AN EVALUATION OF THE PLANNING SYSTEM OF THE ADULT LITERACY PROGRAMME OF ETHIOPIA

A Thesis Presented to the School of Graduate Studies Addis Ababa University

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts in Education

By

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June, 1992

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My gratitude and appreciation goes to my advisor, Dr. Abebe Ghedai, for his unfailing guidance, valuable suggestions and unreserved assistance. I am deeply indabted to his constructive comments and advice which helped me a great deal in shaping the thesis.

I extend my thanks to all workers in the Department of Adult Education who assisted in the collection of the necessary data. Individuals included in the sample deserve special thanks for their cooperation in answering the questions raised in the interview.

W/t Chuch Mamo who patiently typed the thesis also merits my heartfelt thanks.

The investigator besides wishes to express his appreciation to all those who directly or indirectly helped him in this study.

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ABSTRACT

This study has attempted to evaluate the planning system practiced in the literacy programme of Ethiopia. It tried to investigate whether there is substantial relationship between the programme planning system experienced in the literacy programme of Ethiopia and the planning system advocated by unesco sponsered conferences, and different adult educators.

The study used a combination of descriptive and analytical research methods. The data for the study were obtained from three sources i.e. review of related literature, the documents issued in the programme, and interview. Puprosive sample of people, in the Department of Adult Education, were used in the process. Unstructured interview instruments were developed and used in the study. As a consequence of the nature of the instrument used, the findings of the study were presented by way of quqlitative explanations about the adequacies and inadequacies of the planning system deployed.

According to the findings of the study, the literacy programme was massive campaign that sought to make all adult men and women in the nation literate within around seven years. In this perspective, the programme's plan resembled to be ambitious. The intention of the government to promote the literacy programme was mainly for political purposes which appear to be narrow in its scope.

In the planning process of the literacy programme, no study of the melieu had been executed to integrate the national necessities with the needs expressed by the different social groups. A single model was used without any adaptation being made to different geographical areas or the needs of different social groups.

The planning system exercised in the literacy programme was based on a centralized model as that of the formal education. This approach is contradictory to the principles of adult literacy programmes. The needs and problems of the local communities were largely overlooked and not reflected in the curriculum designed. This imply that the curriculum was not functional and responsive to the local needs of adult participants. Several problems were inherent in the programme as a result of the defects of the planning system used.

The programme planning and the implementation patterns applied in the literacy programme were not adopted and adhered to the basic principles of functional literacy that have been widely acknowledged for effective literacy programmes. The implication the writer has drawn from this is that the effectiveness of the literacy programme is doubtful.

Over and above, the programme has been characterized by acute shortage of specially trained literacy workers in the field of adult education. This suggests that the programme's activities were mainly based on mere chances. Very little attention has been given to the training of literacy agents compared to the formal education in the country. Consequently, it is difficult to expect effective qualitative outcomes from the programme.

In conclusion, there are clearly noticed differences between the planning system experienced in the literacy programme and the planning system widely advocated by different adult educators.

On the basis of the findings of the study recommendations were made with the premise of improving the programme planning system. Moreover, the paper suggests for the restructuring of the existing adult literacy programme of the nation.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Illiteracy has been a major difficulty in the world. Especially, mass illiteracy is most prevalent in the developing countries (like Ethiopia), in the regions where the problems of economic and social development are acute. It has been widely argued that the existence of illiteracy constituted a major obstacle to the participation of large portion of society in all aspects of development. Therefore, literacy education has been taken as a precondition for the development of a nation.

Several attempts were made in Ethiopia for a long period of time to introduce literacy among its population. Literacy has a long history in Ethiopia. For centuries, religious schools constituted the main guardian of traditional culture and provided the only schools. Churches and later on monastries, whose number grew after the introduction of christianity, were important centers of learning. Koran schools were another centers of learning (Haile Gebreil, 1971:3).

Modern literacy training in Ethiopia is totally a feature of this century. The governments of this century appeared to have understood the value of a literate society and have passed laws requiring universal literacy within a short period of time.

A number of programmes aimed at realizing the goal of universal literacy had been introduced over a period of several decades (Teshome, 1978:505).

With time, several organizations were engaged in the literacy programmes before 1974. This being so, the illiteracy rate in Ethiopia in 1974 was estimated to be 93 percent. Although Ethiopia up to recent time was called as the land of the scribe, but it was also the land of the thumb print' (NLCCC, 1984:13).

With the change of the regime in 1974, there came a policy change. Consequently, a nation-wide massive literacy campaign was launched in 1979.

1.1. Statement of the Problem

Various studies have shown that there is a positive correlation between literacy and development. Illiteracy has been recognized as a symptom and cause of underdevelopment. Such notion necessitated the planning of the curriculum for a literacy programme in the context of development, which also imply the provision of functional curriculum.

The concept of functional literacy is at present universally acknowledged and accepted (Unesco, 1980:7). Functional literacy is literacy that works, which is not merely a literacy programme.

In order to promote functional literacy, the programme's curriculum has to be planned in the context of the national priorities with reference to local needs of adult learners.

As indicated in Unesco (1990), the curriculum of literacy programme should be derived and related to adult's need rather than from the frame of reference of the primary school (10). Several studies have also revealed that the needs and problems felt by an adult learner for literacy is more important than the curriculum content (Noor, 1982:182).

As pronounced by several adult educators, the success of a literacy programme profoundly rely on making the curriculum functional. This as well is influenced by the effectiveness of the system employed in planning the programme.

Research has demonstrated that the difficulties facing literacy programmes are not mainly those of the complication of the methods of teaching. They are largely organizational stemming from lack of mechanisms in planning the programme (ICAE, 1979:17). Thus, any literacy programme to be effective requires first, an appropriate operational structure in planning the programme, and second, suitable working methods.

Ethiopia is a country which is characterized by divergent environmental, cultural, and socio-economic situations. Thus, to promote effective literacy programme in this nation, it is

essential to plan a curriculum which is functional and responsive to the diversified social groups.

Considerable efforts had been made to reduce illiteracy in Ethiopia in the literacy campaign launched in 1979. According to the recent data available in the DAE, the literacy rate at the end of round 22 (February, 1990) was estimated to be 77.2 percent. Prior the beginning of the programme, the illiteracy rate was estimated to be 93 percent. In terms of quantity the achievement of the programme appeared very great. Nevertheless, the success of any literacy programme could not be judged from its quantitative results. So far, no evaluative studies have been conducted to see the effectiveness of the curriculum. Therefore, it is necessary to appraise the programme in reference to the programme planning system exerted.

The identification of this research topic grew out of the interest and concern on the part of the researcher in the field. He participated in the literacy programme as instructor while working in Assosa before five years ago. Through experience he had observed that the contents of the teaching materials were not attractive to the adult learners. So, he has been uncertain about the programme's curriculum being planned in reference to the needs of the adult learners.

Moreover, the impression of the researcher in the topic

was stimulated by a series of discussions held with the concerned members of the DAE in his exploratory survey. From the discussions, he understood that the area of the study rationally sensed and had not been yet deligently studied. They also realized that it is the major area of problem which requires thorough study.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

The intent of this study is to evaluate the planning system experienced in the literacy programme of Ethiopia. The main realm of the study is to investigate whether a well-grounded relationship is established between the literacy programme planning system recommended in the conferences sponsered by unesco and advocated by important adult educators, and the planning system actually exerted in the literacy programme of Ethiopia. The main focus of the study here would be to examine how, by whom (under what capacity) and where the programme was planned and what approaches were deployed for the effectiveness and functionality of the curriculum in the programme.

The main objectives the study intended to achieve and the basic questions raised in the study to be treated are:

i. Whether there was a study of the milieu or not in formulating the curriculum objectives of the literacy programme.

ii. The method employed in designing the contents in achieving the formulated objectives.

iii. The strategies devised in the determination of the patterns of planning and implementing the programme such as teaching materials, teaching methods, medium of instruction, training of literacy instructors and workers and evaluation devises.

iv. Who were involved and to what capacity in planning the programme's curriculum ?

v. Whether the planning model applied was centralized or decentralized or both.

1.3. Significance of the Study

The studies carried in the field of adult education particularly in the literacy programme of Ethiopia is very much limited. The curriculum aspects of the programme has not yet been systematically studied. In this premise, this study would be important contribution in the field. Thus, the researcher is enthusiastic that this study could serve as an initial study and pave the way for those who want to make further studies in the area.

The study can generate awareness among the concerned people about the major drawbacks and problems encountered

in the programme's planning process of Ethiopia. The research in this case would be relevant.

In addition, the study would be of practical importance in the sense that it would come up with propositions for the amelioration of the programme's curriculum planning process.

1.4. Delimitation of the Study

This study is not concerned with evaluating in detail the worth of objectives set up, contents designed and teaching materials prepared for the literacy programme. It is not content analysis which converge in determining the degree of validity of contents in the programme. Furthermore, it is not concerned with analysing the impact of the programme in the participants life. Whereas, the main interest of the study is in appraising the planning approach used in the literacy programme of Ethiopia.

Besides, the study is not concerned to deal in detail with the post-literacy programmes. But, as literacy and post-literacy activities are monolithic, the planning system of literacy curriculum is applicable to post-literacy curriculum. Therefore, in the study the planning system of both programmes is seen as an interconnected activity.

1.5. Limitation of the Study

The major restriction of the study is that there are no previous relevant researches carried out on the curriculum aspect of the literacy programme of Ethiopia that can give some enlightement to the researcher.

Moreover, the researcher could not get a well-developed methodology in evaluating the planning process of literacy programmes that has been applied by adult educators in order to adopt it. In the process, as much as possible, the documents that are available have been used, and it is supplemented by interviews to fill the gaps in information. Then, all the methods exerted in the study are the researcher's own and possibly could have inherent shortcomings. Nevertheless, he is optimist that the method could be refined by those who engage in further studies in the area.

1.6. Organization of the Paper

This paper is organized in six chapters. Chapter one includes the introduction of the study. The second chapter deals with the review of related literature as a theoretical frame of reference for the study. It includes the basic concepts, definitions and principles of adult literacy that have significant influence in the planning of the programme. It also involves the programme's curriculum planning approaches advocated by different adult educators.

In chapter three the methodology used in the study is treated. Chapter four handles in brief the appriasal of the literacy programmes curriculum in Ethiopia before 1974. Based on the theoretical frameworks delineated in the preceding parts, chapter five focuses on the description and analysis of the planning system applied in the literacy programme. Finally, summary of major findings, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further studies are presented in chapter six.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter presents the review of related literature and studies in the field of adult literacy. It is divided in to two parts. The first part deals with the general theoretical backgrounds. It includes the notions, definitions and principles of functional literacy and related concepts that have fundamental influences in the planning of the programme. In the second part, the programme's planning approaches will be treated. In the meantime, the experiences and recommendations made in planning literacy programme's curriculum are presented.

2.1. PART ONE - THEOROTICAL BACKGROUNDS

2.1.1. Why Adult Literacy ?

No country in the world is entirely free from illiteracy- there are everywhere individuals who for one reason or another are unable to read and write but, mass illiteracy is most prevalent in Asia, Africa, and Southern America, in the regions where average incomes are lowest and the need for general economic and social development is most acutely felt.

As quoted by Ageneta & Anton (1986), Myrdal argues againest those who deprecate the importance of literacy that

> ... literacy opens-up avenues of communications that otherwise remain closed, it is a prerequisite for acquisition of other skills and the development of more rational attitudes (29).

Burnet (1965), stressing on the significance of literacy indicated that-evenif we could give emergency aid to all who need it, that wouldn't prevent the same situations from occuring again - a hungry man must be fed, but also provided a way to earn his living. A sick man must be cured, but also taught to avoid the unhygienic practices that made him sick. Only education can do these things (14).

Those advocating the cause of adult literacy uphold that literacy cannot be postponded: "it is needed in the short run, it is needed in the middle-run and it is needed in the long-run" (Bhola, 1984:20). Most literacy literature argue similarly in favour of literacy as a priority task, and not as a task that can wait until other signs of development appear.

Many adult educators argue that persistence of illiteracy constitutes a major obstacle to the participation of large section of society in civic affairs and in all aspects of development. In relation to this Bhola (1984), for the question why literacy ? gives a simple answer as literacy for development (20). Literacy education is a potent and vivid symbol of a nation's struggle for development and

commitment to a just society (Undaipur Literacy Declaration, 1981:7).

There are numerous examples of coincidence between advances in literacy and advances in economic and social development. World Bank studies, as reviewed in Psacharopoulos (1985), purport to show that the highest rates of returns are obtained from investment in primary level education, that agricultural productivity increases when a farmer has completed four years of schooling. Other studies have clearly shown the positive effect of basic education on health, nutrition, mother and childcare and family planning (7).

Literacy is considered as a means for development. This supposition has been constant, but to what extent and how literacy and development relate has been debated and understood differently overtime. Recent view expressed are those in, for example, unesco (1983a),

> ... the eradication of illiteracy does not banish deprivation overnight. But by eliminating one obstacle to development, it will indirectly help to improve living and working conditions (7).

In the context of the foregoing statements it is necessary to stress the importance of adult literacy as compared to children's education. This is because the quickest way to increase productivity in developing countries

very inception in 1946. As cited by Levine (1982), at first unesco's literacy activities were placed in the context of "fundamental education" which aimed to help people develop what is best in their own culture. The core content of fundamental education embraced the skill of thinking, speaking, listening and calculating, as well as reading and writing. The need for these and associated skills was recognized to exist both in highly industrialized and developing countries (251).

The intent of fundamental education was, as reviewed by Noor (1982), to mobilize the literate population of a country to impart a basic reading, writing and numerical ability to the illiterates. This goal of "pure literacy" commonly aspired to in developing countries was offered as a "compensation' to the adults for the failure of the formal education systems offered by the same system and using the same pedagogical methods that has failed adult illiterates when they were children (169).

As a consequence of the poor literacy achievements in the past and on the basis of studies and activities directed by unesco in the problem of adult literacy programmes, unesco in 1964 decided to launch an Experimental World Literacy Programme, in order to find ways of transforming literacy into an effective instrument for social and economic development. In the World Conference of Ministers of

Education on the Eradication of Illiteracy which was held in Tehran, in 1965, the new concept of "functional literacy" was born. This conference gave an international expression to functional literacy. As to the concepts and aims of literacy, it stated that:

> ... rather than an end in itself, literacy should be regarded as a way of preparing man for a social, civic, and economic role that goes far beyond the limits of fudimentary literacy training consisting merely in the teaching of reading and writing ... it should not only lead to elementary general knowledge but to train for work, increased productivity, a greater participation in civic life and a better understanding of the surrounding world, and should ultimately open the way to basic human culture (Unesco, 1965:7).

With this unesco introduced a modification of the pure-literacy effort, a work-oriented programme, which was known as the EWLP conducted during 1967-73, with the assistance of unesco/UNDP. This programme was carried out in eleven countries, in which Ethiopia was among them. Unesco (1976), the functional idea was to combine pure-literacy with training in basic vocational-skills directly linked to the occupational needs of the participants. The main intention was that the teaching of reading and writing and occupational training cannot be conducted separately or disassociated in time-they are integrated activities. In this approach the political and cultural aims seems to have been given much less weight (120-123).

Some adult educators criticized this functional approach for narrowing the focus of education to what they deem a single and basely utilitarian role. Among these criticizing this approach was a Brazillian educator Paul-Freire. He advanced a modification of this concept. His argument is that the functional approach is restrictive, claimed the partisans of what became known as the psychological approach to literacy (or, in the Latin American context, conscientization; consciousness raising), because it emphasized only selected aspects of literacy and vocational skills and ignored the learner's need for an integral and greater political awareness. The central purpose of literacy, according to him is to transform illiterates into active, critical and creative beings; to raise their consciousness and ability to think, and to enable them to become a social force for desired political change (Freire, 1970:49; Unesco, 1976:120).

Freir's view has gained world wide notice. Utilizing this philosophy he has conducted literacy programmes along these lines in Brazil, Chile and Guinea Bissau. His methods and philosophy has also influenced literacy campaigns in many developing countries including Tanzania.

The International Symposium for Literacy in Persepolis, held in 1975, intended to evaluate the results of a decade of international reflection and action on literacy teaching. It stressed the political, human and cultural aspects of literacy.

The Declaration of Persepolis concieves literacy as:-

> not just the process of learning skills of reading, writing and arithmetic, but a contribution to the liberation of man and to his full development. Thus concieved, literacy creates the conditions for the acquisition of a critical consciousness of the contradictions of society in which man lives and of its aims; it also stimulates initiative and his participation in the creation of projects capable of acting up-on the world of transforming and of defining the aims and objectives of an authentic human development. Literacy is a fundamental human right (Bataille, 1976:273).

These declarations are very similar to the literacy 'conscientization' ideology, expressed in Freir's publications. Freire himself participated in the Persepolis Symposium. The influence should probably be seen in relation to the poor quantitative results of EWLP and the broad influence of Freire had on adult education during the decade 1965-1974 (Agneta & Anton, 1986:22).

In unesco's own critical evaluation of EWLP, the narrowly technical/economic aims of functional literacy were revised and has been broadened or transformed in July 1975. The expert team produced a series of recommendations which could be taken as guideline for future action. The expert team of evaluation of experimental literacy projects declared:

> ... The concept of functional literacy must be extended to include all its dimentions: political, economic, social and cultural just as development is not only economic

> growth, so that literacy must aim above all to arouse in the individual a critical awareness of social reality, and to enable him or her destiny. Limiting literacy to narrowly economic aim implies the risk of deminishing considerably the importance of this task and of preventing the mobilization of hearts and minds without which no sustained development is possible (Unesco; 1976:191).

Every since these impressions were drawn, it has been generally agreed in international debates that literacy must be functional in a broad sense that literacy is only the first step in achieving the objectives set out (Agneta & Anton, 1986:23).

2.1.3. Scope of Definitions 'Illiterate and Literate Person'.

The universal current concern with illiteracy and literacy should be linked to the relative nature of the literacy phenomenon, at what point and for what functions can someone be regarded as having emerged from a state of illiteracy ? This implies that the notion of literacy varies from country to country. In some countries a literate person is considered to be one who can read the letters of the alphabet, in others be must be able to decipher a text of a given length. In countries having advanced technology - any one who is incapable of fillingout a complicated questionnaire or of reading written instructions of a technical nature are considered as functionally illiterate (Unesco, 1982:5; Unesco, 1980:16).

Inherent in these definitions is the problem of determining just what it means to be illiterate in any particular culture. Dauzat and Dauzat, as cited in Unesco (1986), criticize those who Crusade for national effort to make literacy a reality without establishing what that reality is (23). Although it renders comparison of national statistics more difficult, the importance of literacy criteria established with reference to specific situation must be recognized (Hamadache & Martin, 1986:13).

Responding to the problem, the unesco general conference as its twentith session, in 1978, adopted a revised recommendation concerning the International Standardization of Educational Statistics which contains, as quoted in unesco (1982), the following interesting statement:-

> A person is functionally illiterate who can not engage in all those activities in which literacy required for effective functioning of his group and community and also for enabling him to continue to use reading, writing and calculation for his own and community's development (5).

As argued by most adult educators and as clearly indicated in ICAE (1979), literacy should not be defined in terms of what an adult cannot do nor by some comparison with outside standard or with the schooling of children; it can and should be defined as the competence that is necessary for an adult to participate effectively in his or her society. This

Traditional literacy training is diffuse and non-intensive in character. Functional literacy uses an intensive approach as a step towards the ultimate acquisition of relevant skills and knowledge of direct utility in a given environment.

Traditional literacy works are generally standardized and laid down on a centralized basis. They use the general outline of primary school curriculum as wellas pedagogical methods which are in use in the primary schools- 'one-way kind'. The cultural content of the text books is generally 'paternalistic' oversimplified and descriptive. Teaching techniques and methods are based on the use of a single primer with no relation to the interests of illiterate adults. It also failed to answer the question 'after literacy what?'. All to often it may be seen that the traditional approach is synonymous with what Freire has called the 'banking concept of education' (Freire, 1972). Functional literacy programmes, on the contrary, are variable and flexible, and take the immediate objectives and specific situations into account' (Unesco, 1970a:9; Unesco, 1973b: 10; Mpongole, 1985:8; Hamadache & Martin, 1986:52).

The main merit of functional approach is that it is more concret, more directly linked to the context in which the neoliterate live, and hence more likely to attract and retain them (Unesco, 1980:52-53).

The concept of functionality as stated in the preceding parts is now universally acknowledged and generally accepted. It has become a common feature to whether of a selective order or in the form of a mass campaign and this should be seen as one of the highly beneficial results arising out of the implementation of the EWLP (Ibid:7). Specially this concept has been adopted by the developing countries as an instrument for development (Ibid).

Thus, there is no question of teaching people reading or arithmetic for its own sake, but rather of teaching both skills in order to enable people to improve their living conditions. Therefore, in order to generate and stimulate motivation and to promote effective literacy programme, the people should be provided with knowledge, directly relevant to the environment that could be applied to practical problems.

2.1.5. Concepts of Post-Literacy

The concept of post-literacy emerged after the concept of functional literacy was born. The report of the Tehran Conference of 1965 stated that '... no literacy should be started unless and until there has been provision for adequate, appropriate and accessible materials for follow-up practice by neo-literates' (Unesco, 1965:9). The expert team on evaluation of experimental literacy projects also recommended for literacy to be effective and lasting, it must

be sustained by an infrastructure that not only provides literates with abundant reading matter but also maintains their taste for reading and broadens their horizon (Unesco, 1976:193).

Literacy work, therefore, is not monolithic and should be seen interms of continuity as an element in a process of life long education which begins with literacy and which continues after the basic skills have been acquired.

The concept of post literacy was born when it was found that adults, once made literate in literacy classes, did not always stay literate. They relapse into illiteracy. The reason for this loss of literacy skills was lack of continued use of literacy skills acquired in literacy classes. The skills learned were thus lost through disuse (Bhola, 1980:13; Dave, 1985:193).

(Bataille, 1976; ICAE, 1979; Unesco, 1980; Bhola, 1980; Carron & Bordia 1985; Dave, 1985) argue that without follow-up, either through continuing non-formal education or through link to formal education, retention of literacy is not possible. Other opportunities for applying recently acquired literacy skills must also be treated in order to avoid relapse into illiteracy.

There is variation in the definition of post-literacy. But it is perhaps possible to identify certain elements in

common. Some countries like Mali, Senegal and Tanzania use a definition of post-literacy adopted during a meeting of experts in April 1977; as cited in Dave (1985),

> By post literacy we understand all measure taken to enable the neo-literate to put into practice the skills acquired and to increase the knowledge obtained during the previous stage. Thus he will be able to go beyond what he has learned and to use his new knowledge; and above all, by learning how to learn and how to make decisions, take an active part in the continuing process of development and mastery of his environment (28).

As quoted in Dave (1985), one of the working groups during the first international orientation seminar, formulated a definition as:

> Post-literacy is an integrating learning process to assist literates to retain, improve and apply their basic knowledge, attitudes, and skills for the satisfaction of their basic needs, and to permit them to continue education through self-directed process for the improvement of their quality of life (28).

One of the most highlighted post-literacy objectives by many adult educators is to make it possible for new literates to participate fully in political, economic, socio-cultural and technical processes so as to better control and improve their own lifes. It can also savely be said that the main concern of a post-literacy programme should be to be a 'better' literacy programme.

At present the national, regional, and international efforts need to be intensified, dealing with literacy and post-literacy realistically and soberly than in the 1960's and 1970's. Literacy is a multiple task with broad objectives in social, economic and cultural development. Equally, post-literacy is a major task which requires heavy effort in designing the curriculum according to the need of the target groups and national objectives. This major task calls for also a national programme, committment, effective participation, coordination, and decentralization, mobilization of resources etc.

