment. This is because, at the original planning meeting held in Kunming in 1990 participants agreed that this should be the main focus.[23]

5. National level training and materials

Development objectives of the project aim at assisting Member States to improve women's and girl's access to education and to provide to education which is relevant to their needs and circumstances. The main thrust has been to raise adult female literacy levels and to make literacy programmes more useful and relevant for women. The activities of the project, therefore, are directed to that purpose. The project was structured and implemented to ensure maximum impact within each of the seven participating countries. The general implementation model to ensure that this occurs is illustrated in Figure 6.1.
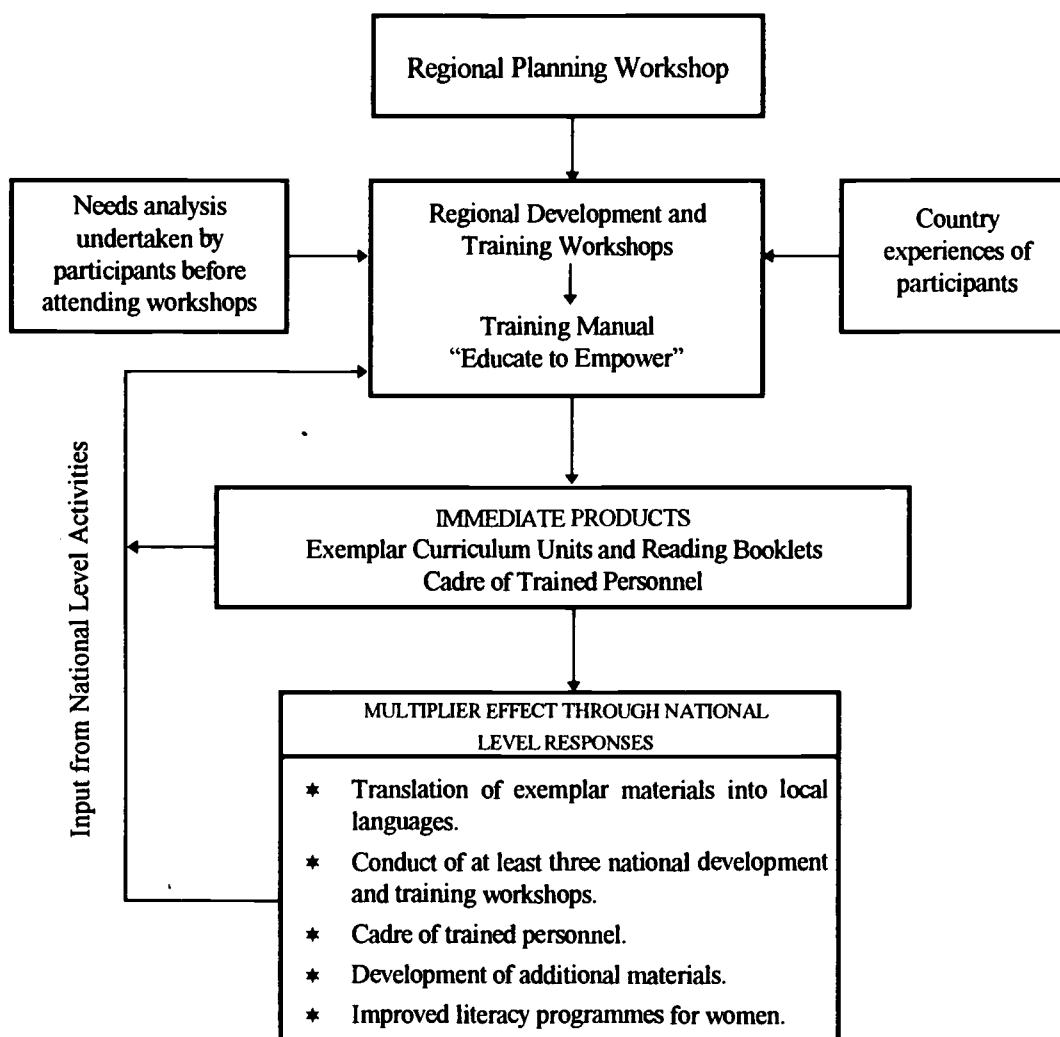
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┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│    Regional Planning Workshop   │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
                 │
                 ▼
┌───────────────────┐   ┌─────────────────────────┐   ┌──────────────────┐
│  Needs analysis   │   │ Regional Development and│   │    Country       │
│  undertaken by    │──▶│   Training Workshops    │◀──│ experiences of   │
│ participants before│  │                         │   │  participants    │
│ attending workshops│  │      Training Manual    │   │                  │
└───────────────────┘   │    "Educate to Empower" │   └──────────────────┘
                        └─────────────────────────┘
                                    │
                                    ▼
        ┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
        │               IMMEDIATE PRODUCTS                      │
        │  Exemplar Curriculum Units and Reading Booklets       │
        │         Cadre of Trained Personnel                    │
        └──────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                                    │
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        ┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
        │       MULTIPLIER EFFECT THROUGH NATIONAL              │
        │               LEVEL RESPONSES                         │
        │  *  Translation of exemplar materials into local     │
        │     languages.                                        │
        │  *  Conduct of at least three national development    │
        │     and training workshops.                           │
        │  *  Cadre of trained personnel.                       │
        │  *  Development of additional materials.              │
        │  *  Improved literacy programmes for women.           │
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Input from National Level Activities

Figure 6.1. Project implementation model to ensure maximum impact at national level.

a) Translation of prototype materials

Following each workshop, all prototype materials were translated into the local languages of the participating countries. They were then used as resources to (i) increase awareness of gender-related issues, especially the principle of empowerment, (ii) assist in materials design and development reflecting empowerment principles, (iii) train trainers' skills and (iv) train leadership skills required for the qualitative improvement of women's literacy programmes.

Some Member States also translated their own materials and have used them for national-level training.

b) National workshops

Each participating country has held three national development and training workshops. Each workshop was attended by twenty participants and was conducted by personnel who had attended the regional workshops, together with local support and resource staff.

The national workshops were modeled on regional workshops and thus followed a similar programme and utilized similar procedures. The focus was on skills development. The key resource was the translated version of the training manual, *Educate to Empower*, together with the materials produced at the regional workshops.

Participants in the workshops were leaders, trainers of trainers and resource developers working in the field of literacy for women and girls.

The output of the workshops can be summarized as follows:

♦ A national faculty of trained personnel who can function as trainers of trainers and who can produce appropriate materials for literacy training based on the principle of empowerment.

♦ Sets of curriculum units and reading materials that are being used to improve the quality and relevance of literacy programmes for women and girls.

In addition, a report of each national workshop was produced which summarized the proceedings and in some cases included prototypes of the materials produced.[24]

c) National-level materials

Writers participating in national workshops had two types of materials available to them. These were (i) curriculum units of the types produced by the three regional workshops organized under the project and (ii) supplementary reading materials of the type produced by the two regional workshops held under the regular programme of UNESCO. Both types of materials were therefore produced by the participating countries. By early 1994, 225 items had been published by the seven participating countries:

Bangladesh	28
Bhutan	16
China	8
Laos	16
Myanmar	47
Papua New Guinea	21
Viet Nam	89

Table 6.1 indicates the empowerment themes developed in these materials. In many cases, one publication was used to stress several empowerment themes.[25] By November 1994 approximately 350 titles had been produced and printed in countries such as Bangladesh, Bhutan and China.

Table 6.1.   Empowerment themes reflected in literacy training materials produced
by the seven project countries, 1991-1994

Employment theme	Number of times the theme occurs in materials produced by each country						
	BNG	BHU	CHI	LAO	MYA	PNG	VIE
Awareness raising	13	3	2	1	16	16	24
Confidence building	12	1	–	1	11	7	22
Organization/life planning	7	–	–	–	6	–	3
Status and rights	6	1	–	–	7	4	4
Health and nutrition	1	8	–	5	6	–	14
Parenting/child care	1	3	2	8	4	1	7
Sharing responsibility	7	–	–	2	2	1	7
Environmental issues	1	1	–	1	2	2	4
Entrepreneurial skills	10	2	1	–	8	9	6
Agricultural skills	8	2	5	3	6	5	8
Supportive systems/technology	6	1	5	2	3	–	4
Family planning	–	2	–	–	–	–	3
Motivation to learn	3	–	1	–	1	1	1
Scientific attitude	2	3	6	–	3	1	10

Several other countries have also produced materials based on the empowerment approach. These include India, Malaysia, Maldives, Pakistan, Philippines, Sri Lanka and Thailand.[26] Up to November 1994 Thailand published and distributed 16 illustrated supplementary booklets for promoting productive roles and self-reliance for women. This effort proved to be useful for Malaysia since some of the Thai materials produced for southern Muslim Thais were adapted for use in Malaysia.[27] Malaysia also conducted two national workshops in 1994 and produced 26 booklets based on the approach given in *Educate to Empower*. Pakistan, through the National Education and Training Commission (NETCOM) and the Punjab Social Services Board (PSSB), organized two national workshops (March and November 1993) and produced 41 supplementary reading materials based on the principles of *Educate to Empower*.

These and other initiatives supported by various agencies, such as UNICEF and ESCAP, have ensured that initiatives under the UNDP Project have had a wide impact in the region. In particular, there are now many hundreds of relevant resource materials available for use in literacy training programmes for women and girls ensuring a massive upgrading in the quality of these programmes. The project has provided financial assistance to participating countries to print and distribute the

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materials. These materials are widely used, for example, in village reading centres. Those Member States with lower rates of female literacy have responded enthusiastically and effectively.[28]

5. Expansion of training and resources

The project implementation model has worked effectively in ensuring delivery to and response by participating countries, but the impact has been considerably greater than anticipated.[29] For example, it was originally proposed that 200-250 writers and illustrators be trained but by the end of the project almost 850 men and women had received training, the great majority of them at national and local workshops. Further, there has been considerable qualitative improvement in the competencies of personnel involved in women's literacy. This occurred because participants in the workshops **were working on their own empowerment themselves.** This involvement, together with hands-on practical experience, motivated them to reach high levels of skill while developing curriculum units, facilitators' guides, learners' workbooks and supplementary reading materials.

Similarly, the number and variety of materials produced including the number of copies of each title actually printed have exceeded expectations. In some countries, materials have been produced commercially and sold at low cost to NGOs and other literacy providers, a clear example of the project's multiplier effects.

The project has also made a major impact on public awareness of the need to give a high priority to the education of women and girls. Political will and public support has increased, especially in response to the project's range of advocacy materials, including colourful eye-catching posters.

