

CONTINUING EDUCATION FOR DEVELOPMENT

APPEAL APPROACH [ATLP-CE in brief]

[This document gives preview of all volumes of **APPEAL Training Materials for Continuing Education ATLP-CE Volume I to VIII and part of APPEAL Manual for planning and Management of Literacy and Continuing Education related with Continuing Education**]



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CONTINUING EDUCATION FOR DEVELOPMENT

APPEAL APPROACH [ATLP-CE in brief]

A. INTRODUCTION

Asia-Pacific Programme of Education for All [APPEAL] has emphasized human development through Education. One of the most effective types of education for this purpose is continuing education.

UNESCO/ PROAP has developed "APPEAL Training materials for Continuing Education Personnel" [ATLP-CE] in cooperation with the Continuing Education experts in the Member States.

Continuing Education under APPEAL has been defined as a "broad concept which includes all the learning opportunities all people want or need outside of basic literacy education and primary education."

The Regional Coordination Committee for APPEAL has categorized continuing education into six types.

The objectives, Clientele Group and Delivery System of the six types of continuing education are given below:

Types	Aims & Objectives	Delivery Mechanism	Clientele Group
1. Post-Literacy Programmes (PLPs)	To maintain and enhance literacy and general basic work skills enabling adults to function effectively in their societies.	Face-to-face Classroom types, self-learning, mixed approaches.	All youth and adults (school drop-outs and semi-literates)

Types	Aims & Objectives	Delivery Mechanism	Clientele Group
2. Equivalency Programmes (EPs)	To provide alternative education equivalent to formal education.	Face-to-face, learning groups, distance learning, self-learning.	Primary education graduates and secondary education drop outs.
3. Quality of Life Improvement Programmes (QLIPS)	To equip learners with essential knowledge, values and skills to improve quality of life.	Distance learning, through mass media, learning groups, mixed approaches.	All youth and adults, specific community groups
4. Income-Generating programme (IGPs)	To help acquire and upgrade vocational skills and enable learners to conduct income-generating activities.	Face-to-face, self-learning, distance learning, mixed approaches. Learning while working.	All youth and adults, especially rural people who are illiterate school leavers, craftsmen, artisans and small scale businessmen.
5. Individual Interest Promotion Programmes (IIPs)	To provide opportunity to participate in and learn chosen social, cultural, artistic, etc. interests.	All types including hobbies, clubs, etc.	All youth and adults.
6. Future Oriented Continuing Education Programmes (FOPs)	To provide professional workers new knowledge, and skills to adapt to growing social and technological changes.	R & D systems, seminars, exchange systems, computer systems, study visits training, etc.	All youth and adults, organizations, professional, workers, change agents.

B. THE SIX TYPES OF CONTINUING EDUCATION

A brief description of six types of continuing Education under APPEAL is given below:

TYPE I POST-LITERACY PROGRAMMES (PLPS). These aim to maintain and enhance basic literacy, numeracy and problem solving skills, giving individuals sufficient general basic work skills enabling them to function effectively in their societies.

Post Literacy Programme should be designed to strengthen literacy skills so that the learners can follow meaningfully other opportunities offered by other continuing education programmes.

The main objectives of the post-literacy programme are :

- a) Retention of already acquired literacy skills;
- b) Improvement of literacy skills, and
- c) Application of the literacy skills for individual and community development.

As for programmes of basic literacy, post-literacy programmes should focus on the development of functional knowledge as well as the growth of technical literacy skills. Which areas of functional knowledge to include, however, is a more difficult issue with post-literacy than for basic literacy. This is because the interests of participants are more varied and their backgrounds are usually diverse. People's reading interests are highly varied and this has to be taken into consideration.

One of the greatest problems with post-literacy programme per se is the need to motivate participants. Motivation is a problem because the goals and outcomes are less

well-defined than for basic literacy or for alternative forms of continuing education. Equivalency continuing Education programmes, for example, have little problem in motivating participants because the outcome of obtaining a "certificate" at a defined standard, and the potential or re-entry to the formal system is a clear goal.

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

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

Just of illustration ATLP-CE has recommended five content areas, such as:

- i) Recreational Topics/ fiction
- ii) Social and Development Issues
- iii) Civics and Values
- iv) Work related knowledge and skill
- v) Culture

These content categories, however, are by no means prescriptive. Provided it is selected to be relevant to the needs of the target groups any relevant content area could be chosen. It is recommended, however, that at a minimum some recreational element be included, perhaps under the title of fiction, and that at least one "line" be given to work related topics. Each Member State would select content areas appropriate for its clientele.

A proportion of the content should be in terms of functional knowledge such as the work related skills, economic aspects of development and so on.

Each area of content can be graded in three steps of difficulty in relation to the three levels of competency as illustrated by the figure below and the standards for each competency level are set out in the pages which follow.