2.1.6. Objectives and Nature of Adult Literacy Strategies

Literacy strategies or approaches in general attribute the model of planning and implementation of literacy activities. The approaches choosen comes out directly from the objectives of the deliverers of the programme, as regards both adopting literacy as the means of operation and making the contents and methods suit the overall aim.

As clearly stated by Agnetha& Anton (1990), some of the most important questions to be taken in to account for an adult literacy strategy include, what are the priority aims? Which groups should be included ? What is the scale of the programme, in number of participants and period of time ?

What is the framework of organization and supervision to be? and so on (49).

Looking back on the history of literacy promotion in the twentith century, we can distinguish two major approaches, that had and still have a major influence in the developing countries. These strategies are selective and mass campaign approaches. There is a continuing and unresolved debate in literacy work between the two approaches.

The selective approach was developed at the Tehran conference of 1965, to be used in the EWLP. It has been selective in nature. When the programmes were established all over a country or region, there was an intensive focus on particular communities; occuptional groups, those who have the greatest potential to improve a country economically and socially or who are percieved to be in greatest need of a development programme in corporating functional literacy. It tries to offer the highest promise of economic returns, and to work with them intensively for maximum effect. This approach accepts the central role of literacy in the process of development, but it makes segemented commitments. The hope is that after the economic take-off within the selected sectors, there will be spill-over to other economic sectors and there will then become eligible for intensive material and literacy inputs (Bhola, 1984:197; ICAE, 1979:22).

Selective approach have typically arisen from the calculations of development planners rather than from the intense committment of politicians and ideologists. Justifications used by the organizers of this approach of literacy in recent years have been economic and technological (Bhola, 1984:197). Consequently, the programmes objectives, contents, methods etc. are related to vocational skills.

In the light of previous experiences together with the failures to achieve considerable progress in other literacy attempts, Unesco decided to promote a discussion among member states on the possibilities and promise of the literacy campaign as a strategy for the eradication of illiteracy. The reasons for this include; successes with campaigns, the growing opinion that literacy is a human right, the feeling that mass literacy will not only promote development but also help radress operation and injustice (a feeling promoted by Freir's ascendancy to international legitmacy) (Agneta & Anton, 1990:64).

In the International Seminar on Campaiging for Literacy held in Udiapur 1982, the literacy campaign of eight countries was analysed. The seminar adopted a literacy declaration, calling for massive literacy efforts (Bhola, 1983:204).

Mass literacy campaign approach is a massive one that seeks to make all adult men and women in a nation literate

within a particular time frame. Literacy is seen as a means to a comprehensive set of ends, economic socio-cultural and also political. The justification used by the organizers of this approach have been at the same time ideological and economic (ICEA, 1979:20; Bhola, 1984:197).

Experiences over recent years have shown that the imputus for literacy campaign mainly come from a dramatic events, such as a revolution or independence, that creates a deriving for political and social change or it may come from economic needs and social development policies that demand a change in traditional emphasis. In either case, a clear and direct need arises for a large number of people to acquire new knowledge, skills and information to prepare for, achieve and consolidate change. Literacy is then used as preparation in new social order. Consequently, the objectives, contemts, methods of the literacy programme centers on the afore-mentioned social transformations (Ibid).

At conferences and many articles, the two approaches have been linked to opposing camps, and there has been considerable debate about which is more effective. However, they are complementary and can be integrated to produce an effective literacy programme. Often, specialized programmes extend mass campaigns by providing occupationally related training to selected groups. A good examples for this are in Tanzania in which the programme begin as mass campaign and then become

more functional and selective. In India also both approaches used simultaneously which is described as a mass campaign with the quality of planning and implementation of a selective programme. Therefore, it is possible for a given country to use both approaches either in turn or simultanously (ICAE, 1979:20; Hamadache & Martin, 1986:56).

2.1.7. Adult Learning Theory and the Curriculum

What is Curriculum ? There is so much written about curriculum that literature is full of writings about the definitions and the concepts of curriculum. Different educators define the term curriculum in different ways.

There are those who define curriculum in terms of the subject matter to be studied. They take it as subject matter disciplines and organized field of study. Some others define it as all the experiences that contribute to the growth and development of the pupils. There are also educators who understand the curriculum as a set of experiences designed to train children into the culture of their society (Abebe, 1986:33-34).

As a result of these differences in defining curriculum, there is no agreement between educators as to what curriculum is. This caused the difficulty of defining curriculum that means the samething to all educators. As cited by Abebe (1986), inspite of that, the tendency of most educators

(such as Herist, Young, Peter, Goodlad, Bernstien), is to view the curriculum as a set of intended learnings, which is planned and directed by the school to attain the desired objectives (34).

In conclusion at this point of discussion, it may be argued that curriculum is a planned learning programme containing a set of activities from which learners can learn something, or a set of statements of objectives to be attained; a statement stipulating the ways in which the curriculum is to be used i.e. by stating the relationships between the curriculum and the development of instructional strategies; i.e. from curriculum planning to curriculum implementation; and finally an appraisal scheme for evaluating the effectiveness of the curriculum (UNESA, 1987:60).

Before the concept of functional literacy was born, traditional literacy used to apply the curriculum of formal education system. But after the concept of functional literacy training emerged the traditional literacy work started to be seen as based on faulty premises as well as being unsuited to the conditions required for effective literacy training in an adult environment. After the period when adult education broke away from formal school type model, new principles were drawn up and affirmed its own uniqueness and working methods.

The notion of andragogy has been recognized as facilitating adult learning. The concept of andragogy as the art and science of leading adult learners (or helping adult learn), in contrast to pedagogy as the science of childhood teaching-learning, became influential since it was first proposed by knowles. This concept have been accepted and developed more rapidly in different parts of the world.

According to Knowles, then andragogy is based on some principles that distinguish it as a theory of adult learning from pedagogy as a theory of childhood learning. The first principle is the change in self-concept:

> ... as a person grows and matures his self concept moves from one of total dependency (as is the reality of the infant) to one of increasing self-directedness (Knowles, 1978:55).

Adulthood is, then, seen as substantially a classification of individual development: Adulthood, Knowles affirms, is the point at which an individual achieves a self-concept of essential self-direction. As also denoted in Unesco (1980), people in learning situation should be viewed from the stand point of their entire adult personality and complexity of all their dimentions, not solely in relation to their temporary role as students (56).

The second principle acknowledged is the role of

experience:

> ... as an individual matures he accumulates an expanding reservoir of experience that causes him to become an increasingly rich resource for learning, and at the sametime provides him with a broadening base to which to relate new learnings (Knowles, 1978:56).

Knowles further states that andragogy is a method of teaching based much upon experiential and transmittal techniques. To 'child', experience is something that happens to him; to an dault, his experience is who he is. For this reason, a situation in which such experience is undermined or disregarded is a situation of personal rejection. As indicated in Unesco (1980), adults' experience is the main staff from which educational experience is built up, with the addition of what ever is ingested from outside. Once adults are respected by making use of their experience as a resource for learning they will be much more receptive to instruction, whatever its nature (56).

The third principle of andragogy is related to the readiness to learn of adults:-

> ... as an individual matures, his readiness to learn is decreasingly is the product of his biological development and academic pressure and is the product of the developmental tasks required for the performance of his evolving social roles (Knowles, 1978:57).

Different from children, adults cease to learn things because of their significance to pedagogic assumptions but learn things they need to learn because of the developmental phases they are approaching in their roles as parents, farmers, industry workers, and the like. The implication is to coincide learning experiences with the learners' developmental tasks (Unesco, 1980:56).

The fourth principle is concerned with the orientation of learning:

> ... children have been conditioned to have a subject-centered orientation to most learning whereas adults tend to have a problem-centered orientation to learning (Knowles, 1978:58).

As affirmed in Griffin (1983), children require subject knowledge not for its own sake but because it is instrumental to passing through the education system itself. Adults, by contrast, come to learn because they need knowledge for immediate purposes of solving day to day problems of living (57). This supposition, Knowles enunciates, has major importance concerning the organization of the curriculum and its learning experiences. Subject-centered learning imply a curriculum according to the logic of the subject matter and course units should be specified by the logical sequence of content topics. Nevertheless, adult learning requires a problem-centered orientation in which relevant practical outcomes determine the aims, contents, methods of teaching and learning (58).

Finally in relation to the aformentioned principles, instruction should not take the form of a one-way communication, but rather of an exchange, even if it can not always be on an equal footing (Unesco, 1980:56). This is synonymous with what Friere (1972), is saying two-way communication as opposed to the 'banking concept' of education which is based on one-way communication.

The methods bound up with a functional conception of literacy are, in varying ways and varying degrees, based on the above-stated principles.

From the above-stated principles we can understand that in adult education curriculum the concept of need is widely acknowledged. In planning adult education curriculum the concept of 'need' plays a very significant role. As cited in Lawson (1979), Witts hire has pointed out, this concept along with that of 'learning', has emerged as a dominant one in the vocabulary of the adult educators (35). According to this argument, curriculum planning in adult education seems synonymous with the process of finding out needs. As indicated by Griffin (1983), the question of how these needs were or are, ascertained becomes the very fulcrum upon which all curriculum planning rests (79),

2.1.8. Basic Principles in Planning Adult Literacy Programmes and the Curriculum

Planning a programme in short is a rational method of

and adopted as principles. A number of successful literacy programmes in the developing world, have adopted and adhered to these principles. The major guiding principles, which have been given more emphasis in various conferences of unesco, on which functional literacy is based are functionality, participation, integration and diversification.

Functionality: as clearly stated in the preceding parts of this paper, the term functionality encompasses meanings which vary according to the context and the period involved. The expanded concept of functionality (unesco, 1976:191), have got universal recognition and acknowledgment.

Functional literacy is literacy that works, which is not merely a literacy programme. Hence, the principle of functionality could be applied if the planning of the programme is correlated with the immediate environment of adults. As pronounced in Unesco (1980), this principle could be applied in every case on the appropriate answers found to the basic questions, how and to what extent the design and implementation of the programme will afford learners a chance of coping more successfully with the problem of their existence (54).

Participation: this principle and that of functionality are closely linked. As reviewed in Hamadach & Martin (1986), the Persepolis declaration affirms, it is obvious that if

literacy is to take account of the needs and aspirations of the illiterates, the first step is to listen to them, who should not be the object but the subject of the process where by he becomes literate (32).

The participation of adult illiterates in deciding what their most urgent concerns are and what they most like to learn about, represents the most effective way of confirming authentic motivation on the side of the people concerned. The Persepolis declaration stated that literacy is effective to the extent that the people to whom it is addressed feel the need for it in order to meet their most essential requirements, in particular the need to take part in the decisions of the community to which they belong (Ibid.).

The 'conscientization' approach to literacy of Freire (1972), highly signifies the principle of participation. His argument is that only dialogue, which requires critical thinking, is capable of generating critical thinking. Without dialogue there is no communication, and without communication there can be no true education (81).

Integration - the first concern of this principle is the integration of reading, writing, and arithmetic and on the other, integration of the technical disciplines and their theoretical and practical aspects. Strictly, pedagogical integration consists of encouraging the closest possible relationship between the learning to read, writing and

arithmetic, on the one hand, and on the other, the immediate problems of the learners to be solved (Unesco, 1973b:96). As reviewed in Hamdach & Martin (1986), M Row, on the occasion of international literacy day, 1976, said that integration into the process of life long education presupposed that literacy work is followed up. Literacy and numeracy are useless accomplishments unless these basic skills are put to actual use in everyday life (33).

The integration of literacy into national and regional development plans is substantial. As presedent Nyrere put it, if adult education is to contribute to development, it must be part of life-integrated with life and inseparable from it. This means that adult education should promote change and further it means that adult education encompases the whole of life, and must built upon what already exists (Nyrere, 1977:12).

The other way of applying the integration of literacy work into development programmes is by establishing permanent contact between various ministries, organizations and sectors concerned and their representatives at national, regional, and local levels in planning the programme and the curriculum.

Diversification: there is no such thing as a single model for literacy programme. In reference to this principle, as cited in Hamadache and Martine (1986), M'Bow argued that programmes must adopt themselves to circumstances, individuals

socio-economic and cultural contexts and living condition and draw their inspiration from them. The diversification of methodologies and materials is therefore essential for success (34).

Most adult educators argue that if a country is characterized by a multiplicity of target groups with different backgrounds of language, sex, culture, occupation and the like, it is reasonable to produce a diversification of approaches, contents, methods and materials.

2.2. PART TWO - ADULT LITERACY CURRICULUM PLANNING: PROCESS

The process of curriculum planning or development can be treated as a general covering both formal and non-formal education system. But the system of formal education is unlike from the system of non-formal education. Bhola (1979) affirms that the same general model of curriculum development, when applied to one system rather than the other, has to be adopted to suit the parameters of the system choosen- formal or non-formal. Therefore, a model of curriculum development for non-formal education so will appear to be a second-generation model of curriculum development (54).

The curriculum planning approach for a functional literacy programme is conditioned by perceptions as to education's role in a particular context. By its own

admission, this approach views the problem in 'functional' terms and systematically sets about to design an effective strategy to overcome existing dysfunctionalities.

There are some variations in ingridients in such a strategy for a plan of action, that have been suggested by different adult educators and organizations (such as Bhola, 1979; Unesco, 1973b; Unesco, 1987a; Unesco, 1983b, Gorham, 1983; Lumsden, 1977). Depite there are some variations, the steps involved in the process of planning the curriculum of adult literacy programmes are usually the same. These steps include:

a) Determining the general goals or objectives of the programme within the context of the national policy and priorities.

b) Study of the milieu to identify problems and translation of these priority problems and needs into the curriculum objectives.

c) Designing contents and preparing teaching materials.

d) Determining the strategies in implementing the curriculum such as teaching methods, training of teachers, medium of instruction etc.

e) Devising evaluation mechanisms in the programme.

authorities'. In identifying these objectives representatives of different sectors at different levels should be consulted. Besides, general development plans, regional or local development plans, miscellaneus technical and economic studies; monographs; plans of operation etc. should be consulted (Unesco, 1973c:15).

In the conclusions arrived at the workshop at Udaipur, which examined the experiences of eight countries it is indicated that the general objectives of an adult literacy programme have to be determined by the national planning body (represented from different sectors) and there can be no external criteria in the determination of these (Bhola, 1983:251).

These general objectives could serve as a general guideline in determining the specific objectives peculiare to local situations.

2.2.2. Study of the Milieu and Formulation of Curriculum Objectives

The basic principles in planning the curriculum of a literacy programme, as indicated in the other part of this chapter, imply the using of differentiated curriculum as opposed to one curriculum to all learners. Regarding this point Bhola (1979) argues that the process of curriculum designing must not lead, necessarily to one common curriculum

based on the homoginization of the learning needs of all learners. The curriculum planning process can, and should accomedate differentiated curricula to satisfy the learning needs of different groups, differentiated in terms of their social environment, age groupings, occupations or sub-communities etc. (75).

As indicated in Unesco (1973b), the curriculum planners should start where the learners are. This means, taking into consideration the sociological and psycho-sociological aspects of the socio-economic melieu of the area in which the programme operates (92).

In Unesco (1976), it is recommended that the planning of a literacy programme's curricular objectives must seek to integrate national necessities with the needs expressed by different social groups. No literacy process can be effective unless these groups realize that literacy serves their own interests as well as those of the nation (191).

Bhola (1984) also argues, both nationally determined needs and community determined needs are important in defining curricular objectives. He says, it would be irrational to dismiss the national visions of the leadership as arogant and unjust impositions. On the other hand, individuals and communities must not be mere receivers. The people must participate in planning their own destinies.

He further affirms, this can be made possible only through a dialectic between the national and the local, between the visions of the central leadership and the felt needs of the local communities. Through a process of needs assessment and needs negotiation, national visions must be reinvented in local settings (192).

The concept of needs assessment forms a key word in the vocabulary of adult education in planning the curriculum objectives. Needs assessment, in Unesco (1979), is defined as a systematic method of determining the educational needs, and learning and social goals of a particular group or community (54).

Bhola (1979) argues that curriculum workers of a functional literacy programme should not impose predesigned curriculum on adult groups but it should base on the felt needs of the local community (78). He further says that needs are not, like pebbles on the sea shores, to be discovered and picked up. Needs emerged through a process of researching, discussion and negotiation (85). Therefore, effeciency in setting curricular objectives and programme elaboration would largely depend on a large extent on skills in analysing the existing situation and identifying the problems in development through the study of the milieu (Unesco, 1973b:22).

Study of the milieu is a phase midway between

identification of objectives and determination of problems. It helps to formulate more specific objectives with reference to the local and specific needs of regions than origionally mentioned general objectives. The purpose of the surveys is basically to examine social practices so as to systematically assemble (or having adopted) suitable solutions to the problems arising in a given miliue, and hence to establish a pedagogical operational strategy. In a word, the aim is to identify needs and problems in pedagogical terms and the 'terrain' (ground) itself will suggest the method to be used (Unesco, 1973b:22; Unesco, 1987a:7-8; Hamadach & Martin, 1986:74).

Besides, it could help to know the total number of illiterates and making a break down by age, sex, occupation etc. which in turn will make possible to adapt methods, contents, teaching materials, time tables etc. (Hamadache & Martine, 1986:76).

In Unesco (1973b), pronouncing the significance of survey, it is indicated that failure to take into account the socio-economic and physical environment in determining the curricular objectives or abondening making study of the milieu would have a serious risk. It would result failurity in the programme's output and would have lead to inevitable absenteeism in the part of the learner (92).

It has also been pointed out, in Unesco (1973b), that the problem identified do not all present the same degree of urgency, having regard to the evolution of the action as it progresses toward the objectives. Therefore, it become necessary to classify the problems in order of priority in respect to their effectiveness (53-54).

2.2.3. Selection of Contents

Currently, adult educators argue that the knowledge and skills in literacy should be derived from and related to adults rather than from the frame of reference of the primary school. Thus, the preparation of literacy curriculum contents should be based on and linked with learners problems and needs to help them to improve their quality of life (Unesco, 1990:7). The justification for this is, as indicated in ICAE (1979), that functional literacy programmes has shown that learning is faster, more enjoyable, and better retained and applied when the contents grow from the milieu of the learner (114). On the contrary, if literacy programme contents are imposed on people and are not related to total development and/or local conditions, they have little chance of improving people's lives (Ibid:12).

Several studies have shown that 'the need and problem felt by an adult learner for literacy is more important than the curriculum content' (Noor, 1982:182). Therefore, programme contents have to be functional from the stand

point of enabling new literates to acquire knowledge and skills that will be useful to them in the political, social, cultural, and economic fields (Unesco, 1980:75). Moreover, as recommended in unesco (1976), the content of functional literacy curriculum must be realistic, and simplified, closely linked to the concret problems of individuals and groups (192).

The pedagogical methods to be employed must be conveyed as methods for the study of the problems. The problems, thus, emerge as the essential center of interest. In this way (by relating the learning of 3R's with problems) the activity of learning to read, write and calculate acquires practical and direct significance in every day experience. This also promotes the retention of knowledge relating to the problem to be solve (Unesco, 1973b:193).

All the major principles in which functional literacy is based are applicable in determining appropriate contents of the curriculum. In order to apply these principles, there must be a study of the milieu, which will make it possible to elaborate functional programme corresponding to needs and expectations. As recommended in Unesco (1976), the preparation of curriculum contents must be based on the use of baseline and context survey carried out among the concerned population and taking into account the needs expressed by them (192).

It is therefore, on the basis of the problems identified, in the study of the milieu, and classified by priority that the corresponding programme elements which constitute the fundamental contents are established. The programme elements are framed in broad general terms and must accordingly analysed so as to identify the resembling contents and structure them methodologically in logical learning orders within a didactic perspective. Since it is difficult to teach everything, it is essential to select the most relevant contents, especially those notions necessary for an understanding of the problems and those skills relating to the transformation of those notions (Unesco, 1973b:99; Hamadache & Martine, 1986:100).

The organization of literacy contents therefore, excludes compartmentalization and the fragmentation of courses into 'disciplines' or 'subjects', as well as the diffuseness which characterizes traditional formal education. The learner should be obtainining problem solving knowledge, not discipline-centered and hierarchically organized knowledge (Dave, 1985:203; Unesco, 1973b:95).

2.2.4. Preparation of Teaching Materials

In many nations, the preparation of literacy teaching materials, alike its production and distribution, is centralized in which regard it is not far away from the formal school tradition represented by the textbook; usually

written in terms of guidelines and involving a carefully organized progression without concern of different particularities (Hamadache & Martin, 1986:101). This approach presumes that writers of these materials know through their own intrinsic and intuition what is good for the target learners without really getting to know them and without making an objective study of the local conditions. These materials prepared by far away elite of a society usually have little local relevance and signifying very little local interest (Noor, 1982:17).

Noor (1982), affirms that this approach give rise to further confusion between needs and demands. Planners who determine needs belong to one culture, and the illiterate adults who determine their own demands belong to another (173). Carron & Bordia (1985) percieve such centralized production of materials as having the faults of one-way communication (134). Such materials are not attractive to adults, are borring to adult learners and increase absenteeism (Coombs, 1985:276).

Taking into account the shortcomings of centralized approach, in various literatures and in different conferences it is argued that literacy materials for adults should be tailored to their local environmental situations. The recommendation stated in Unesco (1976), a reads, the preparation of curricula and materials must be based on the

use of baseline and context surveys carried out among the concerned people and taking into account the needs expressed by them (192). Noor (1982), also contends, teaching materials developed from baseline surveys and related to critical problems familiar to learners effectively engage adults throughout the duration of training and their content being retained (179).

Besides, as cited in Hamadache & Martine 1986), in the International Symposium for Literacy, it was declared that "the material means should be diversified, flexible and suited to the environment and needs of the adult learners, as opposed to a uniform and rigid (118).

This approach implies the application of the principle of diversification. As illustrated in Unesco (1973b), diversification connotes mainly a decentralization of production of materials, there by making possible an adaptation to the needs and interests of participants in different mileus even if the absence of man-power and material resources at local level represents a serious obstacle (99-100).

The application of the principle of diversification has certainly a risk of human and material resources in developing countries, but it is equally true that the standardization of materials involve the danger of neglecting

the economic and cultural peculariities of the different regions which in turn can negatively affect the effectiveness of the programmes out put. As argued by Hamadach & Martin (1986), decentralization may be made easy interms of pedagogical approach and costs by increasing the number of potential participants who will promote the preparation of literacy teaching materials (102).

Uses of literacy primers have varried from one mass literacy campaign to another. Many national literacy campaigns have used single primer for the whole nation.

In Tanzania, the campaign did not use a single primer for the whole nation. The campaign was able to offer functional literacy on a mass scale by using a mix of the mass approach and the selective approach. Thus, it offers different groups of learners a choice of curriculum. Based on the UNDP/Unesco projects which had first developed and tested many of the curriculum packages used in the campaign, different primers are used all in one language, but each differentiated in regard to the occupational groups concerned-cotton growers, fishermen, bannana growers, stock breeders, coffee growers, house-wives etc.

In Tanaznia, the preparation of teaching materials is done by a team of experts in the area-linguists, reading teachers, literacy and adult educators and graphic artists. It is done through writers workshop. The workshops involve

meeting together with various specialists from different ministties, and organizations of every region so that there is collective responsibility of preparing the required materials. These workshops produce manuscripts for literacy reading materials relevant tà the interests of local communities and followup books and forward them to the department of adult education in Dar-es-Salaam for editing and publication (Bhola, 1984:153).

In Kenya also, as illustrated by Kebathi, in Carron & Bordia (1985), the production of primers is done in the location that is the district where the book is needed. (133)

Types of Literacy Materials

Teaching materials for literacy and post literacy reading may be divided into instructor's materials, the illiterate's material, and materials intended for collective use (Unesco, 1973b;106; Bhola, 1979:152; Hamadach & Martin, 1986:102-13).