The influence of the empowerment approach has been evident in the mass media. The project supported the placement of a series of articles in key newspapers in all participating countries. Also, teachers in formal education have begun to use the booklets as supplementary readers and for designing more relevant curriculum units.[30]

UNESCO PROAP has produced a catalogue of all training materials developed under the project. This catalogue describes all items produced at the various regional workshops and the national writing workshops conducted by both participating countries and countries outside the project.[31]

D. *What remains to be done*

While there is no doubt that the UNESCO-UNDP Project Expansion of Skills-based Literacy Programmes for Women and Girls has achieved its immediate objectives, a lot more have to be done to achieve the goals of Education for All.

In the first place, application of the principle of empowerment goes beyond the boundary of education. It touches on all aspects of development – health, agriculture, industry, employment, housing. It is necessary to share experience in personnel training and materials preparation with areas of development other than education. *Educate to Empower* could be adapted for this purpose. Thus the possibilities of integrating the educational effort with that of other development sectors needs to be explored.

In addition, while the success of the project in increasing public support and political will is notable, more can be done. In particular, mass media can be used for advocacy and to heighten

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awareness. Empowerment principles can be made clear to all in a non-threatening and positive way by showing their significance in the lives of both men and women.

The project has also had an impact on formal education in the sense that project materials are being used in schools. What is needed is a more systematic approach to curriculum reform giving greater attention to gender issues and the principles of empowerment.

Finally, while priority has been given to enhancing women's education in countries with low rates of adult female literacy, issues of empowerment are relevant in all countries from the most highly industrialized to the least. Different approaches and strategies are required to meet the needs and circumstances of different countries. Nevertheless, the central principles of empowerment as developed under the project have universal application. Projects need to be designed and implemented to empower all citizens to express their full potential, to explore new alternatives, to contribute to all aspects of development, and to grow in self-reliance, self-esteem and self confidence.

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3. UNDP Project Document *Op.Cit* Note 1 p.1.

4. *Ibid* p. 12.

5 *Ibid* pp 14-17.

6. *Ibid* pp 6-7.

7. *Ibid* p. 11.

8. Progress Performance Report *Op.Cit* Note (2) p. 8 *and* United Nations Development Programme. *Terminal Report of RAS/88/013 Expansion of Skills-based Literacy Programme for Women.* New York, UNDP, November 1994. pp 5-7.

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15. UNESCO-PROAP. APPEAL Writing Workshop to Develop Reading Materials for Women with Limited Reading Skills, 1-10 October 1990, Chiang Rai, Thailand. *Draft Report.* Bangkok, UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, 1990.

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   - *Banana Co-operatives*
   - *Can Women Lead?*
   - *Cashing in on Corn Leaves*
   - *Cattle Grazing for Cash*
   - *Chicken Care*
   - *Expanding Mumu Business*
   - *Food Marketing*
   - *Goat Raising - Cash Key to Choices*
   - *New Weaving Loom*
   - *Organize to Lead*
   - *Planting Bananas, Planting Money*
   - *Poultry Keeping for Cash*
   - *Sharing Responsibilities - Sharing Happiness*
   - *Together We Sell*
   - *Ways to Earn More*
   - *Weaving for Money*
   - *Why Not Educate Girls?*
   - *Women in Gardening*

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   - *Apple Tree, Money Tree*
   - *Better Rice, Better Life*
   - *Century Eggs for Prosperity*
   - *Dried Fish for Sale*
   - *Getting to Know Me*
   - *Mixed Farming for More Money*
   - *More Knowledge, Better Pigs*

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- *Out into the Community*
- *Pig Raising Business*
- *Who Am I?*
- *The Woman I Want to Be*
- *Women in Family Business*
- *Women in Plumbing*
- *Women and Self-Confidence*

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    - *A-Sa-Ma's Broken Dream*
    - *Beautiful Productive Courtyard*
    - *Calculating Women*
    - *The Dark Shadow*
    - *Dekap's Lesson*
    - *Effort*
    - *Home Sweet Home*
    - *Learn to Read and Read to Learn*
    - *Two in One*
    - *We Are Equals*
    - *Women Making Money*
    - *Women's Work, Women's Worth*

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    - *Amena's Dream*
    - *Courageous Girl*
    - *The Changing of a Girl's Life*
    - *Daughters Are Not a Curse*
    - *Do Not Ignore Them*
    - *The Enlightened Men*
    - *Ibu Tati Did It*
    - *Kala – First Woman Magistrate*
    - *Manee's Struggle*
    - *Murderer in Your House*
    - *My Home at Last*
    - *Nahar, the Brave Girl*
    - *No More Hunger*
    - *Sabina Comes Out Into the Light*

- *Water for Life*
- *Woman's Struggle with Pests*
- *Work Together and Share*

23. See Report of Kunming Planning Workshop *Op.Cit*. Note (9).

24. For example, the first national workshop held in Paro, Bhutan, produced a report in three volumes which included the text in English of twenty curricula units developed by participants. These units were subsequently translated into Dzongkha, field-tested and printed.

see

Department of Education Bhutan: *Promoting Literacy and Skills among Women and Youth through Non-formal Education National Workshop on Development of Curriculum Materials from 21 April - 9 May 1992, sponsored by UNESCO and UNICEF. Report in Three Volumes. Thimphu, Royal Government of Bhutan, 1992.*

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Chapter Seven

HOW THE APPEAL RESPONSE WAS DEVELOPED
AND PUT INTO PRACTICE

A. Introduction

The APPEAL programme has a number of special characteristics that have contributed to its success. These include:

1. Integrated approach
2. Developmental rationale
3. Hierarchies of objectives
4. Systems approach
5. Background research
6. Development teams
7. Step-by-step development
8. Exemplary materials
9. APPEAL faculty of experts
10. Regional, sub-regional and national workshops for planning, development and training
11. Follow-up activities
12. An APPEAL regional network
13. Evaluation and impact studies

1. Integrated approach

The three main components of APPEAL, namely Universalization of Primary Education (UPE), Eradication of Illiteracy (EOI), and Continuing Education for Development (CED), are closely integrated and form part of a holistic programme to meet the needs of disadvantaged groups such as women in development (WID) (Figure 7.1).

Integration was achieved in the following manner:

◆ By central coordination at UNESCO/PROAP, Bangkok, under the supervision of a Regional Co-ordinator of APPEAL supported by a Central Executive.[1]

◆ By formulating and working to achieve aims and objectives common to all components.[2]

◆ By establishing a Regional Committee of a Training Network for APPEAL which meets every two years to determine policy and supervises an integrated approach to implementation.[3]

◆ By establishing a network for APPEAL with a contact office in each Member State to exchange information and monitor progress in all component areas of APPEAL.[4]

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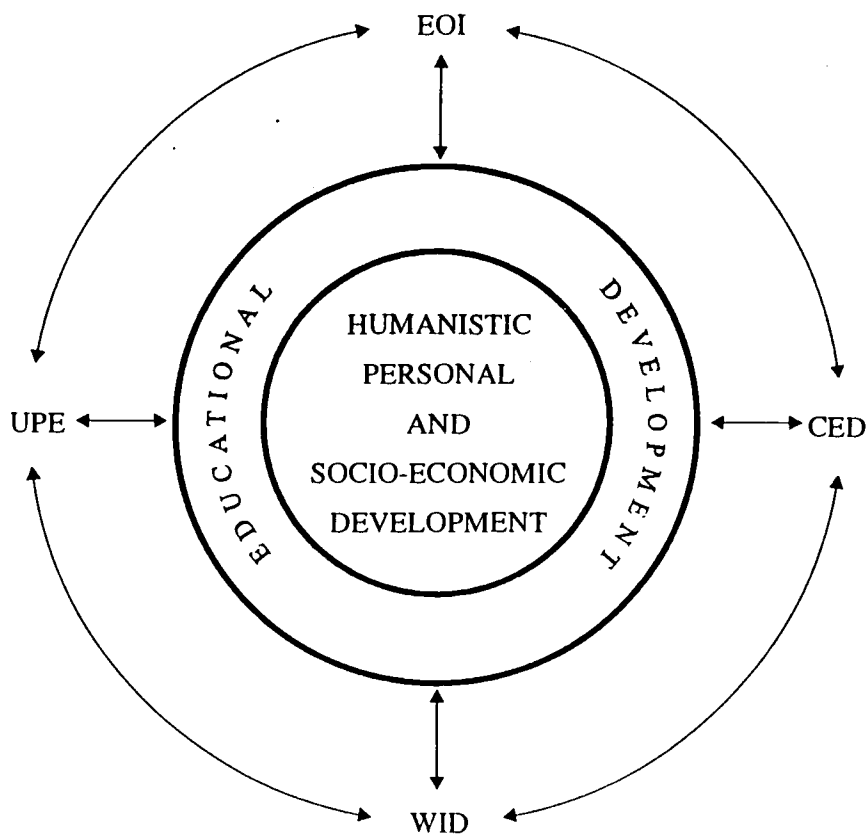
CED: Continuing Education for Development

EOI: Eradication of Illiteracy

UPE: Universalization of Primary Education

WID: Women in Development

Figure 7.1. Integration of the APPEAL components

♦ By issuing regular newsletters, reports and progress statements from UNESCO PROAP covering all components of APPEAL.[5]

♦ By sponsoring regional, sub-regional and national level workshops which focus on more than one component of APPEAL and stress their interrelationships.[6]

♦ By maintaining a panel of experts and consultants who work in more than one area (component) of APPEAL.[7]

♦ By developing, implementing and monitoring work plans at the national level.[8]

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These actions have ensured APPEAL's evolution as a coherent holistic programme of educational development for the region. An attempt has been made to keep the components in balance according to the needs of individual Member States. For example, those states which have high rates of adult illiteracy and have yet to attain universal primary education are encouraged to plan and implement approaches that link these two components while at the same time establishing the basis for strong future developments in continuing education. In countries where the main focus is on the growth of continuing education, encouragement is given to strengthening and improving the quality of basic education and to ensuring a high level of adult literacy so that maximum advantage can be gained from the opportunity to engage in lifelong learning. All Member States are encouraged to give high priority to disadvantaged groups, especially women.