INPUT		PROCESS			OUTPUT
		Competency Level a	Competency Level b	Competency Level c	
ENTER with competencies of ATLP LEVEL 3 See page 31 Vol. I ATLP	I. Recreational Topic/Fiction	Ia	Ib	Ic	LEAVE WITH * Respect for objectivity * Able to interpret complex patterns * Tolerance for ambiguity * Broad views * Willingness to seek complexity * Socioeconomic awareness * A sense of social responsibility and interdependency
	II. Social & Developmental Issues	IIa	IIb	IIc	
	III. Civics/ Values	IIIa	IIIb	IIIc	
	IV. Culture and Religion	IVa	IVb	IVc	
	V. Work-Related knowledge and skill	Va	Vb	Vc	

Standards for Post-Literacy Levels

	Competency Level a	Competency Level b	Competency Level c
READING SKILLS			
Words	Small number of known words	5-10 % new words	10%+new words
Maximum sentence length	8 words	8-12 words	Longer sentences
Paragraph length	80 words	100 words	120 words+
Total words	500-1.000	1.000-4.000	4.000+
Number of pages	16-20	20-30	30+
WRITING SKILLS			
Format	Personal or business letter simple story Personal biography Letter to newspaper Notes for a short talk	Short essay Short story Biography of friend Short article for newspaper Notes for speech	A report Longer story Biography of famous person Longer article for newspaper Script for speech
Structure	Three paragraphs Simple language Simple tables and graphic presentations	Five paragraph More complex language More complex tables and graphic presentations	More than five paragraphs Advanced language Analysis and interperation of complex tables and graphics
Function	Basic communication of simple ideas Simple expression of original ideas	Communication of more advanced ideas Expression of more complex original ideas	Communication of complex idea Creative/ imaginative writing
NUMERACY SKILLS			
Arithmetical skills	Consolidation of Level3 of ATLP Basic Literacy Programme	Use of calculators and mathematical tables for larger numerals	Use of computer or other more complex calculating machine
Graphs, tables and geometric figures	Drawing and interpreting simple examples	Comparing and analyzing more complex examples	Formulating plan of action based on more figures advanced examples

Table 3.1 Standards for Post-Literacy Levels (Continued)

	Competency LEVEL a	Competency LEVEL b	Competency LEVEL c
GENERAL MENTAL SKILLS			
1. Vocabulary Building	Good knowledge and use of vocabulary in newspapers and popular magazines	Effective use of dictionary and other word lists	Adequate use of a specific technical vocabulary
2. Building general knowledge	Read and intelligently discuss a range of items in daily newspapers	Carry-out group discussions of current affairs and social issues	Make effective use of libraries to research a topic of personal interest
3. Establishing mental schemes	Look back at past experiences and use them to build new ideas about the present	Plan a scheme to implement solutions to a problem	Build a view in the mind of a new area involving several concepts
4. Critical Reasoning	Identify critical points of an issue	Distinguish between fact and opinion	Critically respond to a set of facts and opinions
5. Problem-solving	Identify and solve simple problems relating to personal and community life	Use available resources to solve personal/ social problems	Evaluate alternative solutions to complex problems

Important Note: In interpreting the table reading skills given in the first lines of the table should be regarded as preconditions for the standards specified in the other sections of the table. That is the competency levels required in writing, numeracy and general mental skill will depend upon the defined reading standards for each competency level.

TYPE 2 EQUIVALENCY PROGRAMMES (EPS). These are designed as alternative education programmes equivalent to existing formal general or vocational education.

It is assumed that most of the countries in the Region will very soon achieve universal primary education. ATLP-CE has attempted to develop a model of Equivalency Programmes only for Secondary Education. In case countries want to develop equivalency programme for primary schools, they can certainly utilize the principles and methods given in ATLP-CE volume III.