Instructor's materials consist essentially technical sheets giving him information on the subject he is to teach the participants and setting out a clear and in a brief form the technical elements required to enable him to organize discussions on the days themes, and if need be, answer any questions put to him. It also include a manual or cards giving instructors the necessary teaching hints

and setting-out the stages of the methodology development of each lesson.

Stressing on the need of these materials Bhola (1984) affirms, especially when untrained or hastily trained teachers are used to conduct learning groups, the development of appropriate materials for teachers in the form of guide books and discussion plans takes on paramount importance (193). Therefore, the need for teacher's guide for every teaching materials produced is unquestionable. For instance, in Tanzania each primer prepared was accompanied by a teacher's guide. Primers on home economics and on agriculture topics also had demonstration guides for making practical demonstrations (Ibid, 149).

Illiterate's material - can be in the form of reading/ writing sheets, arithmetic cards or booklets, possibly sets of self-correcting cards, and programmed books, reading texts and phamphlets for also post-literacy together with the collectively used materials.

Many adult educators signify the effectiveness of using a graded primers of one particular subject, in both literacy and post-literacy stages, instead of using only one. Bhola (1984) contends, it is important to note that a typical first primer can not teach retainable literacy. It must be followed by suitable graded readers (193).

Materials intended for collective use - comprise visual and audio-visual aids produced at different levels. They are also designed to help with literacy and post-literacy activities. These materials may comprise place cards, collective cards (sentences, words, syllables, letters), posters, filmstrips, slides, and possibly radio & TV broadcasts, films, casettes etc.

2.2.5. Methods of Teaching Literacy

Experience over recent years, including the experience of the EWLP, has disclosed a substantial diversity in the selection of methodological procedures given the great multiplicity of specific situations and contexts. However, there are common features in the conduct of a literacy session eventhough the methodological approach involves a number of variants.

The critical assessment of the EWLP, Unesco (1976), identified three basic elements of adult-oriented methods which were used on a fairly wide spread basis in the programme and appear to have shown their merit. An inductive approach is the first to learner's acquisition of knowledge, taking as its starting point the experience, needs, and problems of adults. It starts with group discussion to identify problems and to suggest solutions. The second method takes the form of practical demonstration which consists of carrying-out work in the feild in application of the

pedagogical programme. This is experiential learning or 'learning by doing' and has been part of literacy programme in Tanzania, Guinea, Sudan and Ecuador. The last pedagogical lesson of EWLP revealed resemble to be that it is worthwhile to use a variety of methods and techniques. The methodological variety and 'stimulus variation' help to maintain adult interest and attendance-group discussion, self-training, showing of films or slides, problem poster, puppet shows, feild visits, practical demonstrations, individual and collective use of textbooks and reading cards, well-known proverbs and songs, folk tales etc. (166-167).

Methods of Teaching Reading

There are various schools of thought as regards reading methods, concerning 'which it is pointless to take sides' (Unesco, 1973A:104). Having noted the difference and similarities between what is appropriate for children and adults, in this part of the paper the most commonly used methods of learning reading in a literacy programme will be discussed.

Syntetic methods - these methods are based on the principle that in order to learn to read, the learner must first know the components of words-letters or syllables. Once these are acquired, the next step is the synthesis of words which are then combined into phases.

As cited in Hamadache & Martin (1986), Neijs writes that these methods are logical and systematic, especially in languages where each basic sounds are represented by a single distinct symbols. Further, he argues that the stress on the mechanical aspect of reading can stimulate the reader's confidence and help him tackle on his own the new words he encounters. These methods are also credited by Neijs for their ease to teach, they are within the scope of instructors with only limited qualifications and require only a limited material. A disadvantage of these methods is that the importance given to the mechanics of reading at the expense of understanding makes it boring to the adult learner and puts a heavy load on memory (116).

Hand and Punder, as reviewed in Unesco (1970b), find these methods appallingly dull to adult participants and caution that oral reading might assume a persistent monotony (27).

Analytic methods - in most literatures, global, and anlytic methods are used interchangeblly regarding them as analoguous because the accent is on words, sentences, and phrases, with phonetic excercises based on these whole units.

Canizarer's study in 1957, as reviewed in ICEA (1979), compared anlytic and synthetic methods applied in teaching adults how to read in Cuba. This research was designed to throw light on the question whether methods and principles

applied to children also suited to adults. The result of the study tend to be in favour of a global (analytic) methods (114).

As reviewed in Margareta & Sjostrom (1983), judging from Neije, the analytic mode makes sense to the adult learners at once. Meaningful units make good psychological starting points. But, on the other hand, this method requires relatively highly trained teachers (103).

In the manual of literacy for pre-literate people, Gudschinsky, as reviewed in Hamadach & Martin (1986), confesses the major difficulty in using synthetic methods lies in the fact that the learner is confronted with 'fragments' of language devoid of any meaning. This has led to the inverse method - to take units having a complet meaning i.e. words, numbers of sentences, whole sentences, and then to break them down into their component parts (116).

Hand & Punder, as reviewed in Unesco (1970b), 'dealing with what they term the global techniques warn that this method may lead to limited word attack ability. They evidently mean by word attack ability, the skill of relating printed symbols to corresponding sounds and then being able to 'attack' new words (28).

A global (analytic) method is also suggested in Unesco (1973b), as it is a method more realistic and helps in

assimilating the message written in connection with problems being handled. It gives priority to understanding at the expense learning of mechanics (conveying no meaning). Interest is there by stimulated from the very first lessons because 'reading has comething say' (104).

Besides the above methods, there is an eclictic method, which it is recalled, in equivalent to a combination of synthetic and analytic methods.

In conclusion, as suggested in different literature, the learning of reading is conducted by the interaction of different factors: the language of instruction, the learner, the method employed, and the profil of literacy teachers. In any case, there is no magic solution in this feild. Those responsible for a given literacy programme must choose the method best suited to their purposes in view of the preceding factors.

Teaching Writing

Listening, speaking, reading and writing are the major components of the language art. As quoted in ICEA (1979), Gray asserts that virtually all specialists in the language art affirms the introduction of reading and writing at about the same time. They support that the progress made in the one contributes to progress in the other. The writing of words call attention to their detail, help to

distinguish one from the other, and to build-up a reading vocabulary (60).

Teaching Arithmetic

As clearly indicated in Unesco (1973b), illiterate adults reckon empirically using counting systems which vary from one cultural milieu to another. This inquiring knowledge, therefore, be taken into account and the teaching of arithmetic should be based on the 'mathematization' of the situation problem actually encountered. This there by facilitates the transition from the concret operation to its translation into symbols (107).

The functional seriation in the introduction of arithmetic requires to be integrated with 'chain' of the problem to be solved. This approach bears a relation to each 'chain' of problems i.e. each specific situation. The seriation comprises: study of numeration, study of matimatical operations, recognition and tracing of simple geometric figures; measurments (Ibid:108).

Regarding methods of teaching literacy, the experience of Tanzania reveals that the primers of reading used an eclectic method of language teaching. They start with a simple sentence with a functional meaning, however, elementary. For instance, the first sentence in the cotton primer was 'Pamba Mali' (Cotton is wealth). The home

economics primer began with the phrase: 'Mama no mtoto' (mother and child) under the picture of a mother holding a child. The sentences or phrases were taught first; then the words, then the syllables, and as far as Kiswahili is a syllabic language, syllables are then used to generate new words already in the vocabulary of adult learners. Furthermore, writing and simple arithmetic were integrated into the teaching of reading from the earliest stage (Bhole, 1984:150).

2.2.6. Choice of Language for Literacy

Should adults be taught to read and write in a local vernacular language or in a national and possibly in international language ? In a literacy programme such a choice has to be made. A clear cut language policy will have significant implication for the technical system established for a literacy programme. In most cases the choice of language for literacy teaching in different countries derives partly from national language policy and from the objectives of the process.

The choice of the medium of instruction was recognized as a serious problem in many developing countries which are often characterized by extrem linguistic diversity. The solutions given to this problem vary substantially from one country to another.

In many conferences of Unesco and in many literatures it is argued that it would be difficult and indeed inappropriate to provide a general recommendations for language policy in all developing countries since each presents a unique cultural and political situations. Many felt that the language of literacy should ideally be the mother tongue.

As confirmed in Hamadache & Martin (1986), teaching literacy in unfamiliare language means that in addition to the difficulties involved in learning the mechanics of reading and writing, the learner is further faced with the difficulties inherent in the acquisition of the vocabulary and the morphosyntatical structures of that language (80).

As cited in Hamadache & Martine (1986), Mead pointed out, literacy teaching in unfamiliar language involves the risk of compromising those conditions which make it possible for participants to contribute to the definition of problems and needs and to solutions in line with the skills and standards of the milieu (80).

Agneta & Anton (1990) also affirm that literacy in a second language is difficult and time consuming, and can lead to demoralization if there is no strong motivation among the participants to learn this language. Moreover, they argue that the more distant the language is from the mother tongue and the less spread it is, the more difficult

it will be to teach and learn in it (88).

The arguments for learning in a national language are that it can be used over a wider area, materials can be more economically produced, that it is especially useful for twon dwellers, and that it promotes national unity (Coles, 1977:36). The last point is especially important in a country where there is language diversity.

On the other hand, research has shown that at least the first instruction should be done in the learner's first language, and that the goal should be to understand how a writing system is related to spoken language. Then the reader can easily learn a second language that provides functional mobility and growth (ICEA, 1979:81).

One of the main advantages of the learner's mother tongue is the literacy learning begins with something that is already known by the learner. Coles (1977) contends that adults usually find it easier to learn and write in their own mother tongue, and those thus taught attain functional literacy quicker than those who are taught a national language which is not in general use in the home (36).

As early as 1953 Unesco advocated that in order to increase the speed of education for the adults, the language of instruction should initially be the mother tongue of the learner, using the script of the regional language. It

was argued that this approach would create more interest among the learners, make it easier for them to learn, and preserve their pride in their own culture. In the critical assessment of the EWLP, in Unesco (1976), it is indicated that 'literacy work in mother tongue is in principle more effective and better reflects the reality of national cultures" (192).

As pointed out in Unesco (1976:192), and Agneta & Anton (1990:70), using several languages raised problems in certain countries. Such problems include shortage of instructors, books and costs, planning the followup, untranscribed languages, numerous ethnolinguistic groups and dialect differences within one language, the gap between the written and spoken words etc. It is pointed out that such problems should be taken into account.

In order to minimize the problems it is recommended that linguistic research is very essential to improve the efficiency of literacy for instance by producing dictionaries, vocabularities, grammers, literature for new literates etc. (Unesco, 1976:192). Coles (1977) also affirms that it should be borne in mind that before primers are produced linguists must first formalize points of syntax, spelling and grammer. Moreover, it is essential to carry on continous evaluation for ensuring the effectiveness of the language used (36).

2.2.7. Selection and Training of Literacy Instructors and Personnel

The success of any literacy programme largely depends on the human resource to be engaged in conducting the programme. Therefore, a human factor, represent one of the crucial problems of functional literacy programmes. A functional literacy training intended would not, by any means be self-activating. For the systems to begin functioning, we shall require functionaries-literacy instructors, supervisors, curriculum planners, evaluators, writers, graphic artists, librarians, administrators, and so on. One of the things, required is a sub-system of instructional actors; and in turn, it is required to develop specialized curricula and specialized instructional systems for the training of these various groups of instructional actors.

Types of Instructors

Many adult educators argue that entirely using of professional teachers as literacy instructors is not effective for the success of a literacy programme. Persuation on professional teachers raises problems not only in terms of the technical skills to be developed but also in terms of the pedagogic traditions to be modified. Moreover, several participants of different conferences held under

unesco, have serious reservations concerning the motivation of teachers of formal education. They stress that lack of motivation of teachers led to high level of absenteeism, insufficient attention to teaching responsibilities and little commitment to the cause of community development. They, therefore, proposed that devoted volunteers inhabiting in the village and motivated to work with the community should be employed.

(Unesco, 1976; Unesco, 1973c; ICEA, 1979; Bhola, 1979; Hamadache & Martin, 1986; Noor, 1982), literacy work must call on all human resources available and not only professional teachers. Experience has shown that instructors from the same milieu as participants and local development agents with a real knowledge of the milieu are more successful than school teachers because they have a better understanding of the problems confronting learners. Such type of teachers are capable of continuing a meaningful communication with the learners that is based on a deeper understanding of their work, experience, problems and aspirations.

Few developing countries, however, have used literacy teachers from the milieu such as Tanzania (Bhola, 1984:151); Algeria has employed some (Noor, 1982:176) and Kenya (Carron & Bordia, 1985:132).

The experience of literacy programmes have shown that

literacy teachers may be paid or unpaid. They may be steadily employed to teach fultime or part-time, or they may be wholly voluntary. In this case these is a need to make decision on which to use and a combination of various types of persons may be used.

In a number of developing countries, students and teachers have been required to teach literacy in voluntary free service in their sparetime or during vacation. As indicated in Hamadache & Martine (1986), volunteer service has disadvantages, notably absenteeism on the part of instructors who are inclined to miss classes after a certain time and who soon become bored (86).

Training of Literacy Instructors and Perssonnel

In (Unesco, 1976; ICEA, 1979; Unesco, 1990; Noor, 1982, Carron & Bordia, 1985), it is argued that literacy training programmes for literacy instructors should be short and intensive initial period of training followed by complementary in-service training (periodic seminars, self training etc.) instead of long initial training as in the case for primary school teachers training. This practice seems more effective and less costly than a long initial training with no or minimal inservice programmes. This preference arises both from the practicality of repeated reinforcement of basic skills and from the opportunity provided for instructors to use class experience as a practical source for their own

learning. Frequently in-service sessions offer an opportunity to exchange ideas, information and experiences.

As pronounced in Unesco, (1976); Unesco (1990); ICEA, (1979); Hamadach & Martin, (1986), it should be made clear that training does not only concern the instructional staff but also all those people who have role in literacy such as organizers, planners, administrators, trainers, supervisors, evaluators, textbook writers, illustrators, radio-producers, librariens, journalists etc. Thus, in the training of literacy workers, institutions of higher and secondary education should pay more attention to literacy. Universities could deal with problems of pedagogic and linguistic research, training of specialists, survey of the milieu, evaluation etd. Teacher training institutions of different levels could deal with the concepts of adult psychology and pedagogy to be taught to student teachers to prepare them for educating adults as well as children.

Unlike the traditional training system, in the literacy instructors and workers training system the only real knowledge is that which is gained by experience, in a real situation, and by methods combining, with in the act of learning, practical activities and the theoretical interpretation of those activities.

The new approach to the training of literacy personel,

which is designed to meet the aforstated requirments is 'operational seminar' (Unesco, 1973B: 46-47; Hamadach & Martin, 1986:122). This approach is not exclusively designed for literacy teachers; it is also intended for all those people participating in the literacy programme. It involves of practicing, within the context of actual work and for a limited period of intensive activity (Unesco, 1973c:147).

Moreover, the operational seminars approach can also be organized within the framework of refresher training courses in certain specialized feilds such as evaluation, post-literacy work, training of instructors, preparation of teaching materials and so on (Ibid.).

In many literatures it is contended that, in most developing countries yet adequate measures have not been taken in training literacy personnel according to the needs required as disussed above. Despite these limitations, some progress towards the training of teachers and workers is evident. For instance, Tanzania has made an adult education component compulsary in all its colleges and institutions of national education for the training of school teachers (Noor, 1982:177; Bhola, 1984:150).

Moreover, the Institute of Adult Education (IAE) established in 1964 as an extension service of the university of Dar-es-Salaam is offering two years residential diploma

courses in adult education to train large body of teachers and administrators, and some researchers to serve the literacy campaign. The university of Dar-es-Salaam also offers a degree course in adult education (Bhola, 1984:150)

Most importantly, the National Literacy Center in Mwanza train regional and district teams for the purpose of decentralizing the training teams represented an important strategic element in the mass campaign. The Tanzanian literacy programme did not have any serious problems in training teachers to go out in the villages and turn the whole country into one big classroom (Ibid:151).

Nigeria also has introduced the study of adult education not only to the teacher training colleges but also to the secondary schools and to intermediate colleges. There are also some other countries that have established separate literacy institutions to provide intensive courses for a duration raning from a few weeks to an academic year (Noor, 1982:177).

In Kenya, adult education officers recieve most of their training from the Institute of Adult Education, University of Nairobi. The literacy teachers training is carried-out in the local areas. They recieve a two week course. On-job-training is also offered to the instructors. It is conducted through correspondence cources, and is supported

by radio lessons and face-to-face teaching. Part-time teachers recieve special courses which are organized during the week-ends by the district adult education officers in their respective districts (Carron & Bordie, 1985:132).

2.2.8. Determining Evaluation and Monitoring Devices

The evaluation system of adult education is some what different from that of formally organized education. Formal education systems are primarily interested in placing the individual on a scale of achievement to determine whether or not he measures-up to some external standard. Adult programmes, taking in a wide range in ability and motivation, are more interested in growth as a result of specific effort, in spite of the fact that individual rates of growth may be different. The programme, not the learner, is on trail. It is particularly important on this assumption, for curriculum planners and teachers to apply the results of evaluation to improve the programme.

Therefore, one of the tasks confronting the curriculum planners of literacy and post-literacy programmes is to design and implement a system of evaluation. Courvert (1979), affirms that the effectiveness of functional literacy training depends on the extent to which the instructional programme can be improved in light of acquired experience,

changing conditions, and feedback from practical experiences (160).

The term evaluation is defined in various ways in educational and other literatures by many scholars. In this paper, the definition of Dave is used. The definition of evaluation and monitoring as spelt-out in Dave's (1985) paper are as follows:-

> Evaluation is a process of collecting evidence and using it to judge the degree of goodness or worth of the entity being evaluated for various types of decision making (280).
>
> Monitoring is a process of watching periodically the progress of a programme in order to identify strengths as well as shortfalls, if any, for the purpose of taking timely corrective measures with a view of optimizing the effectiveness and efficiency of the project or programme (290).

General principles for planning evaluation and monitoring devices

i) The need for evaluation should arise from the requirment to improve instructional materials or overall curriculum planning and implementation. The feedbacks made available by evaluation must be actually used in decision making to improve the functioning of the current programme. If this is not done, there is no justification at all for conducting evaluation (Bhola, 1979:239).

In Unesco (1976), it is recommended that evaluation should be carried out periodically to ensure plan excusion with a view to improve or revise the plan and it must be action oriented evaluation. In reference to this Dave (1985) as well says, a well designed system of evaluation and monitoring mainly should be improvement oriented. It should render multiple functions for meeting the decision making needs of learners, animeters, curriculum planners, etc (285).

ii) Most adult educators argue that evaluation should not be taken as an after programme activity. Dave (1985) in this respect affirms, in order to carryout an effective programme of literacy, evaluation should be built in each component of the programme (290). Alkin also contends, as cited in Carron & Borndia (1985), evaluation should not be a post hoc affair, only focusing its measurement on the outputs of a programme. It should be integrated into the planning and implementation of the programme from its beginning to the end (304).

iii) Besides the aforestated principles, the need and significance of evaluation as built-in system in a literacy programme has no doubt been universally recognized by literacy workers at all levels. Bhola (1979), argues that evaluation should not be conceptualized as an activity separate from the programme. It should be built into the programme or

should become an integral part of the programme itself (239). Evaluation of the curriculum should not be left to the specialists, though specialists may have a role to play in some cases (Ibid:240).

Moreover, in Unesco (1976), it is recommended that evaluation must take account of the cultural context of each experience and not transpose mechanically evaluation designs prepared for differing societies (194).

Dave (1985), confirms that in order to plan and implement a built-in evaluation system there should be a unit for evaluation and monitoring at a national level as an integral part of the staff for the programme of literacy and post-literacy. There should be an appropriate arrangement at the sub-national and local levels such that specific responsibilities concerning evaluation work are assigned to categories of literacy workers based on different components of the curriculum (293).

iv) Evaluation should not be narrowly concieved to involve only that feedback which is based on numbers and on statistical treatment of numbers. Evaluation is a process where by experience is systematized and objectivised (Bhola, 1979:240). In respect to this issue, in Unesco (1976) it is stated that to improve the efficiency of action is more important function of evaluation than the international comparison of data collected (194).

As part of curriculum evaluation, the different components and related variables of the curriculum need to be evaluated. For the success of the programme, in the process that could and should be evaluated include (Bhola, 1979; Couvert, 1979);- the whole process of the curriculum planning itself, the effectiveness of the objectives set up, the validity and relevance of the contents designed, the effectiveness of all item of literacy materials (pre-testing and post-testing), performance of literacy instructors and personnel in various roles, the effectiveness of the languages used, teaching methods, learner's progress and achievement, the impact of the programme on the participants life and so on.

2.2.9. The Technical Structure for Planning Literacy Programme Curriculum

Research has demonstrated that the difficulties facing literacy programmes are not mainly those of pedagogy or sophesticated methodology. They are largely structural and organizational steeming from lack of mechanisms in planning the programme (ICEA, 1979:17). Who should be involved in planning the programme's curriculum forms the key issue in the programme.

Who should be involved in the planning process ?

(Unesco, 1976; ICAE, 1979; Bhola, 1979; Unesco, 1973c), functional literacy curriculum planning must be an inter-

disciplinary operation. Functional literacy training being a method of training designed to promote economic and social development, requires the cooperation of specialists from a variety of social and economic sectors- agriculture, industry, education, public health etc. Therefore, it should not be left to educators alone. Coordination among ministries, departments and agencies lies at the heart of literacy programme and hinges upon clear delination of roles and responsibilities. Coordination should not attempt to impose uniformity, but rather to relate educational activities to the solution of national and local problems.

Therefore, planning curriculum that is relevant to the learners is a complex task requiring inputs from linguists, people with experience in working with adults and in adult psychology, literacy teachers, and administrators, artists and people experienced in production of print and non-print materials. They constitute the central team of curriculum planning and they are responsible for producing the materials for literacy courses, drawing on local expertise (ICEA, 1979:47; Unesco, 1973b:18).

It may be objected that calling on various branches, imply a high cost factor but, in fact lack of real knowledge of the milieu so often leads to costly set backs. It can result into the failurity of the programme's output. Therefore, it is better to call on a number of specialists as much as

possible in planning the curriculum for the success of the programme (Hamadach & Martin 1986:74).

The interdisciplinary nature of functional literacy demands team work in planning the curriculum, including teachers and potential learners. Bhola (1979), argues that the curriculum planning task must be handled as part of team work and not looked up on as work done by educators left to themselves (75). In Unesco (1973c), it is also indicated that 'assembly line' method can not really meet the need for interdisciplinary in functional literacy work. Curriculum work of literacy programmes, at all stages, is more effective if it conducted by groups of specialists"(18).

It is obvious that literacy work is a community development work, which takes place typically, within a government setting. In such a case, individuals from relevant development sectors, and adult literacy education, from the center down to the subcenter or to the community village level should be seen as part of an inter-level curriculum planning team, each making its own contribution to the total curriculum planning effort (Bhola, 1979:74).

Curriculum Planning Model

It is clear that any literacy operation to be effective, requires first, appropriate operational structures, and second suitable working methods. Experience over the past

few years has shown that Where planning and implementation is one at the national level, the needs and aspirations of the local communities are ignored. In this case, the local community tend to view the literacy programme as something outside, and belonging to the government or even to the offices in charge. Mobilization and motivation of the learners, who are the recipient of the programme, then becomes a critical problem. The learner's participation in the programme, therefore, become a favour done to the government officer and not because they feel themselves to be an integral part of the programme. Moreover, other government officers at lower levels tends to consider the illiteracy problem not as national issue which calls for the cooperation of all the leaders, but rather as one belonging to the section of adult education and which should be eradicated by that section.