2. Developmental rationale

As discussed earlier, APPEAL is being implemented within a context of holistic human development with a humanistic rather than a purely economic rationale as its basis. A key aim has been to promote in each Member State the development of a comprehensive learning society in which each citizen can grow to his or her full potential. Only in this way can the resources of the population be channeled to ensure maximum sustainable socio-economic growth which ensures adequate standards and the well-being of all. This rationale is vitally important for each component of APPEAL (Figure 7.2).
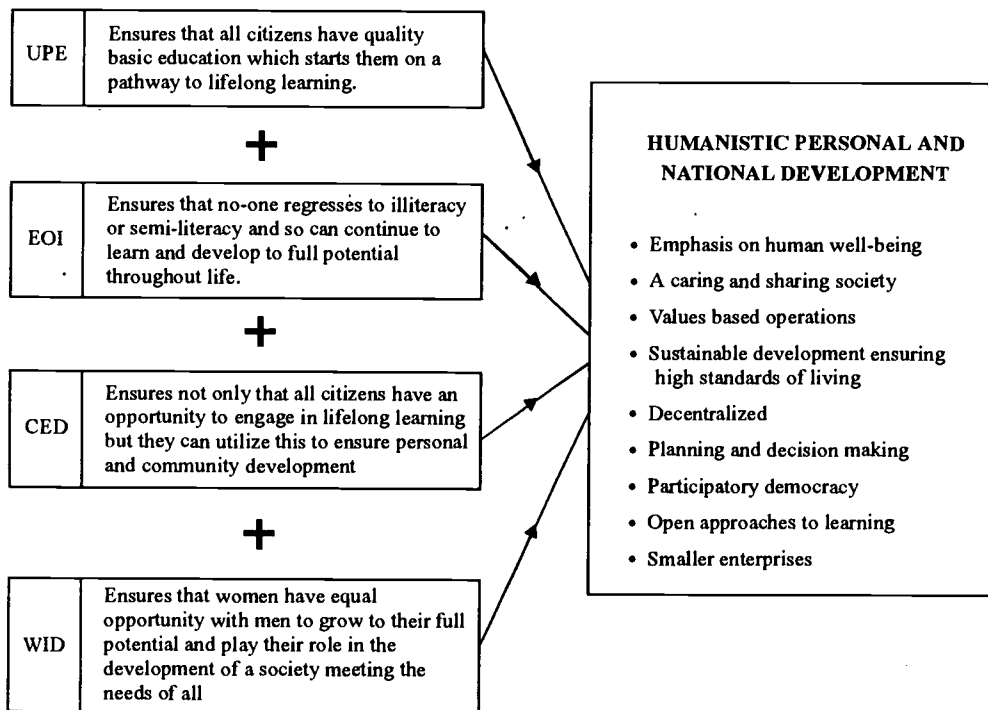
UPE	Ensures that all citizens have quality basic education which starts them on a pathway to lifelong learning.

+

EOI	Ensures that no-one regresses to illiteracy or semi-literacy and so can continue to learn and develop to full potential throughout life.

+

CED	Ensures not only that all citizens have an opportunity to engage in lifelong learning but they can utilize this to ensure personal and community development

+

WID	Ensures that women have equal opportunity with men to grow to their full potential and play their role in the development of a society meeting the needs of all

HUMANISTIC PERSONAL AND NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

- Emphasis on human well-being
- A caring and sharing society
- Values based operations
- Sustainable development ensuring high standards of living
- Decentralized
- Planning and decision making
- Participatory democracy
- Open approaches to learning
- Smaller enterprises

Figure 7.2. The developmental rationale of APPEAL

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This approach has meant that the national-level action plans fostered and promoted under the programme have not been limited to achieving quantitative targets (e.g., increases in the percentage of adult literates) but have linked such advances to specific areas of development. For example, these plans focus on functional literacy, with functionality expressed in terms of those skills necessary for personal and community development. Continuing education similarly has been focused on areas such as raising income levels, improving the quality of life and formulating positive visions of the future,[9] rather than on quantitative expansion and/or establishment of infrastructure.

3. Hierarchies of objectives

An important feature in the development of APPEAL was the clear formulation of goals in terms of carefully stated objectives at each level of operation. This has ensured that while commonalities and integration are stressed, each component programme and each activity under this programme has its unique role which contributes to the achievement of higher-level objectives (Figure 7.3).

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                        ┌──────────────────────┐
                        │   AIMS OF APPEAL     │
                        └──────────────────────┘

    Objectives of   ←→   Objectives of   ←→   Objectives of
        EOI                  UPE                  CED

    EOI Programme    ←→   UPE Programme   ←→   CED Programme
      Objectives           Objectives           Objectives

  Objectives of EOI  ←→  Objectives of UPE  ←→  Objectives of CED
  Programme Elements     Programme Elements     Programme Elements
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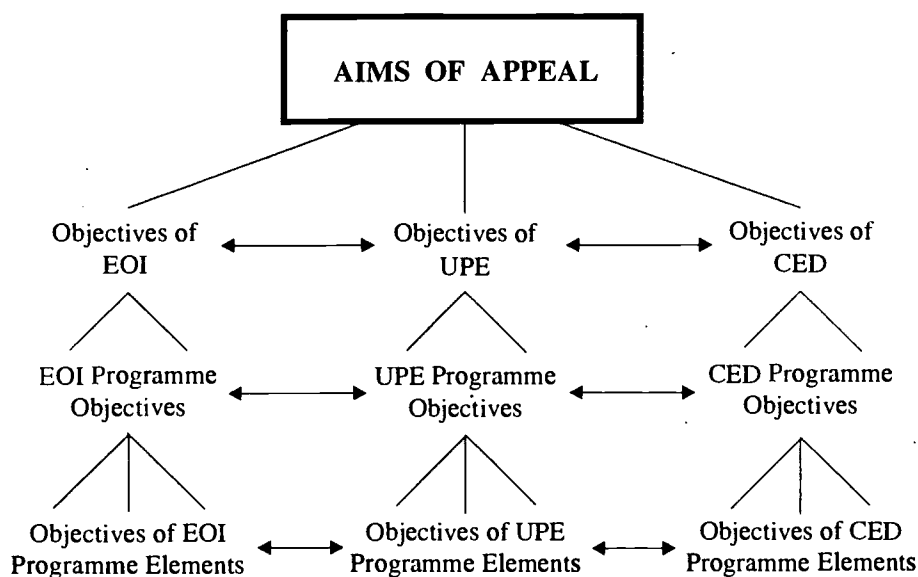
Figure 7.3. Hierarchy of objectives in APPEAL

By specifying aims and objectives in this manner, APPEAL was able to show how each element at each level of the system contributed to the achievement of broader aims and objectives at the level above. It also showed how all elements form part of an integrated whole and how they are integrated both vertically and horizontally. The specification of aims and objectives also facilitated the development of action plans and the implementation of relevant strategies at national levels.

4. Systems approach

Another aspect which helped to ensure coherence, integration and effective implementation of most aspects of APPEAL has been the consistent application of a systems approach to design and development. In very general terms, this is summarized in Figure 7.4.
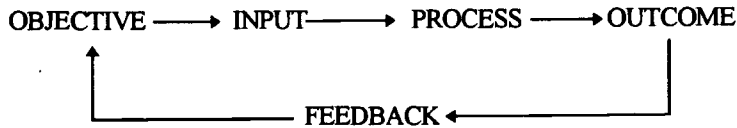
OBJECTIVE ⟶ INPUT ⟶ PROCESS ⟶ OUTCOME

FEEDBACK ◄

Figure 7.4. The generalized systems approach applied to most aspects of the development and implementation of APPEAL[10]

This approach was variously applied according to the particular needs of the programme. For example, the development of a training curriculum for basic education (ATLP) and for various types of courses in continuing education follows a systems approach to curriculum design and implementation as shown in Figure 7.5.[11]
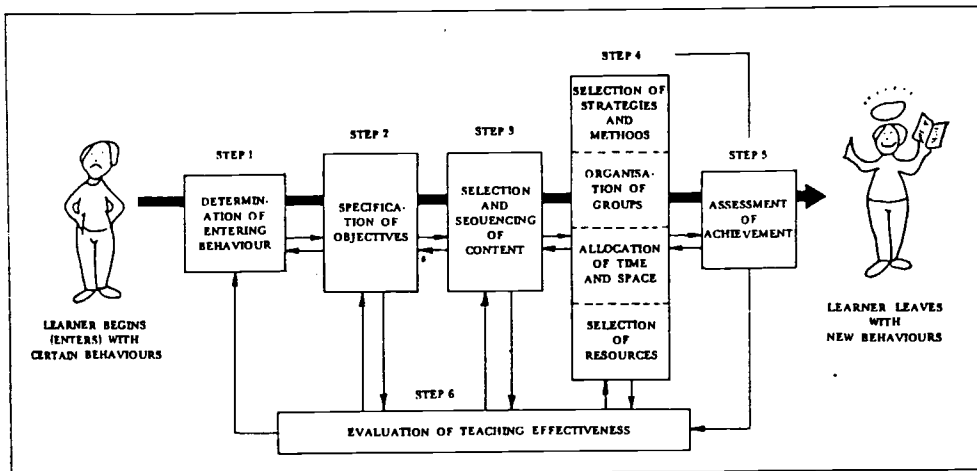
Figure 7.5. The systems approach to curriculum development as applied in ATLP and ATLP-CE

In the case of materials design and development, a "condensed" systems model is applied for designing, organizing and linking the various steps in each of the learning activities. It is based on input-process-output cycles as shown below (Figure 7.6).[12]

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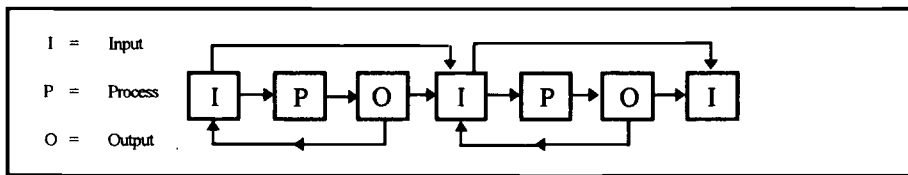
**Figure 7.6. A systems approach to the design of learning materials
as applied in various aspects of APPEAL**

Similarly, in developing any of the types of continuing education programme, a systems approach is also used to establish a coherent framework (Figure 7.7).[13]
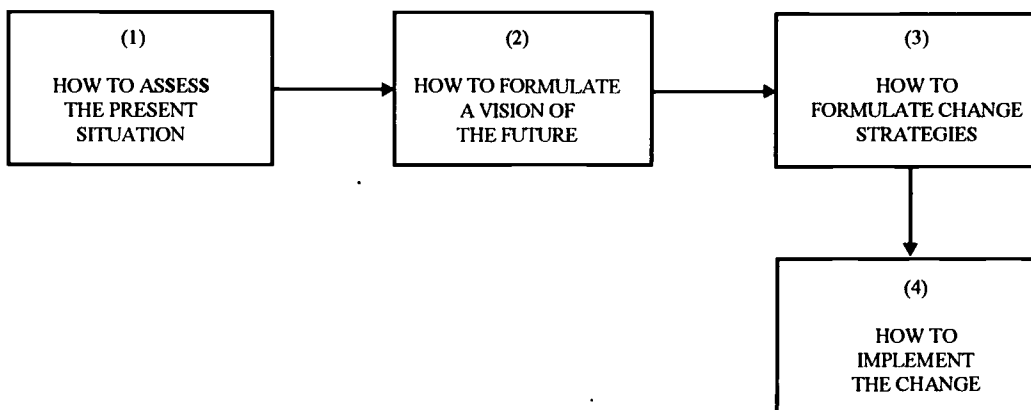

**Figure 7.7. The framework for developing various types of continuing education
under ATLP-CE is based on the systems approach. In this case,
the framework is for a Future-Oriented Programme (FOP)**

This consistency in approach to the overall conceptual development of most aspects of APPEAL projects facilitates a holistic interpretation and implementation.

5. Background research

All components of APPEAL have been based on a strong research input to ensure that each aspect of each project meets genuine needs and is appropriate and effective for the diverse situations in the Member States of the region. This aspect is illustrated in Figure 7.8.

In areas such as UPE, EOI and CED, it is important to have a clear overview of current practice. Information has been obtained in the following ways:
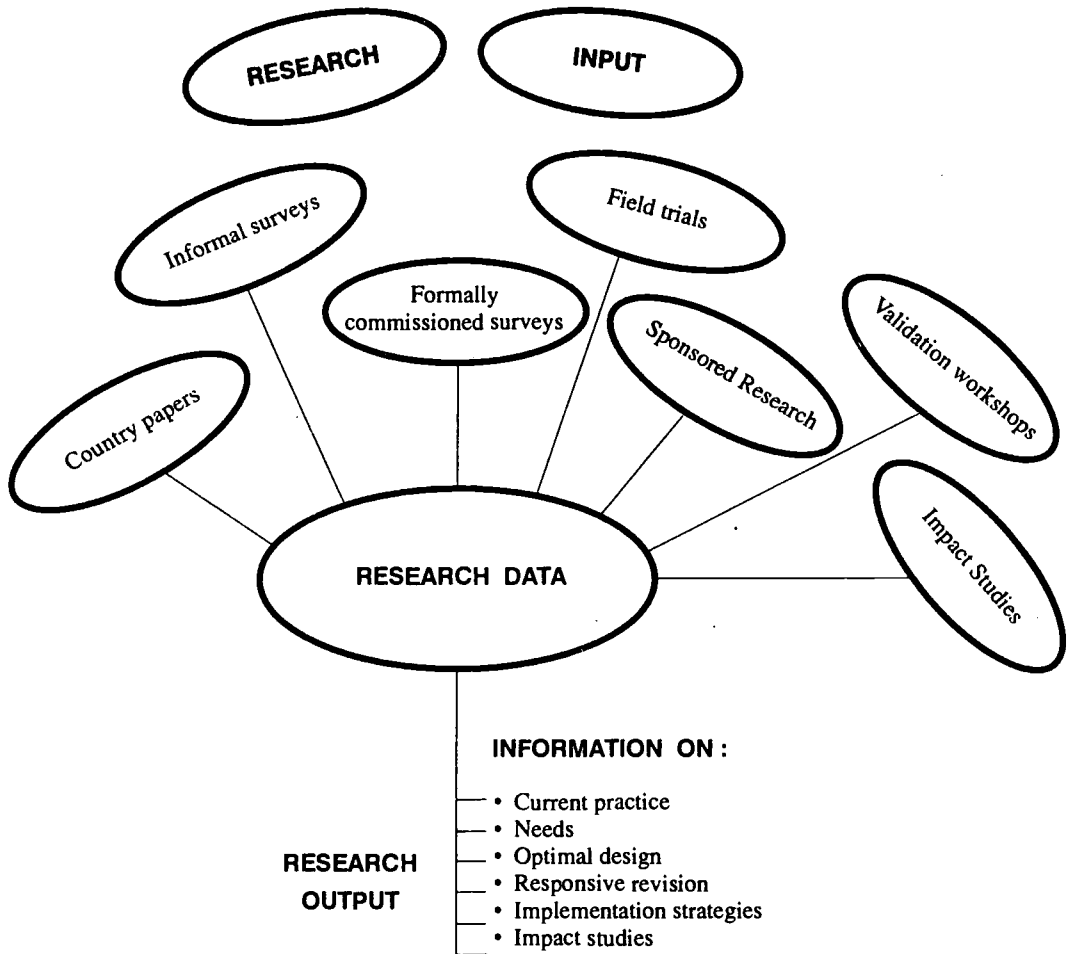
The diagram shows ovals: RESEARCH, INPUT, Informal surveys, Field trials, Formally commissioned surveys, Sponsored Research, Validation workshops, Country papers, Impact Studies, all connected to a central oval RESEARCH DATA.

INFORMATION ON :

RESEARCH
OUTPUT

- Current practice
- Needs
- Optimal design
- Responsive revision
- Implementation strategies
- Impact studies

Figure 7.8. The various aspects of APPEAL are based on a sound basis in research

♦ Supplied informally through National Commissions for UNESCO, APPEAL and APEID National Centres, by participants attending regional and sub-regional workshops and by correspondence with key personnel in specific areas of concern.

♦ Presented in papers read at various planning and development meetings, seminars and workshops at regional, sub-regional and national levels.

♦ Data obtained by special fact-finding teams visiting Member States where current practices were especially diverse and certain approaches were proving to be more effective than others (see ATLP-CE, Volume V on Income-Generating Programmes).

♦ Sponsored studies in Member States.

The validity and effectiveness of various models and designs were checked by research based on field trials. For example:

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♦ The systems approach to the design of literacy training materials under ATLP (the IPO model) was tested by a field trial in a village in Nepal (see ATLP, Volume II).

♦ The framework for the APPEAL approach to post-literacy types of continuing education was field tested in North Korea where post-literacy was a major feature of work-based continuing education (see ATLP-CE, Volume II on post-literacy).

The validity of each new volume produced under APPEAL was checked by having key personnel attending a relevant regional or sub-regional workshop read the first draft. Suggestions for improvement were taken into consideration in preparing the final edition.

In some instances relevant research projects were directly sponsored by APPEAL. An example was in the area of national literacy studies where a series of in-country research studies sponsored by APPEAL and partially funded by UNESCO/PROAP resulted from the APPEAL Sub-Regional Workshop on Research Design for Functional Literacy held in Seoul, Republic of Korea, 26 April - 1 May 1993.[14] The overall impact of various aspects of APPEAL has also been the subject of research.[21]

Research has enhanced the credibility of various APPEAL projects. It has helped to ensure wide-spread acceptance and smooth implementation.

6. Development teams

Each major task of an APPEAL project is the responsibility of a specialized development team (Figure 7.9).

Regional authors	**Regional co-ordinators**	**National level implementers**
Representing:-		
♦ Selected Member States	♦ Staff of UNESCO PROAP	♦ Workshop participants
♦ Policy makers, planners, developers	♦ Specialist consultants	♦ Staff of UNESCO National Commissions
♦ Practitioners	♦ Editors, artists, publishers	♦ Staff of APEID and APPEAL Centres
♦ Specialist educators		♦ Local policy-makers planners and developers
		♦ Local practitioners

Figure 7.9. A specially recruited development team is responsible for each major task of an APPEAL project

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An important feature is that, while each team is specially identified to perform a particular task, project continuity is ensured by maintaining some overlap in personnel from task to task. However, new people are added to the team for each task according to need. This also ensures that the number and diversity of personnel concerned with the development of APPEAL projects as a whole are fully representative, and that a growing body of expertise is available for future development and effective implementation. For example, in producing the twelve volumes of ATLP, a team of more than thirty part-time experts from sixteen Member States was involved together with a cadre of full-time staff from UNESCO PROAP.

APPEAL maintains an up-to-date register of all personnel who have been involved in the development of any aspect of the programme. In this way, people with the potential to contribute to further development can be easily contacted for additional tasks.

7. Step-by-step development

The immediate product of most projects has been a series of volumes developed at the regional level which provide frameworks for national-level action. Each element has followed a step-by-step development based on a systems approach. These steps are set out in the following diagram (Figure 7.10).
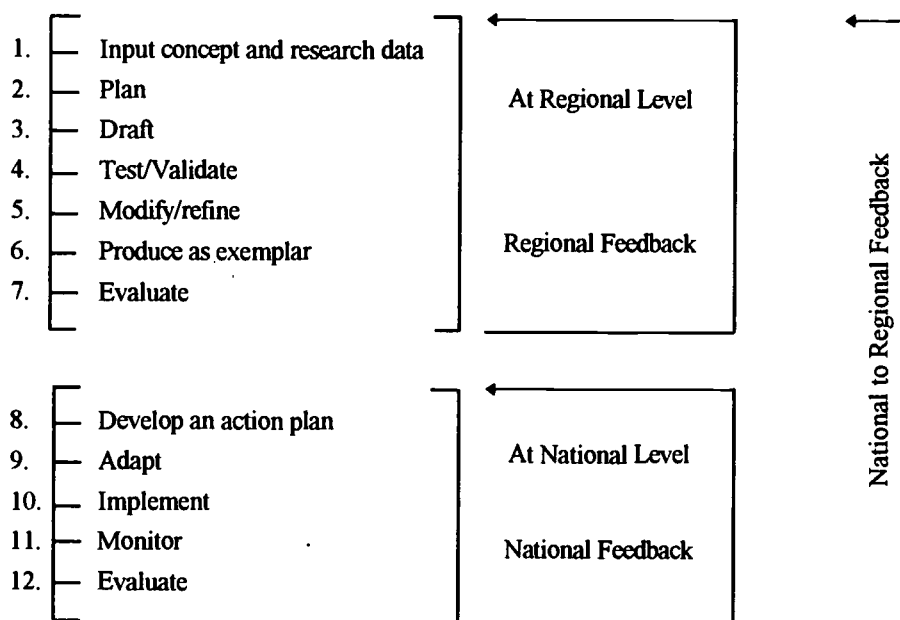
```
1. ── Input concept and research data
2. ── Plan                                At Regional Level
3. ── Draft
4. ── Test/Validate
5. ── Modify/refine
6. ── Produce as exemplar                 Regional Feedback
7. ── Evaluate

                                                                    National to Regional Feedback

8. ── Develop an action plan
9. ── Adapt                               At National Level
10. ── Implement
11. ── Monitor
12. ── Evaluate                           National Feedback
```

Figure 7.10.   **All aspects of APPEAL are systematically developed
in a step-by-step process**

Each step in the process is tested and refined and provides feedback for a further refinement and improvement of all previous steps. In practice, the development is not strictly linear as some elements may be developed in blocks. For example, some volumes of a particular series could be developed by a combined workshop and validated either together or separately.