As mentioned in different parts of this paper, the planning of literacy programme's curriculum necessarily implies some form of diversification in function of the different target groups to be served. Kebathi, as cited in Carrons Bordia (1985), argued that ... if literacy is to be functional and responsive to local needs some local level autonomy and decision making power will be necessary. The different characteristics and needs of different target groups have to be reflected in a way literacy curriculum is being designed and organized. Decentralization therefore,

facilitates the participation of the local community in the planning of the programme's curriculum (19).

As also recommended in Unesco (1976):-

> ... such planning should be as decentralized as possible, in both preparation and execution, so as to reflect clearly to problems of each region and thus arouse the interest and participation of the population in all ways possible ... (192).

As indicated by Kebathi, in Carron& Bordia (1985), according to the study made in Kenya, the success of a literacy project has proved that decentralization of the planning and implementation of the programme can if carried-out effectively affect the literacy programme (135).

In various literatures it is argued that decentralization means the deligation of power to different level officers to plan and administer the literacy programme in their area with minimal controlk by the national headquarters.

This principle is similar to the Tanzanian system where the words of Nyrere, as quoted by Kebathi, in Carron & Bordia (1985), effective decentralization:

> Means that there is a need to develop new methods of public participation in planning operation. ... We have in fact to change the attitude that only 'experts' can make decisions and that 'experts' can be identified by their formal education qualifications. We have instead to help the people make decision for themselves (127).

Decentralization facilitates the participation by the beneficiaries of programmes in the preparation and implementation of those efforts that concern them and enable grassroot planners to attach appropriate emphasis to the problems peculiar to the specific region (Noor, 1982:171). As signified in Unesco (1973c), experience has shown that decentralized structures are those which best meet the demands of practical action. Effective decentralization of the planning and execution of a functional programme facilitates - the study of the milieu and the identification of the problems hampering development, the diversification of education methods and instruments, the training and supervision of instructors, the evaluation of the process involved and the educational results (15).

Many adult educators suggest that at the same time we should not be blind to some of the possible problems that can occure as a result of decentralization. Their argument is, if local levels are given unreserved freedom would lead to extrem fragmentary approach and this inturn would lead to duplication and wastage of resources. The solution suggested for solving this problem by many adult educators is a limited centralized planning by the head-quarters.

Noor (1982:171); Carron & Bordin (1985:19); Bhola (1984:188), contend that if societies are serious about eliminating illiteracy, literacy has to become a general

political committtment and there is need for a centrally defined policy and planning input, without extinguishing local initiatives and local adoptations. There should be a guideline on a national policy regarding the programme, so that districts can plan within the framework of the national policy.

The Udaipur Literacy Declaration (1981), stated that decentralization should imply that central authorities have well-planned roles in policy making and supportive actions (8).

Experiences during the EWLP and the experiences of other countries has revealed, the importance of establishing a strong technical structure (backed by a central ministry) so as to ensure coordination between the national and local levels and thus avoid duplication and wastage. Besides, it ensures the need for decentralization so as to meet the demands of concret action and ensure the participation of the target groups (Unesco, 1976:192; ICEA, 1979:17; Hamadach & Martine, 1986:78-79).

Finally, all the arguments made in this chapter are used as a theoretical frameworks for the analysis presented in the subsequent chapters. They were used as frame of references in analysing, examining and explaining the topics understudy and at last in seeking reasonable recommendations.

CHAPTER III

THE STUDY DESIGN AND PROCESSES

3.1. Design

This study is an evaluative research of the curriculum planning process. Seemingly, it is a comparison between the curriculum planning process which actually employed in the literacy programme of Ethiopia and the planning process suggested in the international conferences sponsered by Unesco and advocated by important adult educators.

There has been no clear and articulated descriptions of processes actually exerted in the curriculum planning that had been developed for the literacy programme of Ethiopia. Inspite of that, the researcher tried to get the processes through inferences from the documents issued in the programme and by the instruments used in the study.

Moreover, there is no single model developed that can serve as a standard with which most adult educators in the area of curriculum planning agreed. Despite there are some variations, the researcher has adopted the principle steps involved in the process of planning the curriculum of literacy programmes which are often similar. Then the discripancies has been identified and judgemental statements are made about the adequacies and inadequacies of the system practiced.

The study makes use of a combination of descriptive survey and analytical research methods. It used descriptive survey design since it attempts to find out answers to the questions like:-

- Was there any study of the milieu actualized in the formulation of the curriculum objectives ?
- What strategies were used in designing and preparing the contents and teaching materials ?
- What strategies were devised in determining the general patterns of planning and implementing the curriculum such as methods, medium of instruction, training of literacy workers, and evaluation devices?
- Who were participating in the curriculum planning process ?
- Which model of planning was used ?

Thus, the different variables of the curriculum planning process are described, analysed and then examined and explanations sought.

The study also makes use of analytical method since it depend on document analysis for inferential purposes.

3.2. Sources of Data

The study data were obtained from three main sources:-

i) Documents issued by the DAE, the NLCCC, and the MOE.

ii) Literature review of documents and books issued by Unesco, different adult educators and other countries about literacy programmes.

iii) Interview of a purposive sample of people working in the DAE at different levels.

In this study purposive sampling techniques were applied. Thus, the cases to be involved in the sample were choosen and developed samples that are adequate according the study's needs. The target sample population were from the department's central office workers and officers at selected provincial and awraja levels.

In the central office, workers w ho have had direct involvement and indirect concern have been consulted. This include members who are working in the Curriculum Development and Teaching Materials Production Section and the current and former officials of the DAE.

At the regional level, five provincial and five awraja offices of the DAE were used in the study. The provincial centers selected were Arsi, Eastern-Hararghe, Illubabor,

Western-Gojjam and Sidamo. These centers were involved with the writer's presumption that they could be representative. The awraja offices included were those that are located near the provincial offices. This limitation was mainly because of the prevalent transport and security problems in the regions.

Over and above, in his preliminary surveys, the researcher had realized that the curriculum was planned at the central level. Hence, the intention of the writer in consulting the workers at the regional level offices was mainly to get their view about the curriculum planning process of the programme and to get information about the difficulties experienced in the programme's implementation stage. In this context, the researcher assumes that sample centers selected could be adequate.

The interview was administered with twenty two members of the DAE. In which ten of them were workers in the central office, seven in the provincial and five in the awraja offices. Thus, the target sample population of the study were limited to the members of the DAE. This is important since they are the agents of the programme and implementers who were highly involved in the programme and are the main resourceful persons as far as the literacy curriculum planning is concerned.

As far as the literature and document review and study are concerned the books, conference reports, phamphelets, megazines etc. that are available had been reviewed to extract the necessary information. More emphasis was given to the books and documents published by Unesco.

In the paper considerable attention had been given to the literature review part. This was made with the premise of most readers in this country are not clear about the fundamental concepts of functional literacy that have influence in the planning of the curriculum.

3.3. Instrumentation

Despite that no device had been developed for the evaluation of the Ethiopian literacy programme's curriculum planning, the investigator could not directly apply or adapt or adopt any previous instrument for data collection. Hence, he had to plan a new instrument of his own for the study. Before, the construction of the instrument, a careful study of the information on the documents available was made to know what information were missing in the documents.

For the study unstructured interview was developed in the way in which questions are raised and answers given. The interview questions sought were made to correspond to the basic questions raised to be treated in the study. Two interview instruments, one for the workers of the

central office and the other for the provincial and awraja officers, were developed. This instrument was applied in the study because the number of the target population of the study is less. The instruments are shown in appendix F and G.

Since the information procured through unstructured interview method are difficult to quantify, the findings of the study are presented by the way of qualitative descriptions, explanations and judgemental statements about the adequacies and inadequecies of the planning system deployed.

3.4. Validation of the Instruments

The instruments designed were given to four individuals who are studying in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction to review and suggest improvements. The instruments were also given to the supervisor of this study for further comments and improvements. The remarks and suggestions obtained were taken into account in designing the final form of the instruments.

Furthermore, before the final forms were ready and delivered to the interveews, pretesting of the interview questions were carried out to see their effectiveness in terms of practical use. The tryouts were conducted with

two workers in the central office and one individual in the nearest region at Assela (Arsi Provincial Education Office). This led to revision of some questions, cancellation of ineffective questions and inclusion of other items. In the validation process no statistical techniques were applied because of the nature of the interview questions being difficult to quantify. But the researcher tried to infer vague and ineffectual items through his interaction with the respondents.

3.5. Administration of the Instrument

The conduct of the interview was realized through face to face or direct communication. The interview question forms were provided to the target sample population in advance before the date of the delivery of the interview.

In most cases the researcher had informally directed the subjects to the issues to be covered. Moreover, in some cases the interview was administered with more than one respondent once at a time.

In order to ensure better communication the Amharic version of the interview question forms were used in the process.

CHAPTER IV

AN APPRAISAL OF THE LITERACY PROGRAMMES CURRICULUM PRE 1974

Before the examination of the literacy programme's curriculum of Ethiopia after 1974, it is momentous to examine the previous literacy programmes curriculum. Taking this into consideration, in this part of the paper the traditional as well as modern literacy programmes and their curriculum before 1974 in Ethiopia will be treated. Moreover, based on the documents available and through the inference of the teaching materials and methods utilized, some comments will be made on the curriculum.

4.1. Traditional Literacy Training and Methodologies Exerted

Ethiopia has never been under colonial rule except for the brief interlude 1936-1941. As a consequence, the Ethiopian education system has been more influenced by traditional values than what is usual in African countries. "For centuries the Ethiopian Orthodox church has been primarily responsible for teaching people to read the national languages" (Teshome, 1978:504).

Literacy has a long history in Ethiopia, eventhough it is not the oldest. Churches and monastries, whose number

grew after the introduction of christianity during the Axumite Empire, were important centers of learning (Haile Gebriel, 1971:3). Another source of learning were the Koran schools in the Muslim inhabited areas (Ibid:4).

When discussing the role of church schools in the socialization process, Levine, as cited in Margareta & Sjostrom (1983), contends that the traditional church education in no wise seeks to cultivate the individual but aims only to prepare cultural specialists who will be able to perform the rituals and perpetuate the teaching of the Ethiopian Church (33).

Literacy training by church men reaches far beyond the confines of the formal church centers of traditional higher learning, for it is conducted throughout the country by individual priests or other associated with the church as a form of private enterpreneurship. For more than 16 centuries, in small classes in the church yard of the village, the priest conducted the lessons, as beginning level, in what was known as the 'nebab bet' (House of Reading) (Head & Negash, 1976:27).

Traditionally, students were taught to read the Bible and other religious works written in Geez, the ancient liturgical language (Teshome, 1978:504). As also connoted in Head & Negash (1976), traditionally at the beginning level the students were required first to learn by heart a syllabary

of over 200 fidal, or characters, then to memorize Biblical excepts or commentaries in Geez all without comprehension (27).

Education contents were almost entirely religious with training in reading and memorizing of religious texts. Starr & Starr (1978), pointed out that the writing system is quite regular and phonetic, so decoding is relatively easy. There was little concern with teaching the students to understand what they read, since the church consider Geez to be God's language, and to read Geez is to communicate with God (510).

Apparently, attendance of a student in the nebab bet gave rise to a limited ability to read, and usually without understanding and to not well-developed skills which be times relapsed.

Tefla, as reviewed in Head & Negash (1976), says that the nebab bet emphasized reading and did little to develop writing skills. Infact, writing has traditionally considered as degrading, perhaps an evil, accomplishment (28). Teshome (1978), also contends, the emphasis was entirely on reading: writing was looked down up on because of its association with the manifestation of evil and magic. He further argues that even today writing is rarely taught at the lowest levels (505).

The Orthodox church schools were not the only educational institutions from the historical time. Kuran schools seem to have existed for centuries in the Muslim inhabited areas in Eastern and Western part of Ethiopia, though their existence was not widely known until modern time. The educational content was drawn from the Koran and other religious texts, and students were taught to read and write Arabic (Pankhrust, 1976:40).

Margareta & Sjostrom (1983), in their study analyzing the traditional Christian and Muslim schools teaching methods used stated that the synthetic approach combining letter elements into words is evident in both systems. Moreover, one notices the assistance of monitors. Traditional methods in both schools were also characterized by mechanical and monotonous drillings isolated letters, and of reading without comprehension of religious texts in unfamiliar language. Furthermore, the emphasis was on reading skills rather than on writing proficiency (106).

4.2. Modern Literacy Training and Methodologies Applied

Secular, state operated schools are entirely a phenomenon of this century in Ethiopia. A first significant step towards modern education was taken by Emperior Minilik II around 1900, when he established the first secular school at his palace. Literacy training also began to expand

after the introduction of modern education. In the meantime, Minilik issued a proclamation in 1906 emphasizing that all churches, monastries and other religious institutions should teach literacy to all children (NLCCC, 1984:5).

In 1952, the Ministry of Education announced that adult education was one of the projects for the future, and reported only 745 people enrolled in evening schools. Consequently in 1955, the government issued a proclamation on literacy. The government's notice was issued to the effect that those whose age was between 18 to 50 should learn reading and writing in Amharic in a nearby government or private schools or by privately employed instructors. This was known as 'Yefidel Serawit', which literacy mean 'an alphabet army'. Its financial sources were voluntary contributions (MOEFA, 1969:1-5).

A National Literacy Campaign Organization (NLCO) was established in 1962 as a private, non-profit, voluntary organization to continue the literacy programme. Its effect were based on the voluntary labour of students and their teachers during the summer and other school vacation period.

In 1967, the government created the Directorate of Adult Education and Literacy, a central coordinating unit attached to the Ministry of Education. Its function was to provide overall guidance, coordinate literacy efforts, collect statistics, conduct literacy programmes through provential

education officers, and establish standards of reading proficiency (Ibid:4-5). This was the beginning of nationally organized and coordinated literacy effort in Ethiopia (Head & Negash, 1976:30).

The other literacy programme before 1974 was the Work Oriented Adult Literacy Programme (WOALP), which was started in 1968 and financed by Unesco and UNDP. It was an experimental programme which was conducted in three agricultural regions and in two industrial areas, focusing on developing literacy methods linked to development programmes and needs.

The central purpose of this project was to develop appropriate methods for training, teaching and learning and to relate these to specific environments, and to produce suitable materials for use in literacy work. Over five years of duration, 128,000 people were trained. Nevertheless, the project served to extend experience, raise professional capacity to engage in literacy work, and as an introduction to the task of preparing training materials (Unesco, 1976:33-41).

With time, the number of organizations engaged in the teaching of reading expanded significantly. By 1973 there were at least twenty different government, semi-government, private and religious organizations teaching some kind of literacy skills. Together, these organizations enrolled

around one and a half million people over an eight year period. Even if half this number had become literate (which is doutful), this would clearly have been a significant achievement (Teshome, 1978:506).

In the early seventies, as reviewed by Margreta & Sjostrom (1983), Ethiopia had one of the lowest levels of literacy in the World. The World Bank put the rate of literacy in the total population - above the age 16 at 7 percent (38). When about 93 percent of the people were illustrate, it was sad to note that an annual budget of only 750,000 birr ($362,318) was provided by the government to combat illiteracy (MOE, 1980A:2). This suggest that literacy programmes at that periods existed nominally and educational facilities for adults were even more scarce than for children.

Methodologies Applied

The instructional materials and methods used by the literacy organizations vary. In this perspective, the writer had tried to survey the Amharic primers published between 1929 and 1970. His primer survey was based on materials compiled and commented by Head & Negash (1976). The presentation of the survey is in the form of a chronological list.

Table 1 - Chronological List of Selected Amharic Primers

No.	Year of Publication	Title / Description	Published by	Inferred Methods
1.	1929	For the first year; Amharic Reading primer for children	Department of Education	Synthetic
2.	1935	Beginning Fidal Study (Bandera Fidal or Flag Fidal)	Bible Church men's Missionary Society	Synthetic
3.	1949	Amharic Primer	MOEFA	Synthetic
4.	1955	My Green Friend	MOEFA	Synthetic
5.	1956	'Lemma at School', 'Lemma and Relatives', 'Lemma at the Market'	MOEFA	Synthetic
6.	1959	Gospel Fidal; An Easy Read From Fidal to Reading	Sudan Interior Mission	Synthetic
7.	1961	Amharic Primer	Yemisirach Dimts	Eclectic
8.	1963	Amharic Fidal Primer	NLCO	Synthetic
9.	1965	Reading and Witing by Radio	MOEFA	Synthetic
10.	1970	Fidel Primer	MOEFA	Synthetic
11.	1970	Family Living	WOALP	Analytic

Source: As adapted from Head & Negash (1976:31-37).

As illustrated in the above table, there are variations in the instructional materials and methods employed by

methodological perspective. Work oriented appear to differ from most of the primers described earlier in two main ways:

(i) they are most clearly aimed at adults and, of course, oriented from the very beginning towards specific work-related concepts, and

(ii) they get away completely from the fidal table as a productive device, taking a global approach to language starting with a complete sentence and then breaking it down into compbnent parts (first words, then fidal) rather than the reverse order (43).

Apparently, the WOALP tried to attribute teaching literacy to work skills. It required the mastery of basic literacy skills by extracting illustrative materials, vocabulary and concepts from thelearner immediate environment. In rural areas peasants for example, read about seeds, cattle, crops, plowing implements, planting and harvesting reasons and so on (Unesco, 1976:36-37).

In this programme various materials and methods were tested. Literacy materials that included work-oriented contents were produced for the project. Literacy teachers were drawn from the geographical areas in which they worked. Classes were over seen in the field by Unesco experts. Teachers, including local extention agents and teachers, were given fifteen days of training in teaching Amharic according to the global method (Ibid:33-36).

Follow up surveys of the Unesco programme, as reviewed

by Teshome (1978), indicated that it had been beset by numerous problems, such as absenteeism, the difficulty of relating the skills being taught to the work students did, and so on. Moreover, the cost of the programme was very high relative to the number of literates it produced, although the programme did succeeded in developing new literacy materials and methods (507).

4.3. Concluding Remarks

In this part, some concluding comments are made. The remarks are derived from the documents available and some of them are infered from the teaching materials and methods applied in the programmes.

Almost all of the literacy programmes conducted prior to 1974 considered literacy as an end in itself. On the other hand, WOALP had attempted to relate literacy skills to wider objectives by relating it to the every day life of the learners, particularly with the economic and social problems of the immediate environment. It is solely in this programme that study of the milieu was carried out to determine the curriculum objectives.

Literacy programmes contents, with the exception of WOALP, were irrespective to the usual experience of the learners for whom they were intended. The contents for that reason lacked functional significance. Instructional materials

provided were foreign to the life of the participants. Hence, as indicated in different documents there was irregularity in the part of the literacy learners in attending classes and the departure of most of them from the class before the completion of the programme.

Putting in a nutshell, the preceding review of teaching of reading in Ethiopia reveals that synthetic method was dominant. Modern literacy training has brought significally designed materials for literacy training. The methodologies reflected, with the exception of the WOALP and Yemisrach Dimits programme, appear to have a synthetic approach. This suggest that the methods employed were highly influenced by the traditional methods which were used in church and Muslim schools.

It is spectacular that Ethiopia is linguistically diversified country with a large number of language and dialects. There are at least fourteen major languages which are widely spoken in the country. Amharic is the official language, and it had a monopoly as a literacy language.

Amharic was the sole language used as the medium of instruction in both formal and non-formal educational systems. The evaluation report on the WOALP, noted in connection with the medium of instruction that:

> "Language problems of participants were ignored and the same materials were used both with the participants whose native tongue was not the national language... (Unesco, 1976:40).

The whole instructional materials and tests, in all literacy programmes prior to 1974, were prepared only in the Amharic language. This made it difficult for those who were non-Amharic speakers to procure the required literacy skills.

As indicated in most of the documents available about the literacy programmes before 1974, practically no spedial training was given to the literacy instructors who taught in the programmes. In most cases, voluntary students and their teachers in the course of their vacation periods were used. On the other hand, the WOALP was exceptional that it employed locally available teachers including local extention agents and provided special training for fifteen days.

Along with the aforestated conditions, in almost all literacy programmes there were no provisions of follow-up or supplementary programmes. The non-provision of post-literacy programmes might have made the newly literate persons to lapse into illiteracy through disuse.

In the final analysis, from the preceding statements, one can infer that in most of the literacy programmes, the basic principles in planning the curriculum that has been suggested by Unesco-functionality, participation, integration

and diversification were not applied in the planning of the curriculum of the programmes undertaken.

Moreover, in his appraisal of Adult Literacy in Ethiopia, Teshome (1978), has indicated that looking at all these adult literacy programmes, it is difficult to elicit any definitive conclusions regarding their effectiveness. He therefore, produced a tentative conclusions. The available data appear to indicate that adult literacy efforts as undertaken in Ethiopia were wasteful and meaningless for the majority of their participants. There is no evidence to support the assumption that literacy skills as practiced in Ethiopia help adult individuals live in better harmony with their environment or help them solve work related problems (507).

CHAPTER V

DESCRIPTIONS AND ANALYSIS OF THE PROGRAMME PLANNING SYSTEM EXERTED

This chapter presents the descriptions and analysis of the planning system exerted in the literacy programme of Ethiopia. It deals with the general patterns devised in the planning and implementation of the curriculum such as formulation of objectives, design of contents, preparation of teaching materials, teaching methods, medium of instruction, training of literacy workers, and evaluation methods. Furthermore, it treats the topics like the members that participated in the planning process, the model used in the process and the technical structure of the DAE. Then, these variables are described, analysed and explained.

5.1. General Objectives and Strategies of the Programme

Policy for the eradication of illiteracy

Like the literacy campaign programmes experienced in different countries, the literacy campaign of Ethiopia took place within revolutionary conditions or political transition. With the change of regime in 1974, new philosophy i.e. socialism emerged as a guiding philosophy of the nation. With the coming of this new philosophy there came the pledge

of exterminating the old system and that of building the new order simultanously.

The National Decmoratic Revolution Programme, which was announced in April 1976, as quoted by Gudeta (1982), stated:-

> There will be an educational programme that will provide free education, step by step, to the broad masses ... All necessary measures to eliminate illiteracy will be undertaken ... All necessary efforts will be made to free the diversified cultures of Ethiopia from any external domination. (194)

Consequently in 1979, the National Literacy Campaign programme was launched with the premises of the educational policy change. It had been conceptualized with the frame of the new philosophy laid down by the NDRP, which outlined a new strategy for socio-economic, reconstruction and development. Eradication of illiteracy in the programme was viewed as an important component and instrument of the revolutionary, development and cultural transformation.

The connotation of the preceding statements is that the Derge was in need of large number of people in the realization of the new social transformation. Thus, literacy was considered as a preparation for participation in the new social order. Apparently, the campaign was aimed to mobilize the people on a large scale to participate in an organized collective act of solidarity with the revolution with significant effects on the illiterates and others, who

represent a potential obstacle to the socialist project as a whole.

As indicated in the MOE (1980b), the broad objectives of the educational sector, formal and non-formal education from 1980, were education for production, for science and research and for socialist consciousness (10). Usually these objectives were also used as slogans by politicans in mobilizing the people.

In general the intent of the government was to promote a socialist policy and mobilize the masses for this goal. Thus the state had made use of the campaign for political ends. The target of eradicating illiteracy was profoundly rooted in large scale participation and in the creation of social mobilization which often implies that little attention was put on the educational quality of outcomes.

General objectives of the programme

The task of the campaign was began with the establishment of an adhoc committee through the MOE to study the ways and means of launching the campaign. On the basis of the general priority orientation of the policy, the general objectives of the programme were set down by the committee.