Another feature of the development of various projects under APPEAL has been their careful phasing within a holistic action plan. This is illustrated below in Figure 7.11.
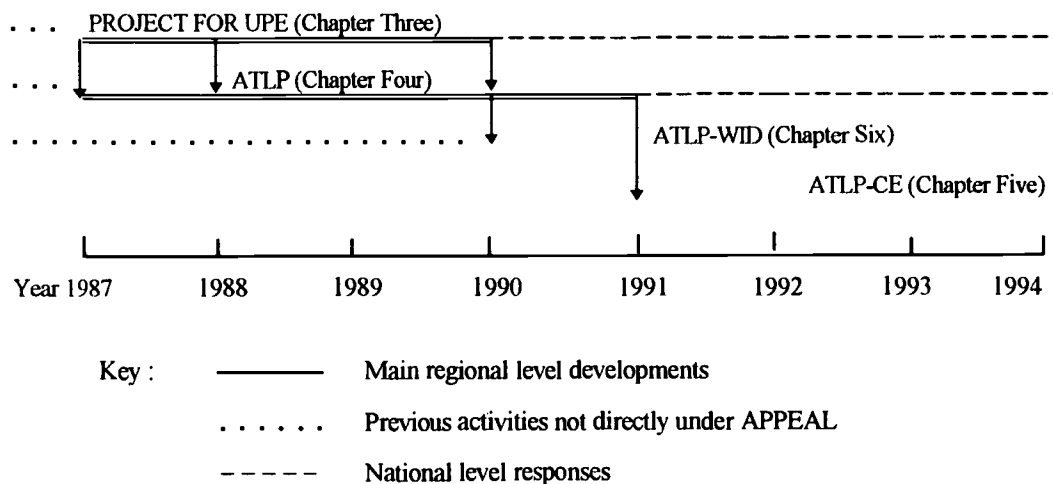

Key : ──────── Main regional level developments

. . . . . . Previous activities not directly under APPEAL

─ ─ ─ ─ National level responses

**Figure 7.11.   Phased integrated action plan for the development
of the main components of APPEAL**

In this figure, the vertical cross connections are intended to show how each area of development has contributed to the emergence and continuity of other elements. This type of planning has enabled all components of APPEAL to develop holistically and has contributed to the appropriate timing of implementation.

8.   Exemplary materials

For all three components of APPEAL, the purpose of project activities has been to produce guidelines and models at the regional level which can then be used by Member States to plan and develop their own materials and programmes. Nothing produced under APPEAL is intended to be directly used by any Member State without adaptation to meet local needs in response to local circumstances. In essence, all materials developed at the regional level have been produced in the form of "planners" for development of programmes and activities at the national level.

The materials themselves are the products of working groups of experts and practitioners fully representative of the knowledge found in the region. They reflect the views, current practices, present state of development and aspirations of the Member States.

Responses to the materials have initially been in the form of action plans produced by participants attending the various regional committee meetings and regional and sub-regional workshops convened for Member States under APPEAL. These plans have then been implemented either wholly or in part by the Member States involved.

In each action plan, the APPEAL materials were recognized as valuable exemplars for the implementation of innovative programmes in the fields of adult literacy and continuing education.

Further responses emerged from regional and sub-regional training workshops organized from 1991 to 1994.

9. An appeal faculty of experts

An important feature of the procedures followed by APPEAL for the development of projects, the training of personnel and the implementation of activities at the national level has been the formation of a competent and experienced faculty of regional experts (Figure 7.12).
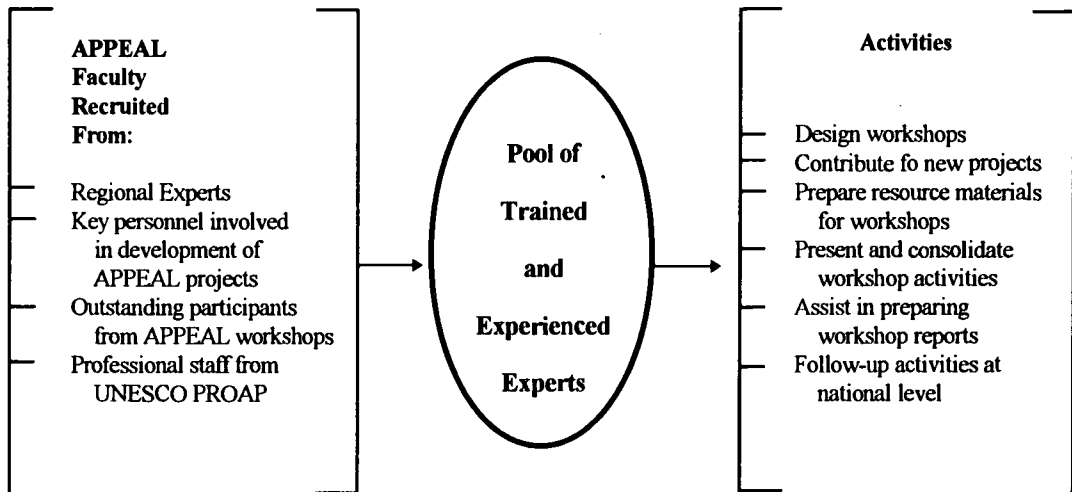

APPEAL Faculty Recruited From:

- Regional Experts
- Key personnel involved in development of APPEAL projects
- Outstanding participants from APPEAL workshops
- Professional staff from UNESCO PROAP

Pool of Trained and Experienced Experts

Activities

- Design workshops
- Contribute fo new projects
- Prepare resource materials for workshops
- Present and consolidate workshop activities
- Assist in preparing workshop reports
- Follow-up activities at national level

Figure 7.12. Recruitment and activities of an APPEAL faculty

All regional experts who contribute to the various development projects under APPEAL, together with outstanding participants from APPEAL regional and sub-regional workshops, form a cadre of experts who can be called upon to assist APPEAL in its various developmental tasks, especially in its training workshops. They are registered as APPEAL Faculty Members and their experience and specialized skills are noted in the register. Groups are then formed for particular tasks.

For example, the first Regional Workshop for Training of Continuing Education Personnel held in Chiang Mai, Thailand, 13-23 August 1993, was especially important for implementing the ATLP-CE programme involving 52 participants and observers plus seventeen local continuing educators from 25 countries. To ensure success UNESCO PROAP recruited a group of eighteen experts from its faculty pool to design and present the workshop. Thus there was a trainee/presenter ratio of less than four to one ensuring highly personalized training. The faculty members were brought together two weeks in advance of the participants to design the programme and to prepare support materials such as displays, posters and printed instructional materials. In presenting the workshop activities the faculty members worked in teams to ensure that all participants benefited fully from the different backgrounds and skills of the instructors.

In forming the faculty group for any particular activity such as a training workshop, care is taken to include a group of local experts from the host country. This is an important principle because

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it facilitates local liaison especially in areas such as the selection and organization of venues, the organization of field visits and the cooperative support of organizations and individuals working with APPEAL to ensure the success of the activity.

The existence of a faculty of this type not only makes it easier to organize international seminars and workshops but also helps in disseminating various APPEAL initiatives and in implementing relevant activities at the national level.

10. Regional, sub-regional and national workshops

Each of the APPEAL projects, whether concerned with UPE, EOI or CED, have been developed in a six-stage process involving workshops of four types at three levels of operation: regional, sub-regional and national. This process is shown diagrammatically in Figure 7.13.


```
I. REGIONAL PLANNING
        ↓
II. REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION
        ↓
III. REGIONAL TRAINING AND VALIDATION
        ↓
IV. SUB-REGIONAL TRAINING AND VALIDATION
        ↓
V. NATIONAL TRAINING AND VALIDATION
        ↓
VI. NATIONAL IMPLEMENTATION
```
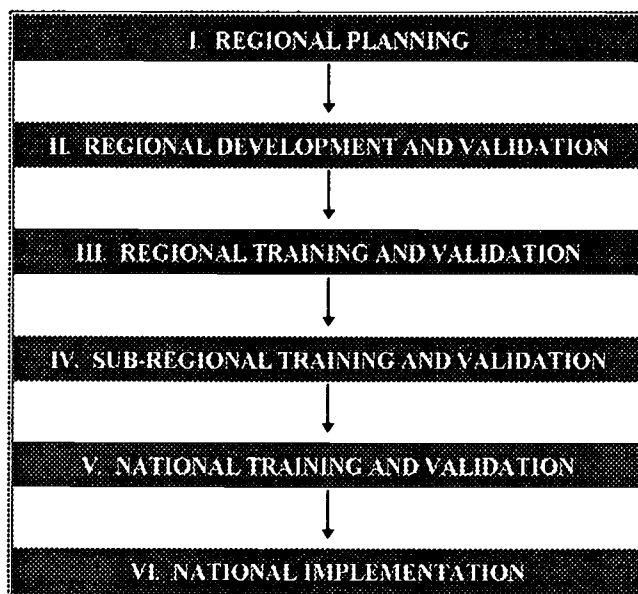
Figure 7.13.   Planning, development and implementation workshops
for the various activities and projects of APPEAL

Each workshop is designed and presented by a group brought together for the purpose. A host country provides the venue and a group of local experts and support personnel. Participants are selected by Member States taking into consideration the guidelines and procedures formulated by UNESCO PROAP under APPEAL.

Each workshop has the following characteristics:

♦   Intended to explain, clarify and disseminate each of the APPEAL projects.

♦   Attended by experts and practitioners in the field.

♦   Participatory and action oriented.

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♦ Future oriented – especially in regard to the development of action plans for implementation at national level.

♦ Sufficiently flexible in design and presentation to meet the diverse needs of participants from different Member States.

♦ Offering various APPEAL products and guidelines for each Member State to use according to its needs and circumstances.

♦ Full-time residential and from one to three weeks in duration.

The outcomes of workshops include:

♦ Heightened awareness of a particular aspect of APPEAL.

♦ Development of skills in designing and implementing relevant APPEAL projects.