The general objectives of the programme, as indicated in NLCCC (1986), are:-

a) To emanicipate the masses from illiteracy without hampering their day to day activities and in the languages that understood best.

b) To strengthen and up grade the skills acquired through literacy and lay down strong foundation for further education.

c) To encourage and promote the development of political consciousness, economic prosperity and social maturity of the masses in the context of functional literacy.

d) To introduce the adult literates to revolutionary literature so that they can utilize the information for their development.

e) To enable the adults to use simple and practical calculations based on four operations which can be applied in their day to day activities.

f) To give transitional education to adults so that they may not limited to their origional localities and traditional occupationals alone (3).

As pointed out in the NLCCC (1986), the committee brought together 34 representatives from government agencies, mass organizations, professional associations, and religious institutions (5). In this context, it seems that representatives

strategy used was declaring a policy for the launching of a massive nation-wide literacy campaign for a fixed period of time by mobilizing all available human and material resources, involving all the people between the age groups 8-49 (5).

The campaign had been drawn in two plans namely a short-term and a long-term plan. The short-term plan placed emphasis in urban areas and surrounding areas, with the premise of getting experience before launching in rural areas. The long-term plan placed emphasis on the rural areas (Ibid, 5-11).

The campaign was organized in two rounds every twelve months. The first round was regarded as an 'attach period' during which all those in the community above the age of eight years are invited to attend classes. The following round is a 'mop-up' period which deals with those who were unable to attend the previous round and who had failed the examination and required remedial tuition. During this round post-literacy have also been organized for those who were successful and gained their certificates (NLCCC, 1984:17). In the interim 1979 to April 1991, 25 rounds had been effectuated.

Through experience, applying the campaign series strategy entailed a number of embarassements. Among these difficulties meet within the programme as inferred from the reply of the workers at different levels include:-

- It brought problems on planning and implementing the curriculum according to the needs of the local situations;

- As the campaign progressed steadly and widened its area, the question of supplies became serious. Primers, exercise books and pencils became scarce. Moreover, the logistic distribution and dissimination of educational supplies to different literacy centers came to be difficult;

- The mobilization of instructors and to keep on the job on a voluntary service became harder. Besides, the literacy workers in the sub-committee at different levels he fed up with the continuing activities on a voluntary service;

- It often became very easy for external factors (draught, war and other programmes) to remove literacy priority in practice along the way;

- Classes, which were large, often began to accumulate a lot of repeaters from previous campaign rounds;

- The programme being complicated, the literacy activity became a bureaucratic process, too heavy and divert of a feeling of priority;

- The two moments, literacy and post-literacy; inspite of running both simultaneously had brought effects by becoming a mixture of parallel programmes, which complicated organization, support, and training, diffused efforts and reduced on the literacy issue itself.

As a result of this, the first two or three campaigh rounds usually appeared to be effective, but then things arose to fall apart. Thereafter, the initial two rounds, the activities declined, and they could be called as dead periods.

Apparently, the programme was existing nominally. It was undertaken profoundly for propaganda purposes. In this regard, the respondents at regional levels claimed that the programme's activities were mainly based on the reporting of statistical data to the higher committees.

5.2. Determination of the Curriculum Objectives

After the formulation of the general objectives, the next step taken in the programme was setting the objectives of the curriculum. The curriculum objectives for the programme had been completely revised during the post-revolutionary period. In general, it was made to reflect the goals of the NDRP.

The broad objectives of the literacy programme's curriculum as indicated in DAE (1978), are:-

- To impart reading skills;
- To impart writing skills;
- To impart computation skills; and
- To acquire knowledge (elementary) which will be the base for continuing education and improve their living conditions (4).

A team of representatives from different ministries and agencies designed the adult education curriculum. This document contains, among other things, the general objectives and specific objectives, subject objectives and content outlines. It was the one and only curriculum document at hand for the whole programme. The document did not included all the necessary elements to come under the curriculum of the programme. Therefore, it appears fallacious to mention that there was curriculum document. It is simply an outline of objectives and contents.

As remarked by the parteners of the division, in planning the objectives, no study of the milieu was effectuated. The objectives were set up by the attributed group of representatives in reference to their fields by taking the general priority areas in themselves. Bearing this one of the respondents, who participated in the literacy curriculum panel, asserted that the objectives of literacy education were adopted from the objectives of the formal education system.

Taking the objectives pointed out in the document as a guideline, the members of each panel worked out their own detailed objectives in their respective subjects. So far there were no well-prepared documents available in each panels, which include the integral objectives of each subject areas. In the meantime, the members of each panel said, in 1989 with the initiation of the newly appointed head of the division who came from the Department of Curriculum Development (formal education), attempts were made to prepare a syllabus for each subjects like the formal school system. Nevertheless, documents were not prepared well.

It is indeed disappointing undertaking such a nation-wide literacy programme for this long period of time without having a document that comprise the integral objectives to be obtained in the programme. This often implies that to what extent the programme's activity was symbolic.

As reviewed in chapter two, the planning of a literacy programme's curriculum objectives should seek to integrate the national necessities with the needs expressed by different social groups to whom the programme is intended. No literacy can be effective if not these groups realize that literacy serves their own interest and those of the national.

Nevertheless, study of the milieu was ignored in the programme's curriculum planning process. This imply that the needs and aspirations of the different social groups were not

reflected in the objectives designed. The implication of this is that the effectiveness of the programme was questionable.

It is obvious that needs are not, like pebbles, on shore to be discovered and picked up by the supposed 'experts' by themselves. Needs can emerge through the process of researching,from surveys, and discussions. Therefore, the priority needs determined by those involved in determining the objectives of the curriculum can not depict the felt needs of the adults. The question of what is relevant knowledge was not discussed at every level and villagers did not took part in this.

As revealed in chapter two, if literacy programmes are imposed on people and are not related to total development and local situations, they have very little chance of improving people's lives. Thus, the effect of the literacy programme of Ethiopia to improve the living conditions of the adult learners was trifling.

Moreover, failure to take into account the local situations where the programme operate, or overlooking making study of the milieu would have a serious risk. It would result failurity in the programme's output and would have lead to inevitable absenteeism on the part of the adult learners. These were the risks that the literacy programme of Ethiopia had featured.

The respondents at the regional offices asserted that avoidance on the part of learners had been acute in the programme. They affirmed that the learners were not motivated to attend literacy classes. They were usually attending classes by enforcement. Adult learners who did not participated were not granted social services like ration cards to buy goods from public shops. As a result, it was common that learners appeared to register for classes readily but attending sporadically and eventually were certified without attaining proficiency.

Furthermore, in all the evaluations carried out every rounds of the campaign, in the reports compiled it has been frequently revealed that absenteeism was major problem. To give an instance, in the evaluation made in the 19th round, on 220 sample literacy centers of seven administrative regions, from the total registered participants at the beginning, on the occasion, around 40 percent were absent from classes (DAE, 1988:11). Most likely the rate of absenteeism would have been more if the observation was conducted without notice.

5.3. Selection of Contents

The curriculum contents of the literacy programme had been completely revised during the post-revolutionary period. The major content areas determined for the programme as indicated in the document, DAE (1978) are:-

- Reading, writing and simple arithmetic;
- Political Education (which had been later abandoned and intended to be substituted by civics education);
- Agricultural Education;
- Family Living Education
- Health Education (4-5).

The design of contents was not based on the context surveys realized among the concerned population. It was prepared by the assigned individuals in reference to their feild areas by deciding the priorities in themselves.

Subsequently, in line with the content outlines set up, the partners of each panel, in the division, specified the detailed content areas to be enclosed in their pertaining subject areas.

As mentioned by the members of the panel, the procedures applied in designing the content areas of the 3R's include:- refering the content outlines of the curriculum document, refering the teaching primers used in the primary schools system and adapting from it, giving the manuscripts to the planners of the primary school curriculum for comments, and, finally organizing the contents by taking into account (if any) the comments made.

The process utilized in determining the contents for the subjects other than the 3R's, as stated by the members

of each panel, include:- refering the curriculum document, determining the priority areas in themselves, exploring written materials on the selected areas and topics that are available, giving the manuscripts to the concerned ministries and agencies for their remarks on it and, finally organizing it by revising according to the comments obtained.

As reviewed in the second chapter, the needs and problems felt by an adult learner for literacy is more important than the curriculum contents. The contents could be considered functional only if they are derived from the immediate environments of the adults so that the skills acquired could enable the learners to solve the problems of their day to day experiences. The implication of this statement is that the contents designed for the literacy programme were lacking functional relevance.

The whole contents prepared for the programme were uniform for the entire regions of the nation. Eventhough some attempts were made by the planners to relate the contents to the rural environment, no mechanisms were realized to relate and link to the local situations where the programme were in action.

Virtually, if contents are prepared based on the context surveys carried out among the concerned population, they have a good quality of improving the learner's quality of life. Nevertheless, the contents of the literacy programme of Ethiopia were not designed in such way. This often mean

that the contents designed had little chance of improving the life conditions of the participants.

The activities of learning the 3R's were not in a position to enable learners to get a practical and direct significance skills in their every day experience. They were not appropriate to promote the retention of the knowledge and skills acquired. As a consequence, the majority of the participants might have relapsed into illiteracy.

The learners were provided with a hierarchially organized knowledge instead of problem solving knowledge. The contents of the primers were fragmentary and were not built-on consistent themes. In the organization, it is clearly observed that there had been compartmentalization and the fragmentation of courses in to subjects, and diffussness which was the same as that of the formal school system. This stands againest the principles of organizing adult education courses.

Besides, the respondents at the regional level offices affirmed that the contents included in each primers were too much. As a consequence, most of the primers were not completed within the given period of time.

As pointed out in chapter two, teaching literacy to adults as a discrete subject, diversed from needs of strong immediate interest and concern to a particular learner's, carries a high risk of failure. This was what the literacy programme of Ethiopia had revealed.

5.3.1. Organization of Classes

The strategy employed in organizing the literacy courses has two stages. The first level is a Beginner's Programme which caters for newly admitted participants. It lasts for four months and it is conducted at the rate of three hours perday for six days in a week. Out of the total 306 hours the first 240 hours are devoted to imparting the basic skills of the 3R's. At the end of the beginner's programme participants sit for the literacy examination (MOE, 1990:31-32).

Those who failed are referred to the remedial programme. It caters for those who failed the literacy examination and for those participants who for one reason or another had dropped out before completing the beginner's programme during the previous rounds. These classes are conducted for five day a week, three hours a day for four months (Ibid).

Those who have completed the beginner's or remedial programmes, continue in the Post-Literacy Programme. It is the second level programme of instruction given for four months, per two days a week (Ibid). The annual programme of the two rounds are indicated in table 2.

The organization was intended to be uniform for all regions of the country. For the adult groups who are learners, the 'imposition of a standard rules and regulations and a uniform plan for the organization of literacy classes had brought many problems in the programme.

Table 2

THE ANNUAL Programme of the Two Rounds in the National Literacy Campaign

PROGRAMMES	APRIL	MAY	JUNE	JULY	AUGUST	SEPTEMBER	OCTOBER	NOVEMBER	DECEMBER	JANUARY	FABRUARY	MARCH	USUAL TIMES OVER 4 MONTHS
POST-LITERACY	▨	▨	▨	▨	BREAK		▨	▨	▨	▨	BREAK		SATURDAYS AND SUNDAYS FOR 3 HOURS EACH
REMEDIAL PROGRAMMES	▨	▨	▨	▨			▨	▨	▨	▨			MONDAY THROUGH FRIDAY FOR 3 HOURS EACH
BEGINNERS' PROGRAMMES	▨	▨	▨	▨			▨	▨	▨	▨			MONDAY THROUGH SATURDAY FOR 3 HOURS EACH.

Source: NLCCC (1984), Every Ethiopian Will be Literate and Will Remain Literate, 25.

The respondents at the regional level offices pronounced that the time table had been serious problem. They said, the time intended was not made to fit to the local situations of the local areas. As a consequence, they affirmed that learners often used to withdraw from attending classes. They further said that usually classes were held for a shorter period of time daily than it was planned (such as one and half hours in Arsi and Eastern Hararghe).

In the programme it was claimed that the timing of classes and the number of days in the week when classes were held as a matter for local decisions. The principle applied had been that the kebele literacy committee should organize classes in a way which best fitted the possibilities for attendance.

Nevertheless, a number of circumstances traversed the plenary application of the principle. Among other factors, usually imposed a rigidity which stood in the way of effective organization at local levels include that voluntary teachers were only be available at certain periods, the national framework 'campaign' organization with the examination results and statistical reports and so on.

5.4. Preparation of Teaching Materials

To promote an effective instructional system, there is a need for designing appropriate instructional materials.

Teaching Primers for the 'Beginner's Programme'

Syllabary (alphabet) chart: The initial literacy teaching material that the literacy participants face first in their respective languages is the syllabary chart. The chart is prepared in such a way that it could be fixed on the front walls of the classes for adults to see the letters as the teacher points to each letters. The letters are printed large and bold so that every one in the class can identify them. All the sullabaries of the national languages developed are based on the Geez and/or Amharic Syllabaries.

Each syllabary chart contains all the letters of the respective languages. For instance, if we look at the Amharic syllabary chart it consists of 268 letters. They are divided into fourteen lessons based on similarities. Each lesson contains between two and seven similar base letters i.e. 14-49 letters succeeded by word reading exercises generally composed of two, three, four and five letters based on the previous and present lessons. The third stage of excercises in the same lesson is composed of exercises in reading simple sentences constructed with such words as mentioned in word reading excercises. The chart also contains 19 single and 10 double numerical signs of the Amharic numerals and exercises.

Syllabary and reading practice book: This is a small reading primer which is, content wise, the same with the syllabary chart. The differences are that it is prepared in

a book form and contains additional reading passages. A copy of this book is provided to each participant. The main significence attached to this book was that the adult can use it in his private time for his studies outside classes and the instructors can give homework excercises from this book.

Arithmetic book one: This booklet has 83 pages with 12 chapters and several exercises in each chapter. The first lesson, for instance introduces numbers one to nine with different methods. It keeps going on with such excercises like writing the numbers indicated on the left side of the paper several times on the empty spaces provided on the right of the numbers.

It then builds up step by step by teaching the properties of two to three digit figures, simple addition, filling empty boxes with the appropriate numbers etc. Subtraction is taught in the seventh lesson, multiplication in the ninth and division in the eleventh lesson. The twelvth lesson deals with mixed excercises and problems on the four operations.

Political education one. This booklet comprises of topics like revolutionary motherland, our revolution, revolutionary army, imperialism, farmers cooperatives, and so on. The book had been abandoned recently due to the partial political reform proclaimed by the rulers. It was intended that it will be substituted by civics education.

Reading primer one. This primer has four major parts: clean water and its uses, care for pregnant women, household pest control, and soil conservation.

Teacher's guide. There is only one book on methodology of teaching. This guide book has 80 pages and contains adult psychology, classroom management, various techniques of teaching literacy and post-literacy primers, time allotment for each subjects, how to teach writing skills etc. Besides, it includes information and guidance on how to prepare lesson plans, how to prepare and use various types of teaching aids like flash-cards, flannel-boards, etc. It also gives guidance on how to utilize the chalk-board.

Post-Literacy programme's instructional books

The reading books used in the post-literacy programme's instruction are as follows:-

Reading Primer II - this text has four major sections - poultry, child-care, balanced diet and home-management.

Reading Primer III - this primer involves five essential parts - child - disease, vaccination, mode of diseases transformation, how to get rid of trash and wastes, and milking and its care.

Reading Primer IV - this also has five important sections:- personal hygien, vegitable gardening and its use, how to

store food at home, prevalent major communicable disease and breast feeding.

The other post-literacy texts which were used in classroom teaching include political education book two which had been abandoned and arithmetic book three.

Special reading materials for post-literacy programme

In addition to the above-mentioned reading books, there are also supplimentary books used as reading materials. These include:- first aid, a guide for health education, methods of coffee planting and caretaking, soil conservation, harvesting and pest controlling, family-life education, traditional practices determinental to health, cooperative education, agricultural activities, grains and the appropriate carer and so on.

As indicated in the DAE (1985b), the afforestated supplementary reading materials are provided for the teachers, one from each, through borrowing. Moreover, from each type 5-10 books are put in the reading rooms of the literacy centers (22).

Furthermore, for those who can not join day schools or evening classes, the establishment of local reading centers, the production of local newspapers, the transmission of radio-programmes and attending basic education centers, were

the strategies devised as a necessary measures to sustain and promote literacy skills and to creat a literacy environment (NLCCC, 1986:14; NLCEC, 1989:44).

5.4.2. Teaching Materials Preparation Process

The teaching materials for the literacy programme of post-revolutionary period were revised according to the policy of the NDRP. In Ethiopia, the UNESCO/UNDP sponsered, WOALP, has run its course before the campaign was began in 1979. The planner's eventual decisions about the types of literacy readers they wanted for the new programme meant eliminating the WOALP materials and designing new ones, as a result of the policy change of the period. Nevertheless, the writers trained by the WOALP were deployed to prepare the new campaign materials. Contrarily, it would have been advantagious if the campaign programme adopted the teaching materials used and tested during the WOALP like Tanzania.

The adult education curriculum document which was designed by the group of 'experts' had been used as the only vital document and a useful guide for the preparation of the whole literacy and post-literacy materials. Based on this guideline, the Curriculum Development and Teaching Materials Production Division was responsible for designing teaching materials of all types. For this task six panels were set up in the division (See Appendix C).

In preparing the programme's teaching materials (as illustrated in chapter five), the procedures applied by the designers in the division in their bearing upon subject areas include:-

- Refering the curriculum document.
- Determining the priority areas to be included in themselves.
- Exploring any written materials on the selected subjects and topics that are available.
- Collecting the necessary information that go into the manuscripts.
- Writing the scripts.
- Distributing the manuscripts in typed forms of each subjects to the related relevant ministries and agencies for their annotation.
- Assembling the pertinent notes given on the manuscripts (if any) and rewriting them accordingly.
- Giving the materials to the literacy panel members and/or other members of the division for editing the language used.
- Finalizing the manuscript for printing (guide for illustration, layout, size of the letters, size of the books etc.).

The preparation of literacy materials were done mainly in Amharic and then the materials for each subjects were

translated into the respective languages used in the programme.

As indicated in DAE (1986:5-6), the following steps were taken in the translation process:-

- A nationality language committee, involving members of all dialects as much as possible, were formed and divided into two groups, translators and editors.
- The translation group did its translation of primers, readers, etc. into the nationality language and deliver the original (Amharic) manuscript along with the translated manuscripts to the editing group.
- Where there are synonymous words, the group compiles a glossary and put it as an appendix.
- Guides for illustration which would reflect the culture and customes of the nationality languages was prepared and delivered to the editing group along with the said manuscripts.
- The editing group does its editing and gives the materials to the concerned coordinator which handles the subsequent processes.

Nevertheless, the respondents affirmed that in the translation process, the sympathy of the committees was limited. Mainly the materials were translated by those people assigned in the division as translators.

At last, all the manuscripts were produced on a large scale and distributed to the literacy centers where the programme was operational.

The preparation of teaching materials was not based on the use of context surveys carried out in the local areas. All the materials prepared in the programme were one and the same for all regions of the country. The preparation was based on homogeniety in which respect it was not deviating from the formal school tradition characterized by the textbook often written in terms of guidelines and implying an orderly planned series without concern of different pecularities.

The approach used in the preparation assumed that the designers decided by their own intitution what was good for the target learners without actually getting to know them and without making an objective study of the socio-economic and cultural factors which operated in their lives. This means that the materials were not related and linked to the adults immediate needs.

The planners who determined needs belong to one culture, and the illiterate adults who preserve their own demands belong to another. As reviewed in chapter two, such materials prepared by far away elites of a society usually have little local value and represent very little local interest.

Virtually, such uniform preparation of materials would have the faults of one-way communication, which appear antagonistic to the theories of adult learning. Moreover, such material's are not attractive and not appealing to adults.

The workers at regional level offices too affirmed that the adult learners were not interested to read the textbooks. They said, the participants used them simply because they were provided and forced to use them.

To overcome the drawbacks of centralized approach, literacy materials should be tailored to the local situations. This approach infers the application of the principle of diversification which in turn connotes the decentralization of production of materials. This could enable to prepare materials according to the needs and problems of adult participants in different milieus. Such materials can effectively engage adults throughout the duration of training and would have lasting effects. Nevertheless, the standardizatio of materials applied in the programme involve grave risks which could negatively influence the effectiveness of the programme's output.

Types of materials

The literacy materials utilized in the programme both for literacy and post-literacy include instructor's material, illiterate's material, and materials intended for collective use.

Instructor's materials. When untrained or hastily trained teachers are used to undertake teaching, as in the literacy programme of Ethiopia, the preparation of an appropriate materials for teachers in the form of guide-books and discussion plans is very essential. There was single booklet as teacher's guide prepared for the whole programme. As indicated in chapter five, it was not designed in the way that it could direct the untrained teachers deployed in the programme. It resemble that it was prepared mainly for its own sake.

Each of the primers and readers used in the programme were not accompanied by the teacher's guide of any form. There was one and only teacher's guide for all literacy and post-literacy instructional materials of the programme. It is really difficult to contemplate that this single manual could guide the teachers to teach all the subjects considered. The non-existence of appropriate teacher's guides together with the hastily trained teachers deployed in the process often shows the magnitude of deficiencies implied in the instructional system of the programme.

Furthermore, the teacher's guide was prepared solely in Amharic. The teaching materials prepared in the fourteen languages were not accompanied by their own teacher's guides.

In general, the teaching materials used in the programme

being unfamiliare to the adult learners along with the shortcomings inherent in the teacher's guide, it seems out of hand expecting qualitative results from the instructional system of such programme.

Learner's materials. It has been widely argued that using variety of literacy materials could increase the effectiveness of the programme's instructional system. However, in the literacy programme of Ethiopia variety of materials were not utilized. Booklets and reading texts were the dominantly used materials. The absence of variety materials in the programme very likely have made the learning process uninteresting for the adult learners.

The programme made to employ a form of graded primers of one particular subject especially for post-literacy readers (see in chapter five). Nevertheless, the attempt made in this aspect was not adequate as it has been suggested by different adult educators and as it has been experienced in Tanzania. It would be worthwhile, if more graded readers could be used to make literacy more useful.

Materials intended for collective use. The syllabary chart was one of the materials intended for the collective use. It was prepared to use one for eighty participants in one classroom for teaching alphabets in the beginner's programme.

The other materials intended for collective use in the programme were radio-service, newsletters and reading centers. These devices were mainly aimed to sustain and promote literacy skills and to create a literate environment. Apparently, they were planned mainly for the post-literacy programmes.

The respondents at the regional level offices affirmed that several problems were encounted in the planning and implementation stages of these devices in the local areas. Besides, these problems were repeatedly stated in the compiled documents of each round evaluation and monitoring reports. As a result of the defects inherent in the devices applied, their effectiveness appear to be doubtful.

As cited in chapter two, implementing a variety of teaching materials in a literacy programme can make adult's learning faster, enjoyable, applied and retained better. Whereas, the means applied in the literacy programme of Ethiopia were limited. Further, the means deviced were mainly for the post-literacy programme. The restricted means of teaching used and the drawbacks they featured together mean that their influence on the participants was insignificant. This might have caused learning uninteresting and most neo-literate adults to relapse into illiteracy through disuse.

Distribution of teaching materials

The respondents said that distributing materials to literacy centers had been actute problem in the programme. These problems were aggravated by the fast increasing number of literacy centers, the problem of transporation service, shortage of man-power for distributing the books, the negligence of the responsible sub-committees in conducting their duties and so on.

As a result, in most literacy centers, that are located in the remotest areas, books were reaching after the end of the programme's round. It was also common to send books which were not needed by the centers due to lack of coordination.

In all evaluation reports of each round, it has been stated that in the observed literacy centers there was shortage of teaching materials and scarcity of writing materials (pencils and excercise books). As a consequence, it was observed that participants attending classes without having textbooks and writing materials.

It is obvious that timely distribution of literacy materials influence the overall effectiveness of a literacy programme. Delay or slackness in the provision of literacy materials, like that of this programme, reduce the participants interest and hasten the withdrawal of adults from classes.

Generally speaking primers constitute a key asset in reading instruction. The dependence on textbooks seems more accentuated in the literacy programme which are served by teachers lacking appropriate training, as in the case of this literacy programme. So making book distribution efficient is a matter of top priority. This could be made tenable if the production of the materials is done on a decentralized system. This often necessitates a change in the planning system, otherwise the programme's activities will be meaningless.

5.5. Methods of Literacy Teaching Used

In this part of the paper the methods utilized in teaching reading, writing, and arithmetic and the instructional methods used will be treated.

Method of teaching reading

As described in the foregoing part, literacy learning process began with the introduction of the alphabets. Initially the adult learners were made to identify the shapes of the letters and repeating the sounds. Once the alphabet was mastered, words of the language used were represented by combining letters. Consequently, excercises of reading sample sentences constructed with such words as mentioned in words reading excercises were presented. Example of the method applied is illustrated in Figure 1.

Figure I - Method of Teaching Reading Applied in the Primer.

ዘጠነኛ ትምህርት

ሰ	ሱ	ሲ	ሳ	ሴ	ስ	ስ
ሠ	ሡ	ሢ	ሣ	ሤ	ሥ	ሥ
አ	ኡ	ኢ	ኣ	ኤ	ኦ	እ
ዐ	ዑ	ዒ	ዓ	ዔ	ዖ	ዕ
ጸ	ጹ	ጺ	ጻ	ጼ	ጽ	ጽ
ፀ	ፁ	ፂ	ፃ	ፄ	ፅ	ፅ

ዘጠነኛ መልመጃ

ቃላት ምሥረታ

ሱሪ	ሠሩ	ሠጋ	ዓሣ	ሥጋ
ዓሌ	ሰፊ	ጾታ	ዛለ	እጅ
ዚሶ	ሳሳ	ነፃ	ጻፈ	ዕፅ
ዜራ	ሰባ	ሰላ	ስም	ድኑ
ሥራ	ሰም	ሰው	ፀር	ጺም
ሠካጋ	ሰሳይ	ዓሳማ	ሠዓሊ	ሥዕል
ኧደመ	ሰነቀ	አሰሳ	ሲሳይ	ዕድሜ
ዐጠቀ	እጸጸ	ግፊዝ	ሠፈረ	ጽምፅ
ጾጥታ	ሠ ፍራ	ገሰጻ	ፀሐይ	ዕቁብ

ገሠገሠ	ዐቦሠረቱ	ሰነበተ	ሥርዓት
አዩዳቀ	ተሰረቀ	ዓለማዊ	ፅውቀት
አድገት	ጽፃረጸ	እርሳስ	ግሥጋሴ
ሰፃዋት	ዕረፍት	እርማት	ሠራዊቱ

ዐረፍተ ነገር ምሥረታ

በኬላ አካባቢ አሰሳ ተደረገ ::
ዐቦሠረተ ቢሉ ወሬ ከሸፈ ::
በባሌ ክፍለ ሀገር ሠፈራ ጣቢያ ተዘጋጀ ::
ሠፋሪዎቹ ወዳ ሠፈራ ጣቢያ ከሄዱ ሰነበቱ ::
ቆሰሰዛ ዓዛ አጠመዱ ::
ነብሩን ሰው ያሰኘው ሥራ ነው ::
እድኃሪው ሠርዓት ተደመሰሰ ::
ነፄሪኛ ሰው እንደሠጋ ይኖራል ::
ሠራተኛው ሠነ ሥርዓት ያከብራል ::
የሰፈር ጽዳት አስፈላጊ ነው ::
ለዕፅዋት የፀሐይ ብርሃን ያስፈልጋቸዋል ::
ሠራዊቱ ስንቁን ይዞ ገሠገሠ ::

Taken from the Syllabary And Reading Practice Book, PP 20-2

As clearly seen in figure 1, the method employed was based on first knowing letters, synthesis of letters into words which are these words then combined into sentences. From the point of reading theories, it is implied that the method applied in the primers was synthetic.

The previous review of literacy methods imply that synthetic method with its formal drills of meaningless elements is boring to adult learners and places a heavy burden on memory. Learning has nothing to say for adults.

Even if monotonous excercises might threaten to kill the interest in adult participants, synthetic method probably might have facilitated the early mastery of the correspondence between symbole and sounds. This is mainly because there is affinity between the symbols and sounds in the Ethiopian alphabet.

Instructors on the whole were lacking specialized training. Implications of views on instructional methods and qualification of teachers, appear to be that the synthetic method is less dependent on teaching skills than its analytic counter part. The impression the writer feels inclined to draw is that the synthetic approach reflected in the primers might have been to the advantages of better instruction.

In the study of reading theory it has been claimed that

there is no one best method which should be employed exclusively and universally. But, from the experiences of functional literacy programmes, the global (analytic) approach has been suggested to be the most effective. This is because it can stimulate adult's interest as from the very beginning lessons reading has something to convey.

Teaching writing

In the initial two sounds of the programme, handwriting practice books were provided for the literacy participants. These booklets had been abandoned since then, as they were found to be very expensive. Nevertheless, the handwriting teaching techniques were elaborated in the teacher's guide and suggested writing apparently to be introduced at the primary phase of the reading process.

In the course of the programme different problems might have influenced the application of the above approach. The conditions that characterized the programme such as crowded classrooms, teachers with minimum training and shortage of textbooks could have forced the students to spend much of their time in copying from the chalkboard as a way of duplicating scarce textbooks. Over and above, the scarcity of writing materials witnessed in the programme could have impeded the application of teaching writing.

Teaching arithmetic

The arabic numerials and the four operations were planned in the same manner as that of teaching rading. It was not related and linked with the chains of problems of adult learners. It was organized as the formal school system which applied a simple to complex pattern. It was based on the abstract conception of arithmetic which tended to overlook the adults previously acquired skills and their desire to apply these skills as directly as possible. This could have made learning arithmetic to the adults not to be enjoyable, retainable and applicable.

Instructional methods

The method of reading exerted in the primers was synthetic approach which usually imply a directive way of teaching. Apparently, in the beginner's programme, in the initial stage, the instructors were teaching by using sticks, flash cards etc. to show the shape of the different letters to the learners and by repeating the sounds. The Arabic numerals and the four operations also were taught in the same manner.

The teaching techniques prescribed in the teacher's guide mannual also reflected the teacher as the main actor in the classroom. The techniques detailed in the manual entirely focussed on what the teacher has to perform.

From the description and own experience, it appears that the teaching methods practiced in the literacy classes of the programme were traditional and directive. Apparently, the teachers had got a very short training and a much longer previous primary school experience, in the way they often tend to go back to the ways their teachers taught them.

Therefore, the methods of teaching experienced reflected one-way communication. This is similar with what Friers has talked of the 'banking concept' of education. The method applied stands againest the principles of adult learning.

As cited in chapter two, the evaluation of the ESLP has revealed that the instructional methods for literacy classes should be based on the interests of adult learners. The study has identified three methods, i.e. an inductive approach, learning by doing and using variety of methods and stimulus variation, which were used on a fairly widespread basis and appeared to have shown their merits. Experiences have displayed that through these methods learning could be made interesting, retainable and applicable for adult learners.

Nevertheless, the above-mentioned methods were not in use in the programme's instructional system. This often suggest that the methods applied were not effective in making adults learning enjoyable, applicable and retainable. Therefore, it is essential to conduct researches on the methods of teaching adults in the literacy programme of this land.

5.6. Medium of Instruction

The Ethiopian socio-cultural composition is based on a complex patterns of nationalities. Experts speak that there are more than 80 languages spoken in the nation. This was the cultural environment in which the literacy campaign was placed. With the change of the regime, in 1974, there came a change in the policy of language. As indicated in NLCCC (1989), a multilingual policy was applied in the literacy programme so that it can facilitate participation by the maximum number of people and strengthen and develop nationality languages (38).

The literacy campaign was launched initially (in 1979 in five languages: Amharic, Oromo, Tigrigna, Wolaita, and Somali. Instructional materials in these five languages were prepared for the beginning of the programme. In the fourth round (May, 1981) Hadiya, Tigre, Kunama, Gedeo, and Kembata were added to the preceding languages. Later in may 1982, Sidama, Silti, Afar, Kaffa-Mocha, and Saho were brought into use. Thus, a total of fifteen languages were in use in the literacy programme (Ibid).

As only two languages (Amharic and Tigrigna) were in written forms, Geez and/or Amharic syllabaries were used as a common medium. For this purpose the Academy of Ethiopian languages had developed a syllabary for each of

fifteen nationality languages with which the literacy programme is being executed. The syllabary of the fifteen languages used are illustrated in Table 4.

Eventually, the preparation of literacy and post-literacy materials were done mainly in Amharic and then these materials were translated into the respective languages. Thus, in the programme, the whole teaching materials were prepared in fifteen languages.

As reviewed in chapter two, in order to accelerate the rate of adult's learning, the language of teaching should initially be the local language of the learners, using the manuscripts of the local language. It has been asserted that applying this approach could induce more interest among the learners, made it easier for them to learn and preserve their pride in their own culture. In this frame of reference, the literacy programme had displayed an interesting experience through applying fifteen languages as a medium of instruction.

Some African countries have applied a multilingual policy in their literacy programmes, but in no case as many as fifteen in use. The Ethiopian strategy, in this view, resembles more advanced in utilizing of multilingual approach to basic learning for adults.

Table 4

Syllabary of the Fifteen Nationality Languages

No		Base Letters	Form of the Base Letters	Dighthongs	Total Letters
1.	Amharic	27	7	38	268
2.	Oromigna	24	7	-	168
3.	Tigrigna	32	7	38	262
4.	Wollayitigna	28	7	-	196
5.	Somali	22	7	-	154
6.	Hadiyigna	24	7	-	168
7.	Kembatigna	25	7	25	200
8.	Tigre	26	7	-	182
9.	Gedeogna	25	7	4	203
10.	Kunamigna	21	7	23	170
11.	Sidamigna	28	7	-	196
12.	Keffa-Mochingna	23	7	-	161
13.	Siltigna	26	7	-	182
14.	Sahogna	22	7	-	154
15.	Afarigna	18	6	-	108

Note: 1. This is only an amateurish compilation

2. Though the diphthong phonemes are there in the language, no letters have as yet been developed for them.

Source: D.A.E (1986), Literacy Teaching Materials Preparation, Production, and Distribution.

Inversely, various problems were encountered in applying the multilingual policy in the programme. These problems were incurred both in the planning and implementation processes.

Problems that arose while translating

Problems related to translation were realized with regards to dialectical differences within large language groups. Besides, most of the languages used were not sufficiently developed as a medium of instruction since they appeare in a written form very recently, particularly in this literacy programme. As a consequence, several problems arose in the process of translating the teaching materials. As pronounced by the respondents, the problems experienced are described in the following paragraphs.

Lack of efficient man-power in the translation process. The involvement of the national language committees in the process was verbal. For most of the programme's period the translators assigned in the division were mainly responsible for the process. Only eight language translation sections were set-up in the division (these are for Kaffa-Mocha, Kembata, Hadiya, Silti, Gedeo, Wollaita, Oromo and Sidama). The translation of materials for the rest six languages had been usually done by consulting those people who could speak and write the languages outside

the division. Each section has been composed of only one translator. This clearly infer the magnitude of the drawbacks reflected in the materials translated by a single individual. Along with, the translators assigned in each sections lacked special training of any kind in the field they were engaged.

The presence of dialetical differences within one language and the absence of a standard usage of certain words. Some words with positive meanings in one dialect could have negative, even offensive meanings in another. Hence, it became difficult to identify which words are widely used eventhough all the synonymous words have equally positive or negative meanings as the case may be.

The problems of getting individual who know the culture of the local languages concerned in its different forms like speaking, reading and writing. Even if there could be they may not be in a position to handle the translation properly. There may be people who know the culture well but illiterates.

Those who were assigned in the translation process represented and reflected a certain dialect. It had been common that the languages used in the primers were disappointing other dialect speakers to the extent of saying that it is not their language and deciding not to use the materials prepared.

Moreover, there were some concepts that could not be easily translated into some nationality languages.

With the intent of minimizing the difficulties, language development committees composed of people speaking different dialects of the same language were formed at different levels. Nevertheless, all the respondents of the regional level offices affirmed that these committees were not effectively operational. They said, the committees were not doing as what it was claimed in the documents.

Problems encountered in the implementation stages

The main problem pronounced by the respondents was that the adult learners were saying the languages used in the primers were not theirs and deciding not to use the materials prepared. The prevalence of such problems was more pronounced by the respondents of Arsi, Eastern-Hararghe and Illubabor. For instance, the officers in Easter-Hararghe said that the programme had not been carried out in the Somali ethnic group inhabited areas, because of the people's claim that the languages used in the primers were not theirs.

Problems were also observed in the process of distributing the teaching primers to literacy centers. Usually there had been circumstances of sending primers of other languages which were not needed by the literacy centers. Hence, these books were stored in the centers without use.

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As a consequence of the foregoing problems, there was wastage of an abundant textbooks unused in many centers.

The problems brought by the application of different languages in the programme appeared to be very complex. The difficulties reflected in the planning and implementation stages means that the application of a multilingual policy in the programme to a greater extent made the programme to be ineffective instead of facilitating learning as it was intended.

The prevalence of the above-mentioned difficulties were profoundly caused by the utilization of a centralized model of planning and the absence of linguistic research prior the determination and implementation of the policy in the programme. This was the area which has been ignored and that requires critical notice and vigorious prior research studies.

Moreover, the underlying failures realized in the programme were mainly as a consequence of lack of an appropriate method of planning. It had been effected by the defects of using local languages without applying the contents, teaching materials and teachers derived from the immediate environment of the adult learners.

5.7. Literacy Instructors and Personnel and Training Systems

This part of the paper deals with the course of action

taken in the deployment and training level of instructors and all categories of literacy workers in the programme.

Literacy instructors

The Ethiopian literacy programme launched in 1979 applied the strategy of mobilizing the educated citizens as instructors. The people were mobilized with the slogan 'let the educated teach the uneducated and the uneducated learn'. The service was considered as a national duty and obligation of every citizen.

Eventhough it had been claimed in the documents that volunteers from different sectors would be involved as instructors, the main source of instructors was secondary school students who had completed grade 12. With reference to the types of instructors deployed in the programme no data was at hand in the DAE at all levels. However, all the respondents affirmed that more than 90 percent of the instructors were grade 12 completers from secondary schools.

The high school students were usually required to serve in the programme for four months. They were obliged to serve for only one round. Regarding this in the evaluation report of DAE (1988), it has been indicated that in the visited 138 literacy centers, of the total 1297 teachers 8.51 percent were involved in the previous rounds while 91.49 percent were teaching for the first time in the programme (10). This shows that the instructors were inexperienced in teaching.

Apparently, the utilization of temporary instructors could have negatively influenced the effectiveness of the instructional system. It limited the continuity between rounds of the campaign and from the beginner's to post-literacy programmes.

The instructors in the programme were volunteers. They were provided with different services and material supports like transport, food, clothing, shelter etc. in their service periods. Besides, they were recieving moral incentives i.e. certificate for their free services. Those who did not participated were not granted for different opportunities like joining higher education, getting scholarship, getting employment and so on. This shows that their participation was mainly obligatory rather than volunteer service. This often infers that their motivation to participate in teaching was questionable.

From own experience while teaching in high school, the writer had realized that the participants were not motivated to teach in the programme. The respondents too underlined that the problem of lack of interest on the part of instructors had been prominent in the programme. Previous experiences have revealed that lack of motivation on the part of instructors led to high level of absenteeism, insufficient attention to teaching, and little committment to the cause of community development.

As cited in chapter two, various studies have revealed that the best instructor in a literacy programme is one who is from the same cultural milieu as the learners. Virtually, the most important part of teacher's work is to link educational contents with the local context. Integration of literacy education with the local environment is one of the main principles of functional literacy. Therefore, literacy instructors ought to be familiar with the day to day life of the community in order to connect literacy activities with community needs.

Nevertheless, the instructors used in this literacy programme were unfamiliar and uninvolved in the affairs of the local community. They lacked the real knowledge of the milieu and they were with no understanding of the problems confronting the learners. This was one of the drawbacks of the literacy programme. This deficiency possibly made the programme's instructional system efficiency uncertain.

Training of literacy instructors

The training of all those involved in an instructional duties had been carried out prior to the rounds of the campaign programme.

The initial training was entitled by training of trainers. This initial training, upto 1984 was given at the national level. In the training regional adult education officers,

representatives of regional coordinating and executive committees, members of nationality languages promotion committees and high school directors were the main participants. In the training representatives from the NLCCC office and DAE, representatives of development ministries etc. were involved (DAE, 1985a:25-26; NLCCC, 1986:8),

The initial training, which was originally given at the national level, was latter being given at the provincial capitals. Thus, members of the DAE and NLCCC office were sent to each regions for the trainings. Therefore, the training of instructors at the provincial level origionally was handled by those who participated at the national level. But, recently the training was given by those who came from the national literacy offices. In this level participants came to the provential capitals from the regions.

Consequently, those who participated in the training at the provincial level organize and conduct a training programme at Awraja levels. Thus, the final training of instructors were given in the highschools and capitals of districts in which the campaigners participate (NLCCC, 1984:27; NLCCC, 1986:8).

Topics mainly dealt within the training of instructors include methods and techniques of teaching, the proper use of instructional materials, preparation and application of teaching aids, adult psychology, classroom management, keeping records of the participants etc. (DAE, 1985a:26).

The instructors were given only a short period of introductory courses. The training period suggested was five to ten days (DAE, 1985a:8). Nevertheless, all the respondents at the regional level offices said that the training period actually experienced had been less than the time claimed. Usually it was carried out for 3 to 5 days. The training period appear very short, brief and insufficient for the instructors to acquire the necessary knowledge and skills required. It seems illogical to expect effective instructional performances from such insufficiently trained instructors.

As described in the preceding paragraphs, the training system reflect a multiplier effect. In this point, the system was based on a centralized approach. The training of trainers was given by the headquarter's officers and a team from the national headquarters. Apparently, it had not involved effectively the officers and others at the grassroot or the potential participants of the programme.

Those who were assigned as trainers themselves were not trained in the field. It is obvious that the trainers could not be able to train literacy instructors without being trained themselves.

The training of instructors had not been developed as a systematic operation. The training was organized on adhoc basis without appropriate structure, duration, contents, methods and materials. No teaching materials of any type had been provided to the participants.

Training of literacy personnel

Training of different categories of literacy workers has been considered as an essential prerequisite if literacy programmes were to function effectively. Training does not only concern the instructors but also those who have role in literacy such as organizers, curriculum planners, trainers, evaluators, textbook writers, liberarians, newsletters writers etc.

In the literacy programme of Ethiopia, some endeavours were exerted to orient literacy workers by organizing seminars and workshops at different levels, time and places. There had been no regular system of promoting these trainings. The respondents affirmed that these were held once in a blue moon especially when fund is gained from donors. The department has no data as to how many times these seminars and workshops were held. But, the respondents said that it was very much limited.

Furthermore, no specialized trainings were provided for each categories of literacy workers. The trainings had not been developed as a systematic operation. Usually they were run infrequently and had be organized on adhoc basis without having appropriate structure, time, method, contents and materials.

The Bahir Dar College has been the only formal education institute that engaged in the training of adult

educators for two years and for three summer courses. In terms of quantity the contribution of this college to the trained man-power demands of adult education programmes of this nation is actually negligable. Moreover, the effectiveness of the training system of the college resemble doubtful. So far no evaluative study has been conducted to see the effectiveness.

There are no specialized institutes in the country for training different types of literacy personnel where as there are many institutions for the training of school teachers. Formal school teacher training centers at all levels were neither interested nor involved in the training of literacy personnel. Universities have not adressed themselves to the problems of literacy and to the training requirments of literacy experts. The universities were not dealing with any type of research studies related to literacy problems.

In this nation very little attention has been paid to the systematic training of literacy workers. It is clear that the success of any literacy programme deeply rely on the quality of literacy personnel involved in the process. Whereas, the literacy programme's activities were undertaken by those people who have got trainings in the formal education institutions. Consequently, shortage of trained literacy personnel in the field of adult education had been the fundamental problem of the literacy programme. Thus, it has been an overlooked area which requires very critical attention.

5.8. Evaluation and Monitoring System Devised

In this section the evaluation and monitoring systems palnned and applied in the literacy programme will be treated.

Learner's evaluation

As pointed out in table 2, the literacy programme's courses were organized in two phases i.e. beginner's and post-literacy. Besides, there was a remedial programme for those who had not passed the first phase. This might likely made the time sacrifies expected by the learners shorter in duration and allow faster learners to complet quickly, while the slower learners to have a period that they could be given more attention.

On the other hand, the structuring of the programme's courses into two phases seems insufficient. Presumingly, this might not helped learners to think of literacy skills as a continium. There is little possibility of assessment of learner's progress within the two stages which represent formidable levels of attainment for many who had never before participated in organized learning. Therefore, for better assessment it is essential to use more structural levels.

The completion of these two stages was considered as equivalent to grade two elementary school (MOE, 1980a:10). Nevertheless, no evaluative studies has been expected in establis blishing this standard. Hence, the standardization appear doubtful

With respect to learners assessment, there was a manual prepared centrally to be used as guideline. In this manual it has been suggested to use continous assessment. Contrarily, the respondents affirmed that in the actual practices the application of continous assessment was limited. Written quizs which were given infrequently were the prominent methods used in the process. This might likely be because of the deployment of untrained and inexperienced instructors in the programme.

The final examinations were also given on the basis of the guidelines laid down by the national office. The examination date was centrally determined and uniform for all regions. The examination papers were instantly corrected in the literacy centers and then the results submitted to the higher levels. The implication of this is that the evaluation system used was mainly based on the identification of learners who failed and passed the tests and receive a certificate and legitemize learner's achievement. In this perspective, the learner's evaluation results were not mainly used for the improvement of the instructional system.

Curriculum evaluation

As denoted in chapter two, the effectiveness of any literacy programme's curriculum largely depend on the improvement made in the light of experiences, changing conditions and feedbacks gained from practical experiences.

In spite of that, in this literacy programme's situation, the curriculum document that had been developed by the assigned 'experts' in 1977-78 served as a vital source in the preparation of all types of materials for the entire period of the programme. The document had not been updated to the objective realities of the society. This clearly reveals that the programme's curriculum used had been ineffective.

As repeatedly expressed by, the respondents, evaluation of teaching materials were practiced when the training of literacy instructors was given. However, in the actual terms it appears doubtful. Objectively, it resembles unrealistic to practice a systematic evaluation of teaching materials along with the courses offered within 3 to 5 days of training period.

Moreover, the respondents asserted that the textbooks were reproduced in each round without making substantial change in the contents. The writer has also assured that the textbooks reproduced in each round were homogenous in their contents.

In general, in the literacy programme no systematic evaluation had been effectuated in all elements and related variables of the curriculum. No pre-testing as well as post-evaluation of individual items of instructional materials had been implemented in the programme.

In the entire periods of the programme, no evaluation of any type had been exerted to investigate the effects brought and as to what changes and adjustments are required. This means, no impact evaluation had been realized in the programme. In this perspective, the programme's activities happened to be random.