♦ Development and implementation of relevant national action plans.

♦ Sharing of country experiences in the subject area of the workshop.

♦ Enhanced appreciation of the contributions of the host country in the subject area of the workshop.

♦ Consolidation and improvements in the expertise of the APPEAL faculty.

11. Follow-up activities

As we have seen, the central aim of all APPEAL projects is principally to stimulate action within Member States for the improvement of UPE, EOI and CED. Inputs by Member States lead to the development of various model projects and activities which are then developed at international workshops and followed up by action in Member States. The systems approach is consistently applied (Figure 7.14).

As action plans are formulated and implemented by Member States, UNESCO PROAP assists and supports them through a variety of follow-up procedures, examples of which include the following:[16]

♦ UNESCO PROAP has published the newsletter *APPEAL 2000* to disseminate information about national and regional activities of APPEAL.

♦ UNESCO PROAP has produced a variety of posters and pamphlets on the status of UPE, EOI and CED and on the activities of APPEAL.

♦ Once a year on Literacy Day, UNESCO PROAP produced a poster or calendar on literacy and distributed it to all Member States.

♦ UNESCO/PROAP works closely with the Press Foundation of Asia and with other international news agencies to provide accurate information on regional issues in the areas of UPE, EOI and CED and on the activities of APPEAL.

♦ To improve the quality and relevance of primary education, UNESCO/PROAP has helped many Member States develop effective national strategies for the improvement of access, retention and quality of primary education by initiating Joint Innovative Projects (JIPs).
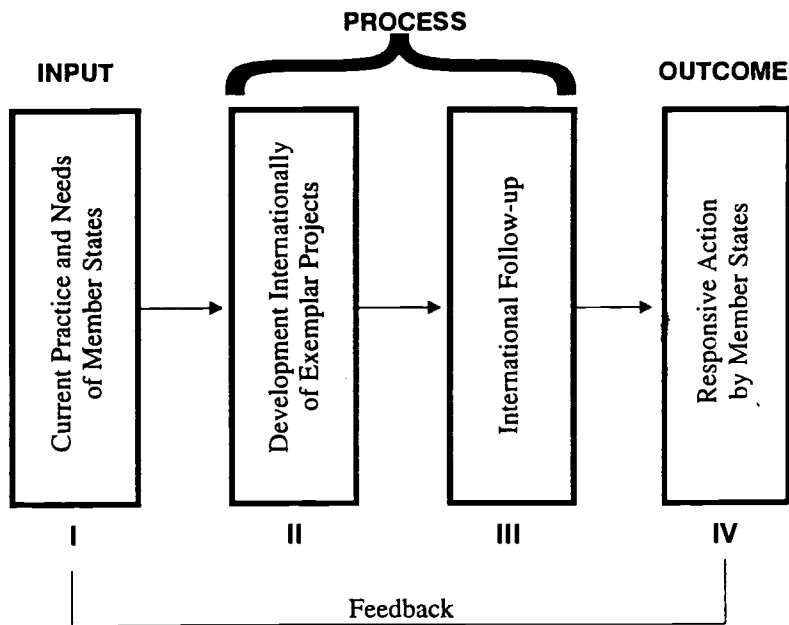
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PROCESS

INPUT   **OUTCOME**

I	II	III	IV
Current Practice and Needs of Member States	Development Internationally of Exemplar Projects	International Follow-up	Responsive Action by Member States

Feedback

**Figure 7.14.   The systems approach to the development and
implementation of APPEAL Projects**

♦   Several Member States have initiated pilot projects to demonstrate effective strategies and methods of achieving Education For All in areas such as literacy development, research into basic literacy levels, access of females to education and innovations in continuing education. APPEAL provides technical and financial support for these pilot projects.

♦   APPEAL has assisted several Member States in the translation of materials.

♦   APPEAL has given financial and technical support to Member States for the organization of follow-up national workshops.

♦   The APPEAL regional network has enabled the exchange of information, experience and expertise.

♦   UNESCO PROAP has promoted and supported joint consultations and research and evaluation studies.

♦   UNESCO PROAP has co-operated with the Asian Cultural Centre for UNESCO, Japan, (ACCU) in the production, dissemination and adaptation of prototype materials for use by neo-literates in continuing education programmes.

♦   APPEAL collects, analyzes, publishes and disseminates information on the implementation of activities in Member States in the areas of UPE, EOI and CED. Specifically, APPEAL has published national studies of eleven Member States – Bangladesh, China, India, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Thailand and Viet Nam.

From June 1989 to December 1991, in the area of national training workshops and development of local materials, APPEAL supported 35 follow-up activities in sixteen countries related to the ATLP project alone.[17] This pattern of activity has continued and similar support has been provided for universal primary education and continuing education for development.

12. An APPEAL regional network

The technical workshop for developing personnel training plans held in Thailand in 1986 recommended setting up a training network for APPEAL to function at regional and national levels in order to tackle the problem of illiteracy and low levels of education. Workshop participants also developed a tentative model of the network and an operational mechanism and recommended that each participating country should establish a National Training Institute (NIT) which would work as a national focal point of the network (see Chapter Two).

After the launching of APPEAL in 1987, a Training Network for APPEAL was set up. By 1993 sixteen Member States had nominated their focal points to be associated with the network (see Chapter Two).

In 1989, the first meeting of the Training Network for APPEAL was held to review progress. This meeting set out recommendations to further strengthen the training network, particularly in relation to the development and implementation of ATLP. A second meeting was held in August 1991 to further review progress.[18]

The model for the network proposed for the support of ATLP as formulated at the 1989 meeting is shown in Figure 7.15.

The four key components of the proposed ATLP network were (i) the formation of a Regional Committee for a Training Network for APPEAL; (ii) the establishment within each Member State of a National Co-ordination Committee for APPEAL; (iii) the designation of a contact organization or institution within each Member State responsible to the National Co-ordination Committee and functioning as a focal point; and (iv) the establishment of an in-country APPEAL network.

The 1991 meeting reported some progress in the establishment and operation of the network, but recommended that it be further developed and strengthened. The objectives of the network were clarified as follows.[19]

- ◆ Set up and strengthen the focal point of a training network at regional, (sub-regional), national and local levels.
- ◆ Plan and sponsor joint research and development programmes for improving training.
- ◆ Disseminate relevant information relating to all network training activities.
- ◆ Exchange ideas and experiences on personnel training.
- ◆ Share materials and physical facilities among networks to organize training programmes.
- ◆ Improve utilization of training expertise available in the network for regional and national training in a spirit of mutual co-operation.
- ◆ Establish and encourage co-operation within the network and liaison among agencies involved in literacy and continuing education training.
- ◆ Establish a database for training opportunities in the network.
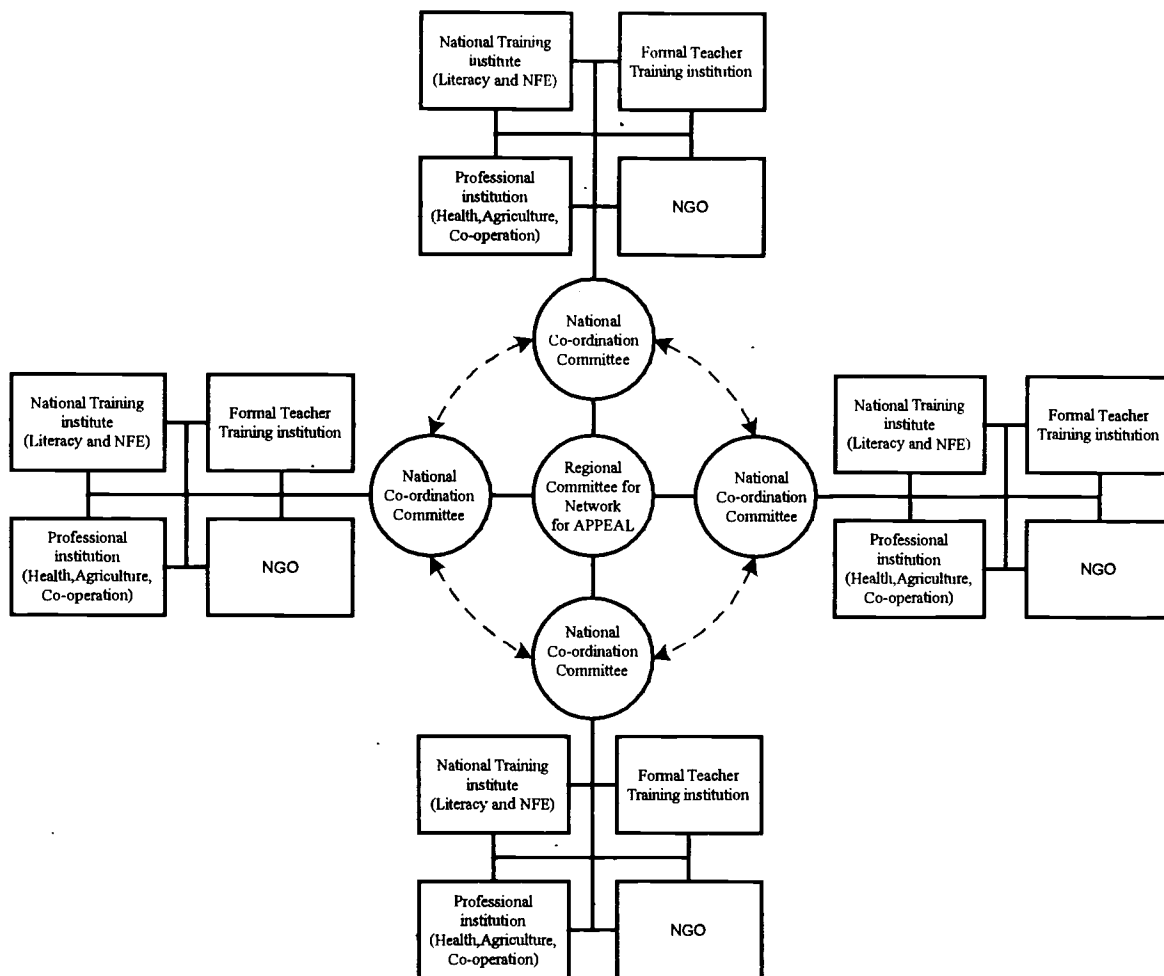- ◆ Encourage mass participation in building appropriate training programmes.