Progress monitoring evaluation

Monitoring evaluation had been part of the programme of each round. The mechanisms available for monitoring were practiced at different levels (NLCCC, 1986:12).

At the local level, the chairman of the literacy coordinating and executive committee, the center coordinator and especially the sub-committees for data collection, supervision and certficiation make regular follow up and report weekly their observation to the local committee meetings. In the weakly meetings the committee discusses the problems and also expected to give report at the end of each phase for higher level committees.

District literacy committee sends a monitoring team to a literacy centers with a progress monitoring format which assesses the overall activities with the local committee. A resembling group is also sent by the provincial literacy

like that of the district team. After having discussion with local committees finally the team reports to the provencial literacy committee.

A similar teams from the national level go out to each region and visit representative sample literacy centers in action at parious levels in each literacy campaign rounds. They also held discussions with literacy committees at different levels. At last the reports of these teams and those that came through the organizational channels were then organized and send to the NLCCC at the end of each round (Mammo, 1988b:3-4). The representative of the committee at different levels are shown in the preceding table.

Table 5

Date Collection Evaluation, and Certification Sub-Committee

Representatives	Position
Central Statistics Office	Chairman
Ministry of Education	Member
Ministry of Defence	"
Department of Police Force	"
Workers Association	"
Peasants Association	"
Urban Dweller's Association	"
Teacher's Association	"
Central Supervision Office	"
Addis Ababa University	"

Source: MOE (1979), Initial Seminar Reports and Decisions on the Literacy Campaign of Ethiopia, p. 11.

The members of the sub-committees assigned for the evaluation were not an integral part of the staff for the programme of literacy and post-literacy. They had no insight and involvement on the programme's curriculum planning process. They one at a time participate in the process when they were need to go out to literacy centers for monitoring evaluation. They appear part-time workers in the process. It resemble difficult to expect effective evaluation from those people who were untrained, who had no experience and familiarity with the curriculum designed.

The evaluation reports compiled in the process were not usually used to make decisions in the improvement of the functioning of the programme. This is clearly seen in the evaluation reports of each round. The problems identified in each round reports were consistent. The uniformity often means that no improvements were made in the programme in accordance with the reports of the preceding rounds. Besides, the reports compiled were not provided to those who were responsible for the amelioration, instead, they were simply used as data in the documentation room of the DAE. Seemingly, the programme's progress monitoring activities were run nominally.

On the whole, the evaluation and monitoring mechanisms designed in the programme were not intended to get feedbacks to make decisions in the amelioration of the functioning of

the programme. The programme's evaluation tended to involve pre-eminently feedbacks which were based on numbers and on statistical treatment of numbers. This implies that the means of evaluation applied were meaningless.

Virtually, to promote effective literacy programme, evaluation has to be built into each components of the programme's curriculum. Inspite of that, the evaluation system deviced in this literacy programme was not built in each components and not integrated into the planning and implementation of the curriculum from its beginning to the end. This was one of the drawbacks reflected in the evaluation system, that could negatively influence the effectiveness of the programme.

There has been no unit set-up in the DAE for evaluation at all levels as an integral part of the staff such that specific responsibilities concerning evaluation work can be assigned to categories of literacy workers based on different. Components of the curriculum. This was the other shortcoming inherent in the evaluation system of the programme.

5.9. Technical Frameworks of the Literacy Programme

In this part of the paper, organization and management of the literacy programme, and the people that involved in planning the programmes curriculum will be handled. Besides, the programme's curriculum planning model exerted in the programme will be treated.

5.9.1. Organization and Management of the Literacy Programme

Organizational Structure of the NLCCC

In order to manage the tasks of the massive literacy campaign, in conjunction with the national revolutionary development campaign office, through the MOE, in May 1979, the NLCCC was set-up. The MOE was appointed as chairman.

The management and administrative responsibilities for the literacy and post-literacy programmes rested on this committee. The committee had brought together thirty four representatives from government agencies, mass organizations, professional associations and religious institutions (NLCCC, 1989:19), (See Appendix D).

Directly under the committee, an executive committee, drawn from the aforestated representatives, directs the implementation of the programme. Specialized operational sub-committees to meet specific responsibilities were established under the executive committee. These include Material Procurment and Distribution Sub-Committee; Recruitment, Training and Placement of Instructors Sub-Committee; Data Collection, Supervision and Certification Sub-Committee (MOE, 1990:29), (See Appendix B).

Within this general framework there were specific

responsibilities. For instance, the Central Statistics Authority Chairs the Data Collection Committee; the Ministry of Information, the Propaganda and Aid Coordinating Committee. The MOE provide professional backup through provision of learning materials and instructors, and the head of the DAE was the executive officer of the national literacy campaign (NLCCC, 1989:20).

Coordinating and executive committees, together with their operational sub-committees, were also established at the regional, provincial, district and local levels. The composition was the same with the national committees. The four operational sub-committees carry out their task, in their respective locality, and report to their respective higher committees, which in turn report to the NLCCC (MOE, 1990a:29), (See Appendix B).

Organizational structure of the DAE

In 1974, there was a literacy division in the MOE which took the tasks of the coordination of the several and dispersed literacy programmes being carried out by a number of government and non-government agencies.

To facilitate the governments policy for promoting massive literacy campaign, the status of adult education division of the ministry of education was raised to the department of adult education in 1975. The department has

been organized as one of the various departments of the MOE (see appendix A).

The department has been set-up with three divisions under it, namely distance education, programme research and evaluation, and curriculum development and teaching materials production (see appendix C).

The divisions of the department are further composed of several panels and/or sections. According to its structural organization, the department has one or two adult education officers in each provincial education offices and one in each of the awraja education offices.

Under the DAE, the Curriculum Development and Material Production Division has been considered as the most important technical organ of the literacy campaign. To carry out the duties related to the curriculum of literacy and post-literacy programmes there are six panels, namely-literacy education panel, political education panel (which was later substituted by civics education panel), family education panel, health education panel, cooperative education panel, and agricultural education panel. In addition to these, a new panel which is responsible for the preparation of rural newspapers and organizing rural reading centers has been included as of 1986. Besides, under the literacy education panel there are translators of materials into different languages. There were only eight language translating sections.

The adult education sector has been organized within the ministry of education (see appendix A). The section has been structured on a department level. From the structural organization of the MOE, it is clearly seen that little attention has been given to the adult education section compared with the emphasis devoted to the formal education.

The department, as composed of three divisions (see appendix C), has been responsible for all the adult education programmes which include literacy, post-literacy and basic development education; community skill training, evening schools, and distance education. Furthermore, it was responsible for coordination and encouraging the different government and mass organizations engaged in adult education especially in literacy programmes.

The structuring of the section on a department level seems confining and insufficient. On the otherhand, the responsibilities vested on it appear to be too much. Hence, it resemble difficult for the department to undertake all these duties effectively with such restrictive organizational set-up.

Besides, only one officer has been assigned in each provincial and awraja adult education offices within the main educational offices. It is formidable for one officer to manage and follow up all the above-mentioned responsibilities of the department in the respective regions.

In general the department has not been organized in the way that it can run effectively all the functions of adult education programmes. Effective programme could be realized if the department is organized on a wider basis. Thus, it is the area which calls urgent attention.

5.9.2. Who were involved in the Planning Process

On the basis of the general objectives of the programme, adult education curriculum document was prepared in 1977-78. A team of 44 'experts' drawn from 22 development ministries and agencies was set-up with the responsibility of designing and developing the adult education curriculum. These people were divided into four study groups, namely:-

a) Literacy-programme curriculum panel;
b) Multi-purpose education panel;
c) Economic-related education panel, and
d) Family life and health education curriculum panel (for detailed information refer to appendix E).

The study groups in reference to their area outlined and pointed out what they considered essential and relevant points that should be included in the teaching materials of literacy, post-literacy and continuing education. Since then, for the entire period of the programme the document had been used as the only useful guide for the preparation of all literacy and post-literacy materials.

As pointed out in chapter five, under the DAE, the Curriculum Development and Material Production Division had been considered as the main technical organ of the literacy programme. Six panels were established within the division to carry on the duties related to the curriculum of literacy and post-literacy programmes (see appendix C).

These panels were responsible for developing, preparing and producing literacy teaching materials like primers, readers, supplementary readers etc. The preparation of these materials in each panels were done on the basis of the framework of the adult education curriculum designed by the above-mentioned 'study' groups. The panel members were also laible for editing, giving illustration guides, proof reading, looking after the printing, contributing topics for newsletters etc.

The number of workers involved in the division with their respective panel, responsibility and qualification is pointed out in table 6.

As reviewed in chapter two, functional literacy training has been concieved as a method of training designed to promote economic and social developments. Hence, functional literacy curriculum planning has been considered as an interdisciplinary operation which requires the cooperation of specialists from a variety of social and economic sectors.

Table 6

Workers Assigned in the Curriculum Development and Teaching Materials Production Division

No.of Workers	Number and Their Position	Qualification
1	Divison Coordinator	B.A. in Educ.Adm.
1	Family Educ. Panel Coordinator	B.A. in Language
1	" " " member	12+2 in Family Planning
1	Agricultural Educ. Panel Coordin.	B.Sc. in Agriculture
1	Political Educ. Panel Coordinator	B.A. in Pol. Science
1	Newsletters panel coordinator	B.A. in Language
1	Health educ. panel coordinator	12 + 2 in Health Educ.
1	Literacy Educ. Panel coordinator	B.A. in Language
3	Literacy Educ. Panel members	(1) 12+2 in Educ.Adm. (2) B.A. in Language
8	Translators for Keffa-Mocha, Hadiya, Silit, Gedeo, Wollaita, Oromo, Kembata, Sidama (one for each)	(1) 12; (1) 12+2 in Lan. (2) 12+2 in Educ. Amd., and (4) 12+1 in formal teachers training institute.
1	Teaching materials Distributor	12+3 in Educ.Adm.
4	Typists	Certificate in typing.

- Their training was in the formal education institutions.

Source: Personnel Office of the DAE.

In the planning process of the adult education curriculum document of the programme, endeavours were exerted to involve representatives from 22 ministries and agencies at the national level. Apparently, the coordination of these sectors was mainly attempted to impose uniformity instead of relating and linking educational activities to the solutions of national and local problems.

As pointed out in the review part, planning a literacy programmes curriculum that is relevant to the adult learners is a complex task requiring inputs from different categories of specialists such as linguists, local workers, adult educators, literacy teachers, textbook writers, artists etc. Therefore, literacy programme's curriculum planning task should be a teamwork, derived from local expertise.

In the situation of this literacy programme, the task of designing and producing literacy teaching materials were entrusted to small number of individuals in the division (as indicated in table 6). The duties had not been handled as part of teamwork derived from local expertise instead it was performed by a limited number of 'experts' at the national level. These individuals were assigned on the basis of their formal education trainings. This was one of the major drawbacks featured the planning process exerted in the programme.

As marked in table 6, since the establishment of the division, the panels constituted one or two individuals. Besides, the individuals have got no special trainings in the field of adult education. Consequently, it is not difficult to imagine the inadequacies inherent in the textbooks prepared by such individuals.

In the curriculum planning process of the literacy programme, the participation of individuals in the sub-centers and in the communal village levels was totally absent. All the respondents at the regional levels said that in the process there was no involvement at the regional levels.

The participation of the potential learners in the curriculum planning process was completely neglected. This shows that the curriculum was designed according to the conception of what adults should want rather than what they actually want. This approach is antagonistic to the basic principles of functional literacy.

Research studies have revealed that if learners are not included in the curriculum preparation and inadequate attention has been given to the actual conditions in which they live, the effects will be frustration, lack of motivation and absenteeism on the part of the adult learners. These were the risks implied in the literacy programme of Ethiopia.

Virtually, lack of real knowledge of the learners and their melieu so often leads to costly set backs. It can result into the failurity of the programme's output. Therefore, this risk could be minimized through the involvement of specialists, related individuals at different levels and the potential learners in the planning process.

5.9.3. Planning Model Applied in the Literacy Programme

The basic principles of functional literacy, as cited in chapter two, necessarily imply some form of diversification in planning the programme in relation to the different target groups to be served. If literacy is to be functional and responsive to local needs, local level autonomy and decision making power is indispensable. Through the involvement of local level participants, needs of different.target groups could be reflected in the designed and organized programmes.

As described in the preceding parts of this chapter, alike the formal education, the planning system excuted in this literacy programme was based on a centralized model. All the teaching materials of the programme were designed and produced at the central level.

In the planning process the participation of the public at local levels had been ignored. Apparently, in the system there was no delivery of power to different level participants

in determing the objectives, contents, teaching materials etc. according to the needs of their respective local milieu.

The application of centralized model in the programme often suggests that the needs and problems of the local communities were disregarded and not reflected in the curriculum designed. This situation, virtually lead to the tendency of the local communities to concieve the literacy programme as something outside and belonging to the government or even to the officers in charge.

In addition, it could create serious problems in the mobilization and motivation of the participants, who are the beneficiaries of the programme. Very likely this influence the learners to consider their participation in the programme as obligatory instead of their sympathy to be an integral part of the programme. This inevitably result into absenteeism on the part of the adult learners. From own experience and as asserted by the respondents the above-mentioned problems were prominent in the programme.

Furthermore, the workers at the lower levels tend to consider the problem of illiteracy not as a national question that requires their contribution, but rather as one inherent to the national literacy office and which should be eradicated by the office. This impression was pronounced by the regional level respondents in their reply.

Ethiopia is a country which characterized by diversified environmental situations, economic activities and cultural traditions. For the programme of this nation, the application of centralized curriculum planning model could not enable to take into account the special features of these diversified regions. Some form of decentralization, on the otherhand, could enable the grassroot planners to attach considerable emphasis to the problems peculiar to their specific regions and to design effective curriculum. Therefore, this is one of the major issues that require considerable attention to run effective literacy programme.

So far in this chapter the planning system applied in the literacy programme has been examined. On the basis of the descriptions, analysis and explanations sought in this chapter, the following chapter deals with the summary of the study, conclusions reached, suppositions implied and suggestions made for further studies.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, RECOMMENDATION AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This chapter presents the summary of major findings, conclusions reached, recommendations and suggestions for further investigations.

6.1. Summary of the Study

This study was intended to evaluate the programme planning system employed in the literacy campaign programme of Ethiopia. The scope of the study was to investigate whether there is certain relationship between the curriculum planning system used in the literacy programme of Ethiopia and the curriculum planning approach suggested in different international conferences of unesco and advocated by adult educators.

The study made use of a combination of descriptive survey and analytical research methods. Purposive sampling techniques were used in the study. unstructred interview instrument was developed and applied in the process.

On the whole the state had clearly made use of the literacy programme mainly for political purposes. The government's plan was to advance a socialist policy and mobilize the people for this target. The goal of the programme

was profoundly rooted in large scale participation and in the creation of social mobilization which often infers that little regard was given to the educational quality of outputs. In this context, the scope of the programme resemble narrow.

The literacy programme had been based on the strategy of mass literacy campaign which was sought to eradicate illiteracy within limited years by a series of rounds. Thus, the programme appeared to be ambitious. Through experience, utilizing this approach had caused a number of grave problems in the programme.

No study of the milieu had been actualized in the planning of the curriculum objectives of the programme. The objectives were set up by the assigned group of 'experts' and limited number of individuals in the panels in reference to their fields by taking the general priority areas in themselves. Research studies have displayed that negligence to take into account the local situations would have a serious risk which would cause failure in the programme's output and lead to inevitable absenteeism on the part of the learners. These were the risks that were inherent in the literacy programme.

The preparation of contents and teaching materials was not based on the use of context surveys carried out. They were prepared by the limited number of panel members. The contents of teaching materials produced for the whole programme were uniform for all regions of the country.

The contents being not derived from the immediate melieu of the adult learners often lacked relevance. Apparently, the instructional materials were foreign to the life of the participants. Very often this imply that the materials used were not functional and attractive to adults, hence, borring to them and hasten absenteeism. Besides, there was shortage of these materials in the literacy centers.

The organization of classes was planned to be similar for the whole regions of the country. The imposition of same, standard and rigid plan for the organization of literacy classes had provoked various problems in the programme's implementation process.

According to the reading theories, synthetic method was applied in the primers. Even if monotonous excercises might reduced the adult participants interest, synthetic method might have facilitated the early mastery of the correspondence between symbols and sounds. Moreover, the method reflected in the primers might have been to the advantage of better instruction, since the instructors deployed were not well-trained. On the other hand, the principles of functional literacy advocate the using of analytic (global) method of reading because reading has something to convey and interesting to adult learners.

The teaching methods practiced in the literacy classes of the programme were traditional and directive. This was

mainly because the methodology inherent in the primers was synthetic and the way the instructors learn to read themselves was traditional synthetically oriented method. The method practiced reflected one-way communication which contradicts with the two-way communication suggested in the principles of adult learning theory.

The Ethiopian literacy programme applied a multilingual policy. Thus, fifteen languages were in use as a medium of instruction. The literacy materials were prepared in Amharic and then these materials were translated into the respective fourteen languages. Nevertheless, various serious problems surfaced both in the translation and implementation stages. These problems emanated from the presence of dialect differences and the languages used being not adequately developed as a medium of instruction.

As a consequence, the application of different languages to a greater extent made the programme's instruction uncertain instead of facilitating learning. The difficulties were profoundly caused by the centralized model of planning used and the absence of linguistic research and evaluation.

The literacy programme utilized the means of mobilizing all educated citizens as instructors. However, grade twelve completers from secondary school were mainly used in the process on a voluntary services. They were oblighed to serve for only one round. They were lacking experience in teaching and their motivation to teach in the programme was doubtful. These conditions affected the effectiveness of the programme.

The literacy instructors training system of the programme was limited to only a very short period of training i.e. 3 to 5 days. The training had not been developed as a systematic operation. It was organized on a spontanous basis without having apprpriate structure, contents, methods and materials. Thus, it happens irrational to expect effective instructional performances from such untrained instructors.

In the literacy programme seminars and workshops were organized at different levels to orient literacy workers. There had been no regular system of conducting these trainings. They were held rarely and organized on adhoc basis without having appropriate structure, time, contents, and materials. No special trainings were offered to the different categories of literacy workers participating in the programme.

There are no specialized institutes in the country for training literacy personnel while there are several institutes for the training of school teachers. Secondary schools and formal school teacher's training institutes were neither interested nor involved in the training of literacy agents. Uhiversities and teacher's colleges have not adressed themselves to the literacy problems and to the training demands of literacy specialists.

The absence of trained literacy workers has been acute problem in the programme. The programme's activities were

undertaken by people who had no special training in the field. Thus, the activities were based on mere chances. Consequently, it seems difficult to imagine effective results from such programme.

The evaluation system of the programme was not integrated into the planning and implementation stages of the curriculum from its beginning to the end. It was not built-in each components of the curriculum and no systematic evaluation had been carried out about all the components of the curriculum. Besides, no impact evaluation had been conducted in the programme.

The evaluation process was concieved as an activity external from the curriculum planning system of the programme. There has been no unit set-up in the department for evaluation at all levels as an integral part of the staff to promote effective evaluation of different components of the curriculum.

The evaluation and monitoring systems intended and applied were not improvement oriented. They mainly appeared to involve feedbacks which were based on numbers and on statistical treatment of numbers. The foregoing deficiencies inherent in the evaluation system applied often suggests that the programme's effectiveness was uncertain.

Attempts were exerted to involve representatives from 22 ministries and agencies, at the central level, in the preparation of the adult education curriculum document of

the programme. However, the coordination of these agents was mainly attempted to impose homogeniety rather than relating and linking literacy education to the solutions of national and local problems.

The responsibilities of preparing literacy teaching materials were not handled as part of teamwork derived from local workers. Whereas, the duties were entrusted to very small number of 'experts', in the division at central level who were appointed on the basis of their formal education training and who have got no special training in the feild of adult education. In this perspective, it is not difficult to imagine the degree of shortcomings or defects inherent in the textbooks designed by such individuals.

In the programme's curriculum planning process, the involvement of individuals in the subcenters and community village levels were totally absent. Moreover, the learner's participation in the process was completely ignored. This had caused various problems like frustration, lack of motivation, and absenteeism on the part of adult learners.

Very little attention has been given to the adult education sector in the organizational structure of the MOE compared to the formal education. The section that is responsible for all adult education programmes has been organized on a department level. The structuring of the

section on department level seems confined and insufficient compared to the enormous tasks vested in it.

Like the formal education, the planning system exerted in the literacy programme was based on a centralized model. The preparation of all teaching materials of the programme were handled at the national level. This approach is contradictory to the principles of adult literacy programmes. The needs and problems of the local community were neglected and not reflected in the curriculum designed. As an effect of applying this approach, various problems were prevalent in the programme.

6.2. Conclusions

In the literacy programme no alternative curricula were offered and a single model was used without any adaptation being made to different surroundings or geographical areas or the needs of different social groups. In relation to the model used in planning the programme's curriculum, 'individualistic and behavioralistic approaches' predominate, eventhough official declarations stress 'participation', 'social solidarity' and 'critical consciousness' as a means of contributing to 'personal and community development', 'improving living conditions' and 'promoting transformations and change'. Therefore, it is safe to conclude that the literacy programme was not functional.

Concentrating on a single model in the literacy programme of this country which is characterized by a variety of ethnic, linguistic, socio-economic and other situations possibly would have a very serious risk. From this point of view, the effectiveness of the programme tend to be uncertain.

The curriculum planning and implementation patterns applied in the literacy programme had not adopted and adhered to the fundamental principles of functional literacy that have been suggested for successful literacy programmes. This also implies that the success of the programme is questionable.

In conclusion, there are clearly seen disparities between the adult literacy programme planning system suggested by different adult educators and the planning system experienced in the literacy programme of Ethiopia.

6.3. Recommendations

With the idea of improving the inherent deficiencies noticed in the planning system, minimizing the difficulties encountered in the programme and promoting better literacy programme, the following recommendations were made.

1. Literacy strategy in general attribute to the model of planning and implementation of literacy activities. In this literacy programme the application of mass literacy campaign strategy entailed a number of difficulties. To make better literacy programme, it is necessary to move away from using solely the campaign strategy. If not the programme's

activities will run on to be meaningless and waste of time. It is difficult for a poor nation to eradicate illiteracy at once and achieve success.

Experiences have shown that large scale and selective approaches are complementary and can be integrated to produce more effective literacy programme. Therefore, in this nation it is advantageous to use semi-large scale and selective strategies simultanously through developing it as a constant systematic operation. This could make possible to offer different social groups a functional curriculum responsive to the local needs. In this perspective, Ethiopia could learn a lesson from the experiences of Tanzania that applied the combined approach offering functional curriculum for different social groups.

2. The total negligence of conducting the study of the milieu in the curriculum planning progess had caused the programme's activities to be riskful. In order to minimize the risks and to foster effective literacy programme; attempts need to be exerted in the planning process to integrate the national necessities and the needs expressed by the local target groups through the way of making a form of study of the milieu. In this nation this approach could be realized through conducting context surveys in selected representative areas of the regions. Moreover, in this move it is essential to take into account the experiences of the WOALP.

3. The principles of functional literacy advocate the utilization of analytic method in teaching literacy reading. Thus, in order to make literacy learning meaningful and useful to adult learners it is important to employ analytic method in this nation's literacy programme. The application of this method in the programme could be materialized through employing locally available instructors and organizing special trainings for the instructors on the method as it was executed in the WOALP of Ethiopia.

4. The Ethiopian literacy programme had displayed an interesting experience through applying fifteen languages as a medium of instruction. Contrarywise, several problems were encountered in the planning and implementation stages of the programme. One of the causes for the presence of these difficulties was the absence of prior research in the area. To minimize the failures and to ameliorate the effectiveness of the languages used, conducting intensive systematic linguistic researches is urgent. Therefore, it is vital to realize systematic studies to develop appropriate syllabaries, syntax, spelling, grammars, dictionaries, vocabularies etc. for the languages used in the programme.

5. Several shortcomings were inherent in the literacy instructor's strategy put to use in the programme. To advance effective literacy instruction, it is helpful if instructors inhabiting the village as the adults, by initiating some type of payment alternative, could be utilized

as it was experienced in the WOALP. The expenses required to pay salaries for locally available instructors possibly might not be more than the costs used up for transportation services and providing other support materials for instructors deployed in the literacy campaign.

The training of literacy instructors likely be made effective if a short and intensive initial period of training with a form of in-service training system could be applied in the literacy programme. Besides, it is essential to develop a training system as a systematic operation with an appropriate structure, periods, contents, methods and materials. It is also necessary to establish a structure at different levels that could handle the responsibilities effectively.

Shortage of specially trained literacy workers had been one of the major problems of the programme. Any literacy programme cannot be successful without involving trained literacy personnel. The variety of tasks required of literacy workers usually mean that they should posses special skills. Therefore, to minimize the problems and to promote effective literacy programme it would be worthwhile if special institute could be established to provide literacy agents sound specific trainings. Moreover, institutions of higher and secondary education would contribute a lot if they could involve in the training of literacy agents.

It would be useful if teacher training institutes include adult literacy components in their programme to be taught to student-teachers to prepare them for educating adults as well as children so that they could participate in the literacy programme. This could facilitate the using of staff in either of the two sub systems be considered. In addition, it is essential if universities could deal with research on literacy probelms and training of literacy specialists.

6. To have better evaluation system and to effecuate effective literacy programme, it is useful if the evaluation system could be built-in each components of the curriculum. It is desirable to develop a system to integrate evaluation into the planning and implementation of the curriculum from its beginning to the end. To make evaluation bult-in system it is good to set-up a unit in the structure for evaluation and monitoring at all levels as an integral part of the programme to realize systematic evaluation of different components of the curriculum. This could facilitate the application of the evaluation process for improvement purposes.

7. The principles of functional literacy usually recommend some form of diversification in planning the programme's curriculum in function of different target groups to be served. On the contrary, the centralized model of planning exerted in the literacy programme had brought many problems in the process. Ethiopia is a country which is characterized by divergent geographical,

cultural, socio-economic and other situations. The standardization of literacy curriculum in this nation's programme involve the danger of neglecting the needs of the diversified groups which also make the programme's output risky. Thus, to make literacy functional and responsive to the local needs some form of local level participation in the planning process is basic. Therefore, it would be effective if some form of decentralized model of planning could be employed. This could enable the grassroot planners to attach considerable emphasis to the problems peculiar to their specific areas. Moreover, it is necessary if the planning task is considered as a teamwork from the center down to the community village levels.

The application of decentralized model of planning in this poor country appear to have the risk of human and material resources. The realization of this model in this nation's programme could be made easy in terms of technical approach and costs by increasing the number of trained literacy agents who could handle the preparation of the materials for the programme.

Virtually, the actualization of all the above-mentioned recommendations often calls for the establishment of a strong technical structure to manage the tasks successfully. The existing structure of the DAE is very restrictive and not able to handle the tasks effectively. Thus, to carry on effective literacy programme and to undertake the tasks

successfully, it is worthwhile if the section could be organized on institutional level.

6.4. Suggestions for Further Research

Taking into consideration the limitations of the study, the following suggestions for further research have been made.

1. How could the study of the milieu be realized in the curriculum planning process of the Ethiopian literacy programme ? A thorough study to find out the most appropriate way of actualizing the surveys taking into account all the prevailing factors is important.

2. The methods of teaching reading in the literacy programme of Ethiopia has to be studied. It is essential to conduct studies in deciding what method of reading is appropriate in the literacy programme by examining all the factors that can influence it.

3. One of the major issues that requires urgent attention is the medium instruction. Thorough research is necessary to minimize the problems encountered in the application of different languages in the literacy programme. It is essential to conduct research on the languages used as medium of instruction for the first time in order not to repeat and avoid unnecessary failures and final frustration.

4. A comparative study of the achievements of the primary schooling and literacy graduates from the literacy programme is important. Thus, the parallelism between the two systems has to be confirmed.

5. What is the impact of the literacy programme on the literacy participants ? Impact evaluation is essential to see the impact of the programme on the participants life. To get relevant feedbacks for the future literacy programme a thorough impact evaluation study involving the literacy participants and those who were directly dealing with them is necessary.

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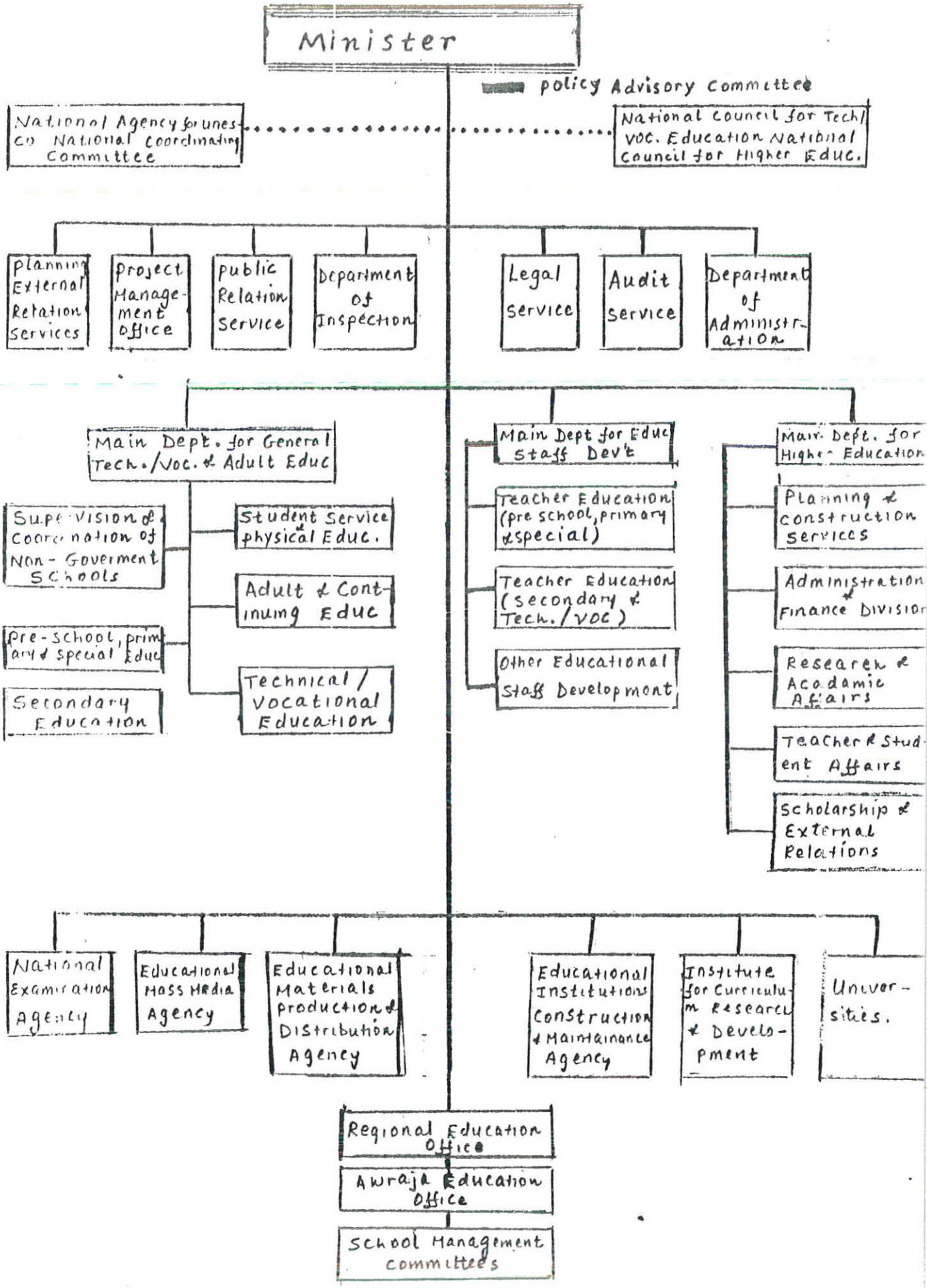
Appendix - A

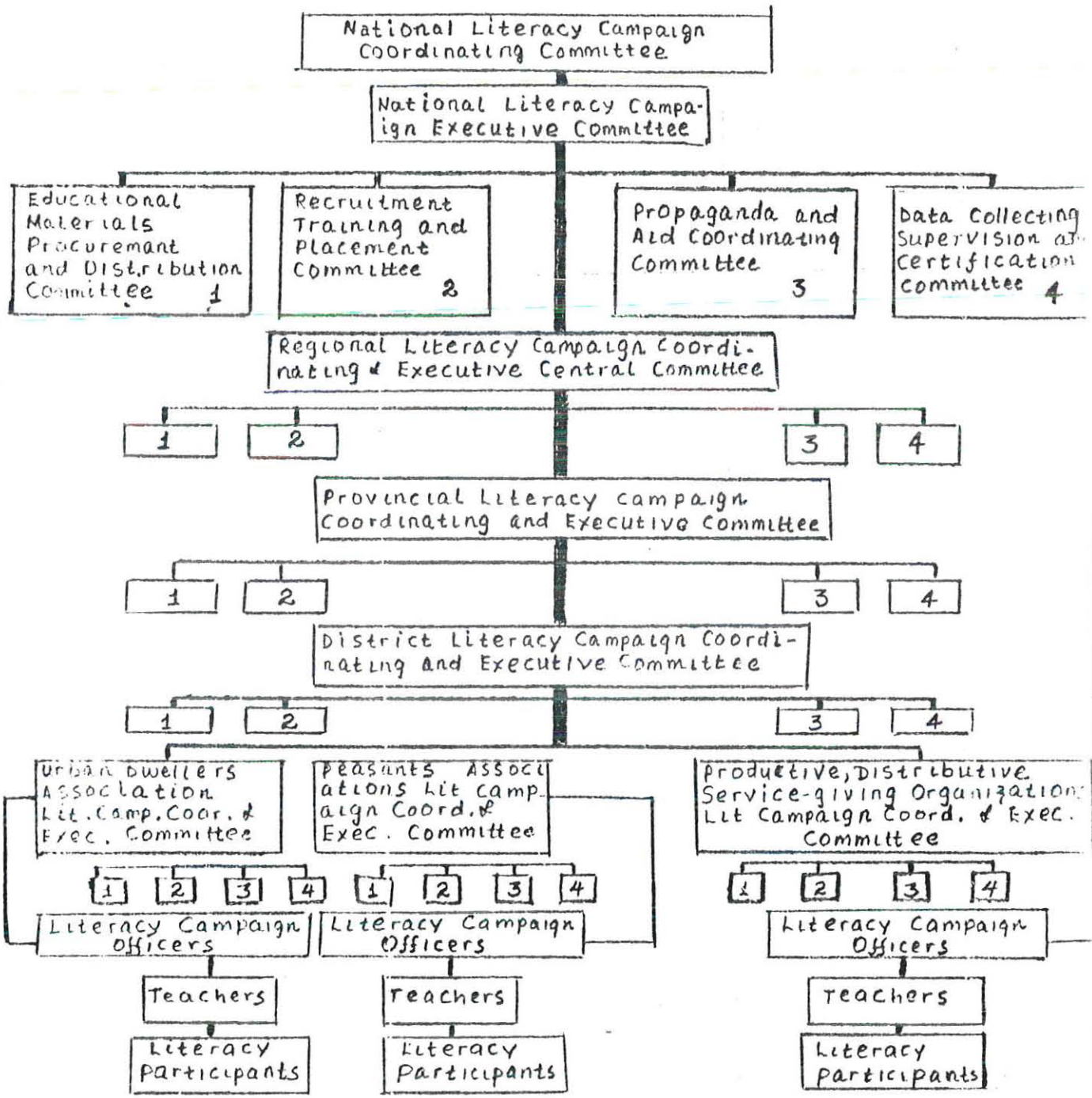
Organizational Structure of the MOE



SOURCE - MOE (1990), Basic Education in Ethiopia.

Appendix - B

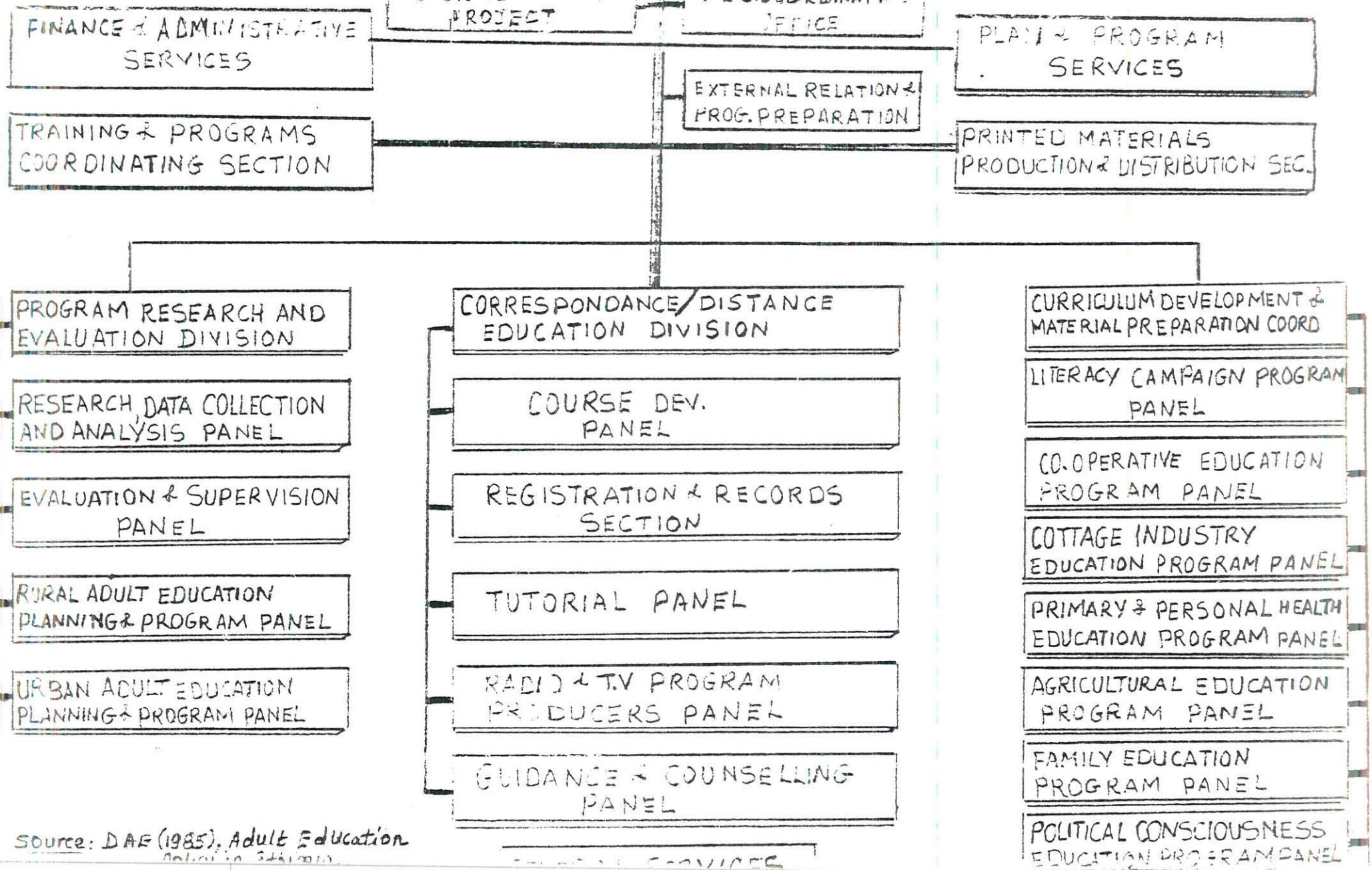
The National Literacy Campaign Organizational Chart



Source - NLCCE (1986), The Ethiopian National Literacy Campaign Its Achievements and Prospects.

Appendix-C

THE ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE OF THE DEPT. OF ADULT EDUC.



Source: DAE (1985), Adult Education

Appendix - D

Representative Members of the NLC Coordinating and Executive Committees

No.	Representatives
1.	Ministry of Education
2.	Department of Military Political Affairs
3.	Ministry of Defence
4.	Ministry of Information
5.	Ministry of Internal Affairs
6.	Ministry of Finance
7.	Ministry of Culture and Sports
8.	Ministry of Transport and Communication
9.	Ministry of Urban Development and Housing
10.	Ministry of Industry
11.	Ministry of Agriculture
12.	Ministry of Statefarms
13.	Relief and Rehabilitation Commission
14.	Central Statistics Office
15.	Central Auditor Office
16.	Higher Education Commission
17.	Police Force
18.	Addis Ababa University
19.	Central Planning Office
20.	Women's Association
21.	Teacher's Association
22.	Workers Association
23.	Farmers Association
24.	Urban Dwellers Association
25.	Orthodox Church
26.	Anwar-Mosk
27.	Federation of Health Workers
28.	Evangelican Church
29.	Writers Association
30.	Artists Association
31.	Journalists Association
32.	Musicians Association
33.	People's Organization Affairs Office
34.	Youth's Association

Source:- MOE (1979), Initial Seminar Reports and Decision on the Literacy Campaign Programme.

Appendix - D

Representative Members of the NLC Coordinating and Executive Committees

No.	Representatives
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8.	Ministry of Transport and Communication
9.	Ministry of Urban Development and Housing
10.	Ministry of Industry
11.	Ministry of Agriculture
12.	Ministry of Statefarms
13.	Relief and Rehabilitation Commission
14.	Central Statistics Office
15.	Central Auditor Office
16.	Higher Education Commission
17.	Police Force
18.	Addis Ababa University
19.	Central Planning Office
20.	Women's Association
21.	Teacher's Association
22.	Workers Association
23.	Farmers Association
24.	Urban Dwellers Association
25.	Orthodox Church
26.	Anwar-Mosk
27.	Federation of Health Workers
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30.	Artists Association
31.	Journalists Association
32.	Musicians Association
33.	People's Organization Affairs Office
34.	Youth's Association

Source:- MOE (1979), Initial Seminar Reports and Decision on the Literacy Campaign Programme.

Appendix - E

Ministries and Agencies Involved in the Preparation of the Adult Education Curriculum Document

No. of Represe.	Ministries and Agencies with their Sub-Groups
	A. Literacy Programme Curriculum Panel
4	Department of Adult Education
	B. Multi-Purpose Education Curriculum Panel
1	Management Training Institute
1	Office for People's Organization Affairs
2	Curriculum and Supervision Department
1	Commission For Higher Education
1	Ministry of Internal Affairs
2	Department of Adult Education
1	Ministry of Culture and Sports
1	Ministry of Trade and Tourism
1	Ministry of Urban - Development and Housing
	C. Economic Related Education Panel
4	Organization of Production Improvement
2	Light-Industry and Cottage Industries Development Organization
1	Handi-crafts Center
3	Ministry of Agriculture
1	National Museum
1	Ministry of Mineral and Water Development
4	Agricultural Service for Ethiopia
2	Department of Adult Education
1	Curriculum and Supervision Department
	D. Family-Life and Health Education Curriculum Panel
1	Ethiopian Family Planning Society Organization
1	Red Cross Society
1	Ministry of Agriculture
1	Ethiopian Malnutrition Organization
1	Ministry of Health
1	Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs
1	General Family Life Education Organization
1	Agricultural Service for Ethiopia
3	Department of Adult Education
44	22 Ministries and Agencies

Source: DAE (1978), The Curriculum of Adult Education Programmes.

Appendix F

Interview Questions for the Officials of the DAE and Workers in the Curriculum Development and Teaching Materials Production Division.

1. Questions related to the programme's objectives.

   1.1. How did the general objectives of the literacy programme set ?

      a) Who were involved in the process ?

   1.2. How did the broad and specific objectives of the curriculum formulated ?

      a) Who were participating in the process ?
      b) From where did these objectives derived ?
      c) Had there been any kind of study of the milieu realized in the planning process ?
      d) Was there any attempt exerted to adapt the objectives to the situations of the local areas ?

2. How did the content areas designed ?

      a) Who were responsible for the task ?
      b) What sources were mainly used in the process ?

3. What procedures were followed in the preparation of literacy teaching materials ?

      a) Who were assigned for these duties ?
      b) Was there any sympathy on the part of the concerned ministries, agencies, and others in the processes ?
      c) Were the contents of the teaching materials the same for all regions of the nation ?
      d) Were there any additional teaching materials other than textbooks prepared at the national and regional levels ?

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      c) Were the contents of the teaching materials the same for all regions of the nation ?
      d) Were there any additional teaching materials other than textbooks prepared at the national and regional levels ?

5. Are there institutions that involved in the training of literacy agents ?

   a) Do you think that it is adequate ?
   b) What do you suggest for the amelioration of the training system ?

   5.1. To what extent was the participation of locally derived individuals as instructors in the programme ?

   5.2. How did the literacy instructors training system of the programme organized and actualized at different levels ?

   5.3. What problems were realized in the process related to the instructor's strategy and training system applied in the programme ?

6. Were the manuscripts of the literacy materials prepared checked by different specialists ?

   a) Had there been pre-testing and field trails actualized prior to the production of the materials on a large scale ?

   b) Was there post-testing of teaching materials effectuated in the programme ?

   c) Was there any change made on the contents, when reproducing the teaching materials, based on feed-backs gained and changing situations ?

   6.1. How did the evaluation of learner's progress and achievement organized and applied ?

   6.2. Is there a unit set-up in the department for the evaluation as an integral part of the staff ?

   6.3. Who were responsible for the programme's evaluation and monitoring tasks in each round at the national level ?

      a) How did the evaluation activities run and reports of each levels in every rounds compiled ?

b) For what purposes were these reports used?

6.4. So far, had there been any impact evaluation executed in the programme ?

7. Was the curriculum planning system of the programme based on centralization ? If your answer is yes:-

a) In your opinion, could it be possible to apply a form of decentralized system in this country's liferacy programme ?

b) What problems could be hindrance to the application ?

7.1. Is the DAE well-organized to handle all the duties of adult education programmes effectively ?

7.2. Were the NLCCC's and sub-committees through time decaying and deteroriating in their organization and activities ? If your answer is yes:-

a) What major factors caused these situations ?

7.3. Do you think that there is an urgent need for a complet change in the organizational structure ?

7.4. What type of organizational structure do you recommend in order to promote effective literacy programme in this nation ?

Appendix G

Interview Questions for the Provincial and Awraja Adult Education Offciers.

1. Questions regarding the planning of the curriculum objectives ?

   a) Who determined all the objectives' of the curriculum ?

   b) Had there been any participation at the regional level in the process ?

   c) Was there any sort of study survey carried out in this region in the process ?

2. Questions concerning the contents and teaching materials.

   a) Who prepared the teaching materials of the programme?

   b) Was there any involvement at regional levels in the process ?

   c) Were the contents of the teaching materials uniform to all regions ?

   d) Were the teaching materials attractive to the adult learner's of this region ?

   e) Were the teaching materials completed within the alloted period of time ?

   f) Are all the teaching materials and materials of different languages prepared accompanied by teacher's guide ?

   g) How did the literacy classes organized and implemented in the region ? What were the main problems incured in the actualization ?

   2.1. Were there any additional teaching materials other than textbooks produced and applied at regional level ?

Declaration

I, the undersigned declare that this thesis is my original work and that all sources of material used for the thesis have been duly acknowledged and has not been presented for a degree in any other University.

Name Yalew Dessie

Signature _____

Place and Date of Submission A.A. University
July 10, 1992