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Figure 7.15. **The APPEAL training network proposed in 1989 in support of the ATLP Project**

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Models were also developed for establishing and strengthening appropriate networks within the Member States. One such model is given below (Figure 7.16).[20]
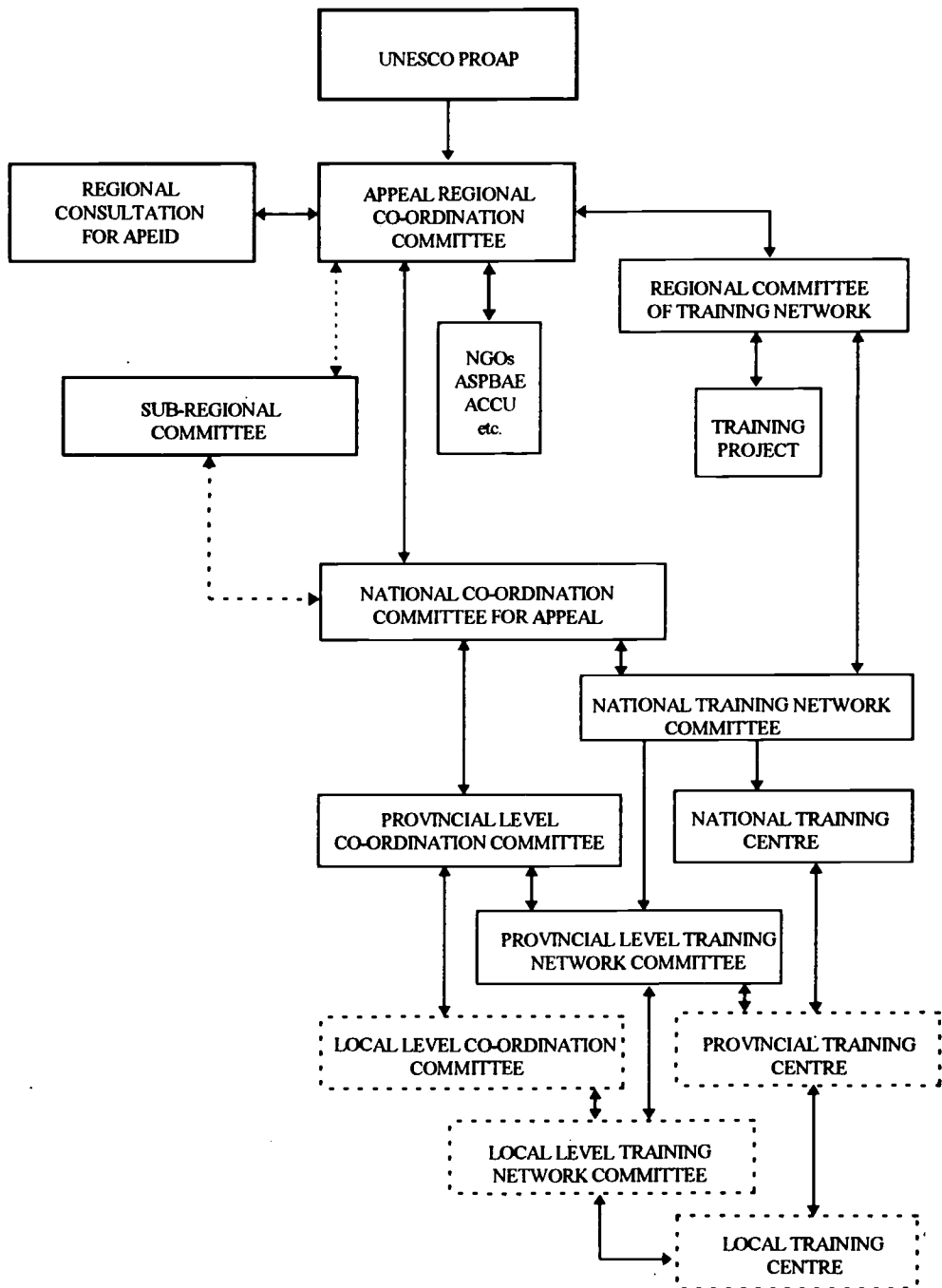

Figure 7.16. One proposal for the relationships between the regional network for APPEAL and national networks

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13. Evaluation and impact studies

A consistent policy of APPEAL has been to promote self-evaluation, especially the long-term impact of various projects. As noted above, an aspect of APPEAL's follow-up strategy has been the promotion of research and evaluation studies by Member States.

At the international level, APPEAL has sponsored a major impact study in the area of EOI, namely an impact evaluation of the ATLP project. Such regional-level impact studies are significant for the following reasons:

♦ They enhance the credibility and acceptance of APPEAL.

♦ They provide models and promote similar studies by Member States.

♦ They provide feedback which facilitates effective implementation.

♦ They identify areas of need for further related projects.

♦ They provide training in the procedures involved in large-scale evaluative studies.

B. Conclusion

APPEAL has generally been received well by Member States of Asia and the Pacific. It has helped to speed up progress towards universalizing primary education and eradicating adult illiteracy. In the area of continuing education, many countries which had begun on an ad hoc basis have now introduced more systematic approaches and have broadened the scope of their lifelong learning activities.

The main factor in the success of APPEAL and its acceptance in the region has been in its reliance on exemplars. Systems have been designed and arranged for ready adaptation and implementation by each Member State according to its needs and circumstances. In essence, APPEAL has offered a blueprint for change without imposing a rigid format. It has been a useful tool for innovative planning in the three areas of its concern.

Another factor in the success of APPEAL has been its holistic approach to educational development achieved in part by the consistent application of a systems approach. This internal consistency has helped make the underlying framework and approach clear to planners, developers and practitioners at all levels.

A third factor ensuring the success of APPEAL has been the timing of implementation of its major programmes. The Coordination Committees and the APPEAL faculty have been forward-looking in planning and have anticipated emerging needs. For example, activities in continuing education were not begun until basic literacy programmes and the strengthening of primary schooling had reached a critical point in development which indicated readiness to proceed in the area of lifelong learning.

A fourth factor in the success has been the emphasis on sound research and current practice as a basis for all projects. This requirement has ensured that the proposals are practicable and realistic and genuinely meet the needs of Member States.

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1. UNESCO/PROAP. *A Regional Study of Asia-Pacific Programme of Education for All (APPEAL) (An Overview)*. Bangkok, UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, 11 November 1988.

2. UNESCO/PROAP. *Asian-Pacific Programme of Education for All (APPEAL)*. Bangkok, UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, 1986.

3. **See for example:**

   UNESCO/PROAP. *APPEAL Training Network for APPEAL*. (Regional Committee Meeting), Chiangmai, Thailand, 1-7 August 1989. Draft Final Report, Bangkok, UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, 1989.

4. *Ibid.*

5. **See for example:**

   Sakya, T.M. *Literacy and Continuing Education for Improvement of Quality of Life: Asia and the Pacific Experience,* Bangkok, UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, 1993.

6. **See for example:**

   UNESCO/PROAP. *Sixth Sub-Regional Workshop for Training of Literacy and Continuing Education Personnel,* Pyongyang, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, 28 August - 12 September 1991, Draft Final Report. Bangkok, UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, 1991.

7. For example, see the list of more than thirty experts who contributed to the various volumes of the ATLP series.

   UNESCO/PROAP. APPEAL Training Materials for Literacy Personnel, Volume I: *Principle of Curriculum Design for Literacy Training.* Bangkok, UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, 1988, pp. 63-70.

8. A feature of all regional and sub-regional training workshops has been the development by participants of in-country action plans.

See for example:

   UNESCO/PROAP. *APPEAL Second Regional Workshop on Continuing Education for Development,* Shijiazhuang City, Hebei Province, People's Republic of China, 16-25 May 1994, Draft Final Report. Bangkok, UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, 1994, pp. 107-108.

9. **See**

   UNESCO/PROAP. APPEAL Training Materials for Continuing Education Personnel (ATLP-CE) Volume I: *Continuing Education: New Policies and Directions.* Bangkok, UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, 1993.

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10. For a comprehensive discussion of the application of systems theory in education.

    See

    Romiszowski, A.J. *Designing Instructional Systems Decision Making in Course Planning and Curriculum Design,* London: Kogan, Page 1981.

11. Meyer, G. Rex. *"The Development of Mini-Courses (with a Basis in Educational Technology) for the In-Service Education of Teachers and Trainers" PLET,* Volume 16, No. 1, February 1979, pp. 23-37.

12. *Ibid.*

13. UNESCO/PROAP. APPEAL Training Materials for Continuing Education Personnel (ATLP-CE) Volume VII: *Future-Oriented Programmes,* Draft Edition. Bangkok, UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, 1994, p. 13.

14. UNESCO/PROAP. *Research Design for Functional Literacy, Report of a Sub-Regional Workshop,* Seoul, Republic of Korea, 26 April - 1 May 1993. Bangkok, UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, 1994.

15. UNESCO/PROAP. *APPEAL Impact Assessment of APPEAL Training Materials for Literacy Personnel (ATLP).* Bangkok, UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, 1992.

16. UNESCO/PROAP. *APPEAL Asia-Pacific Programme of Education for All,* (Introductory Pamphlet). Bangkok, UNESCO Principal Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, n.d.. pp. 1-13.

17. UNESCO/PROAP. Training Network for APPEAL, *Op. Cit* Note (3).

18. UNESCO/PROAP. APPEAL Second Regional Committee Meeting, *Op. Cit.* Note 24.

19. *Ibid,* pp 93-94.

20. *Ibid,* p. 101.

Chapter Eight

APPEAL – WHERE TO NEXT?

A. Present achievements

By November 1994, APPEAL had produced the following resources for use by Member States in their programmes for achieving the goals of Education for All.

♦ A set of planning resources in the form of reports, guidelines and exemplary materials. In particular, resources produced under each component of APPEAL include the following:

- UPE - Reports and guidelines for action at national level.

- EOI - Planning materials, reports and guidelines, and exemplary materials for neoliterates and for improving women's access to education.

- CED - Planning materials for the development of continuing education consisting of the eight volumes of ATLP-CE.

♦ An international team of experienced and qualified experts in APPEAL's areas of concern who can assist Member States in their development activities.

♦ A qualified, experienced and trained international faculty, especially in the areas of UPE, EOI, and CED who can conduct workshops and other training activities at regional, sub-regional and national levels.

♦ A regional network of relevant support agencies which can facilitate co-operative action.

♦ A system of direct support to Member States through the provision of funding and expertise for the implementation of pilot projects, research studies and co-operative programmes.

♦ A cadre of trained key personnel in most Member States who have become familiar with APPEAL materials.

♦ Impact studies and evaluation reports on the scope and effectiveness of APPEAL.

The regional response to these achievements has been very positive. Already many Member States have accelerated their educational development as a result of applying many of the APPEAL principles and procedures. In particular, advances have included the following:

♦ Preparation of national literacy training curricula and materials in certain Member States which had previously lacked such standardized items.

♦ Strengthening of national infrastructure and delivery mechanisms for EOI.

♦ Greater appreciation of the integral nature of UPE, EOI and CED with a consequent strengthening of UPE as a component of lifelong learning.

♦ In almost all Member States, a broadening of the scope of CED to include all six types of continuing education as proposed under ATLP-CE.

♦ In those Member States which had previously made only initial steps in the development of continuing education, a greater appreciation of its nature, significance and scope and the strengthening of infrastructure and delivery mechanisms for lifelong learning.

♦ A greater appreciation in many Member States of the significance of education as a driving force for human development, and therefore as a prerequisite for effective, humanistic and sustainable socio-economic growth.

♦ The beginning of integrated planning and development in the education sector stressing the holistic integration of UPE, EOI, and CED.

♦ Improvements in the professional competency of personnel at all levels working in the areas of UPE, EOI and CED.

APPEAL has established a firm foundation and a useful framework for accelerated educational development in almost all Member States. Each Member State has responded according to its particular needs and circumstances and most likely will continue to make use of the APPEAL models which will help them to achieve their specific aspirations and goals.

B. APPEAL and human development

As discussed earlier, there is an intimate relationship between education and development. .

In the years to come, APPEAL has a clear mission to facilitate the development of education in all Member States. It will also promote an appreciation of the vital relationship between a qualitative improvement in education (including maximizing access to education throughout all stages of life) and the level and quality of community and national development. It will be responsive to the different circumstances and needs of various Member States and help them implement those strategies that will contribute most to the well-being of their citizens.

C. Future response by APPEAL to meet the different needs of Member States

In Chapter One, Asian-Pacific countries were classified according to rates of adult illiteracy. Countries with 1-20 per cent adult illiteracy were grouped into Category A, Category B comprised countries with 21-50 per cent adult illiteracy and Category C countries had 50 per cent or more. Priority needs for these different categories were also described and discussed.

In terms of future policies for APPEAL, different emphases will be required for each of the three groups (Table 8.1).

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Table 8.1: Likely future priorities for APPEAL in three groups of Member States

Category A Countries with highly literate adult population	UPE	As UPE has been achieved by most countries emphasis will need to be on quality improvement and expansion of pre-schooling and compulsory secondary education.
	EOI	A focus on improvements in functional adult literacy.
	CED	Strengthening of infrastructure and delivery and broadening of the scope of CE to ensure close correlation with national development needs.
Category B Countries with moderate levels of adult literacy	UPE	Consolidation of UPE with special attention to disadvantaged groups, especially girls. Improvements in quality.
	EOI	Strengthening adult literacy ensuring that all adults have an opportunity to continue to learn after becoming basically literate.
	CED	Strengthening of infrastructure and promotion of CE in both rural and urban areas, especially for neo-literates.
Category C Countries with relatively low levels of adult literacy	UPE	Improvement in infrastructure and access especially in regard to the needs of women and other disadvantaged groups.
	EOI	Improvement in and expansion of basic literacy programmes with special reference to the needs of women and girls.
	CED	Promotion of post-literacy and of links between CE and work.

Underlying the priorities identified in Table 8.1 is a series of issues and concerns which needs to be addressed under APPEAL.

In December 1994, UNESCO organized a Regional Forum on Education for All: Present and Future Challenges. Participants included high-level officials responsible for Education for All from eighteen Member States of UNESCO, along with representatives from international organizations and regional NGOs. The Forum assessed the progress made in achieving the goals of the Jomtien

Declaration of 1990, identified remaining problems and issues and recommended future approaches and strategies to attain Education for All in Asia and the Pacific. The recommendation is quoted below:[1]

The Regional Expert Forum on Education for All [EFA]: Present and Future Challenges considered all APPEAL activities in this context. Keeping in mind the necessity of reaching the Jomtien goals in a cost-effective manner, the following have been identified as priority areas that need attention in the years to come. These are:

- the issue of quality
- enhancement of opportunity
- improvements in infrastructure and delivery
- reform of formal education
- a focus on the needs of disadvantaged groups and rural populations, including women
- improvement in the training of personnel

The nature of each issue is briefly discussed.

The issue of quality

In the past decade there has been a rapid expansion of education in all Member States. The number of schools, adult literacy classes, learning centres and other educational institutions has rapidly increased. In some cases, however, this expansion has occurred at the expense of quality. This situation has resulted from the lack of adequately trained personnel, an inability to provide adequate resources for learning or the failure of the system to be sufficiently flexible in meeting all needs.

Areas in need of qualitative improvement must be identified and appropriate action taken. These areas may include:

- curriculum reform and improvement
- improved personnel training
- strengthening of administration and management
- development and improvements in assessment and evaluation
- development and improvements in the quality of teaching and learning materials
- improved flexibility of response and delivery.

Enhancement of opportunity

In spite of the enormous increase in the number of schools, adult literacy classes and institutions and agencies for continuing education, some areas still remain in need of quantitative expansion. There is a need to assess the present situation and accelerate the implementation process, strengthen social advocacy and alliances, and mobilize more resources. Countries in Category C still need to provide more classrooms for basic education. Category B countries must expand the number of

institutions for pre-school and secondary education as well as for continuing education and higher education opportunities. Almost all countries need to expand the opportunity for lifelong learning, not only through a quantitative expansion of formal education, but also through the development of networks of adult learning centres, and it still remains necessary to remove the gender gap in learning outcomes.

Member States should undertake action for enhancement of opportunity by:

♦ facilitating expansion of the number of educational institutions, centres and agencies at all levels so as to ensure there is adequate provision of lifelong learning for all citizens;

♦ assisting the improvement of management systems so that maximum expansion can be provided within the constraints of available financial resources;

♦ contributing in particular to the development and application of effective educational mapping including an annual survey of children to ensure that all groups and all areas are adequately served by relevant educational facilities.

Improvements in infrastructure and delivery

While an effective infrastructure for formal education is in place in almost all Member States, the infrastructure for adult literacy and continuing education needs to be strengthened in many of them. This does not mean that governments should directly control all aspects of education at all levels. However, it does mean that effective administrative and management structures for the delivery of education should be in place at all levels – national, provincial and local – to provide a framework for co-operative development and delivery. In other words, there is a need to build new organizational and implementation patterns that are decentralized and participatory to replace the top-down planning model.

Further, the range of delivery mechanisms for all areas of education at all levels needs to be diversified. This means that mechanisms such as distance education, self-learning, home learning and the use of mass media should be further explored and expanded.

Member States will need to initiate developments such as the following:

♦ to introduce projects to improve educational management, especially in newer areas such as continuing education

♦ to assist in strengthening national infrastructures especially in areas such as continuing education

♦ to promote the development of educational networks ensuring that all aspects of education are linked in a holistic approach to the provision of lifelong learning

♦ to encourage experimentation with alternative forms of delivery in all areas and at all levels.

Reform of formal education

As discussed earlier, in many countries rapid changes are being made in formal education which is becoming more flexible, open and responsive to changing and varied needs. In particular,

some Member States now appreciate the role of formal educational institutions in the provision of lifelong learning. This means that more open access, greater flexibility in awarding interchangeable credits, removal of age barriers, reforms in evaluation, grading and certification and other changes occur as education systems are viewed holistically rather than as consisting of independent sectors such as primary education, vocational education and higher education. The more rapid the reforms in this area, the more likely the goals of Education for All will be achieved. Member States, therefore, may need to focus in the future on areas such as the following:

- ◆ Promotion of co-operation among sectors of education to facilitate transfers, cross accreditation and more open access at all levels.

- ◆ In particular, the National Co-ordination Committee for EFA could promote closer co-operation between formal and non-formal education.

A focus on the needs of disadvantaged groups and rural populations

In spite of the great advances made in educational development, for many reasons in almost all countries of the region certain groups tend to be ignored. These groups include refugees, ethnic minorities in geographically remote areas, people and especially women in rural areas, unemployed youth, people living below the poverty line, slum dwellers, homeless children and physically and mentally disabled people. These groups have varying needs. Some need access to basic education, others require literacy, still others lack vocational training and improved job opportunities.

Member States must initiate action in the following ways:

- ◆ Assistance in identifying the groups in need of improved education, their numbers, location and specific problems.

- ◆ Promotion of projects to cater specifically to the needs of the disadvantaged groups and areas.

- ◆ Promotion of programmes and activities which help disadvantaged groups and areas to participate in socio-economic development.

Improvement in the training of personnel

The need for well-trained personnel in all areas, particularly in rural areas, and the appropriateness and standards of educational personnel at all levels are issues of quality. However, some countries have yet to respond effectively to changing training needs. For example, as the majority of adults become literate, there is a reduced need for teachers of adult literacy, but an increasing need for competent post-literacy instructors, especially in the area of continuing education.

In the area of training, Member States need to emphasize the following:

- ◆ Identifying training needs, especially in newly emerging areas such as continuing education.

- ◆ Establishing flexible and responsive training systems.

- ◆ Promotion of the concept of professional career paths in continuing education and assisting with the training required.

D. Conclusion – the future focus of APPEAL

Countries in the Asia-Pacific region need to assess the current situation and accelerate the implementation process, strengthen social advocacy and alliances, mobilize more resources, continuously improve quality and relevance and build new organizational and implementation patterns that are decentralized and participatory. Member States have gained rich experiences from which all can benefit. UNESCO must strengthen APPEAL as a Regional EFA Resource Centre of information and expertise networking with National Co-ordination Committees and other institutions of the Member Countries in analyzing and learning from the vast experience that has been accumulated to date.

In addition and above all, APPEAL must focus on:

a)   mobilizing communities for financial resources as well as education effectiveness;

b)   maintaining monitoring, evaluation and information systems so that programmes and activities remain on track and there are adequate feedback and corrections as needed;

c)   undertaking advocacy missions to secure commitments of governments and international as well as national NGOs; and

d)   organizing regional and sub-regional training programmes as well as supporting research and development projects.

NOTES AND REFERENCES

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1. UNESCO/PROAP. Regional Expert Forum on *Education for All: Present and Future Challenges,* Jomtien, Thailand, 12-16 December 1994, Final Report, UNESCO Principal Regional office for Asia and the Pacific, Bangkok, 1994.
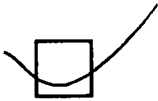
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