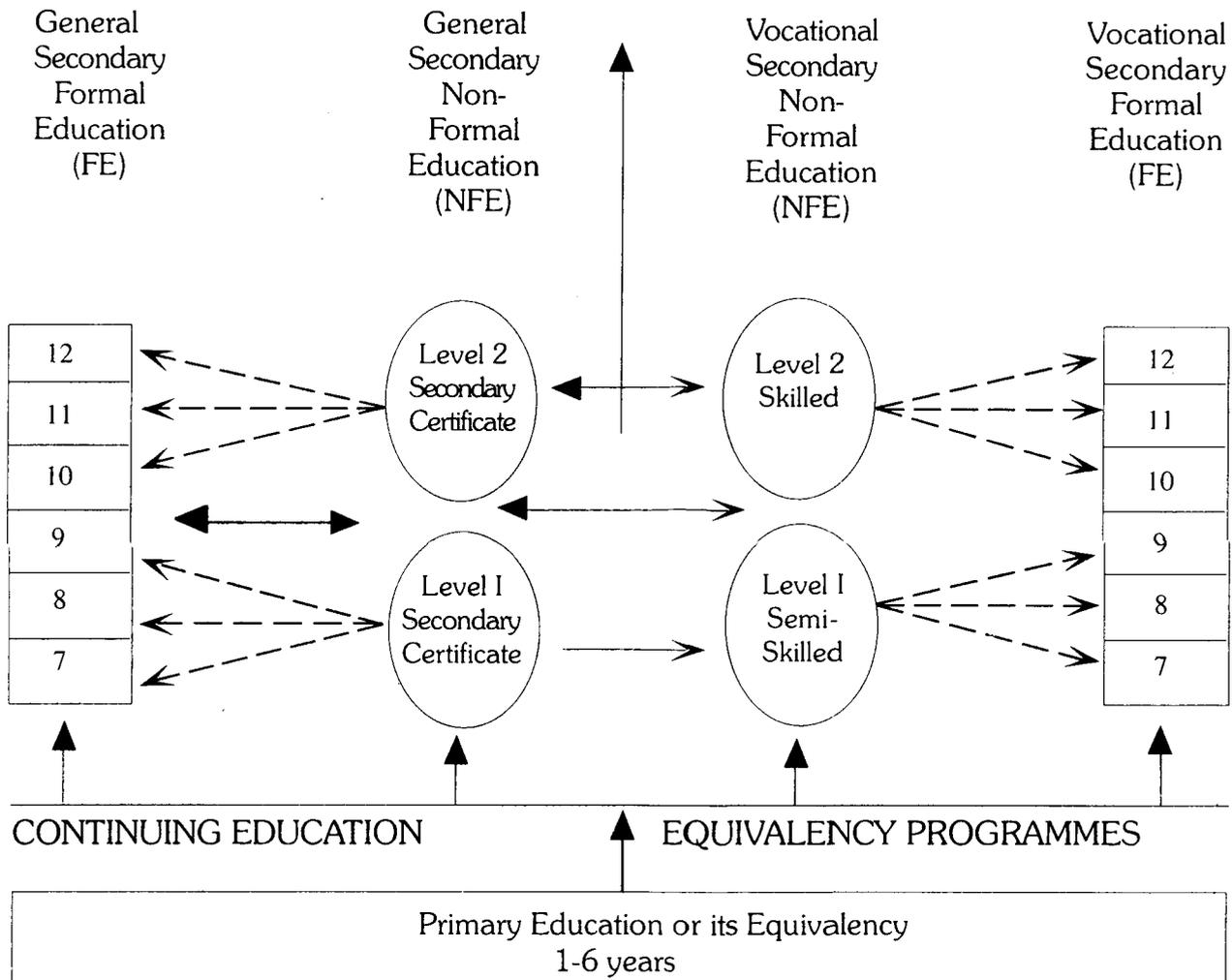
Equivalency Programmes should be more flexible than the formal Secondary Education.

This flexibility is usually reflected in the following ways:

- a) progression from level to level is usually more relaxed with less emphasis on formal levels or grades.
- b) The rate of progress from level to level can be accelerated so that the time needed to attain any award or to reach a particular grade level equivalent to the formal system can be reduced.
- c) Because most of the learning is self-directed and self-paced it is easier to provide alternative programmes to cater for special interests (e.g. vocational education vis-a-vis general education).

With these features in mind it is possible to develop a general structural model to represent the relationship between alternative equivalency programmes and a formal system of secondary school education. Such a model is presented as follow:

FURTHER STUDY/WORLD OF WORK



General model for equivalency programmes

The general model presented here makes several assumptions about the structure of formal secondary schooling. these assumptions are based on an analysis of the most common practice in the Region. the assumptions are as follows:

- a) Students enter Secondary School after Successfully completing six years of primary schooling.
- b) There are six years of secondary schooling years (grades) 7 to 12.
- c) Secondary Schooling is divided into two levels, level 1 (sometimes termed junior Secondary) for school years 7 to 9 and level 2 (sometimes termed Senior Secondary) for school years 10 to 12.

-
- d) In Member States which have attained Universal Secondary Education (e.g., Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Russia) Secondary schooling is compulsory at least to school year 9. (In some countries to year 10).
 - e) Levels I and II of the secondary school system each leads to awards namely a junior Secondary Certificate and a Senior Secondary Certificate.
 - f) Secondary Schools Provide at least two alternative strands, (i) Strand I: General Education, and (ii) Strand II: Vocational Education.
 - g) Both strands of secondary schooling lead to further study, employment or both.
 - h) Progression from level I (junior secondary) to level 2 (senior secondary) is usually based on merit and in most Member States is conditional on meeting defined standards assessed by an examination.
 - i) Promotion to post-secondary education is determined by merit and is assessed by a Certificate Examination Conducted at the end of year 12.

Any alternative system of education, if to be deemed equivalent to the formal system, needs to take these features in to account.

It is stressed, however, that this pattern represents the most common practice and that there are variations from Member State to Member State.

It is very important to develop systematic methods, and mechanisms of evaluation, accreditation and certification to make an equivalency programme a success. ATLP-CE volume III has given some guidelines on this aspect grouping Equivalency Programmes into three categories representing stages in their development.

First Stage : Follow the curriculum and tests of formal schools, but classes are conducted in non-formal ways.

Second Stage : A separate curriculum is prepared and classes are conducted non-formally, but formal education tests are given.

Third Stage : Curriculum, teaching and tests are all developed and administered separately.

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

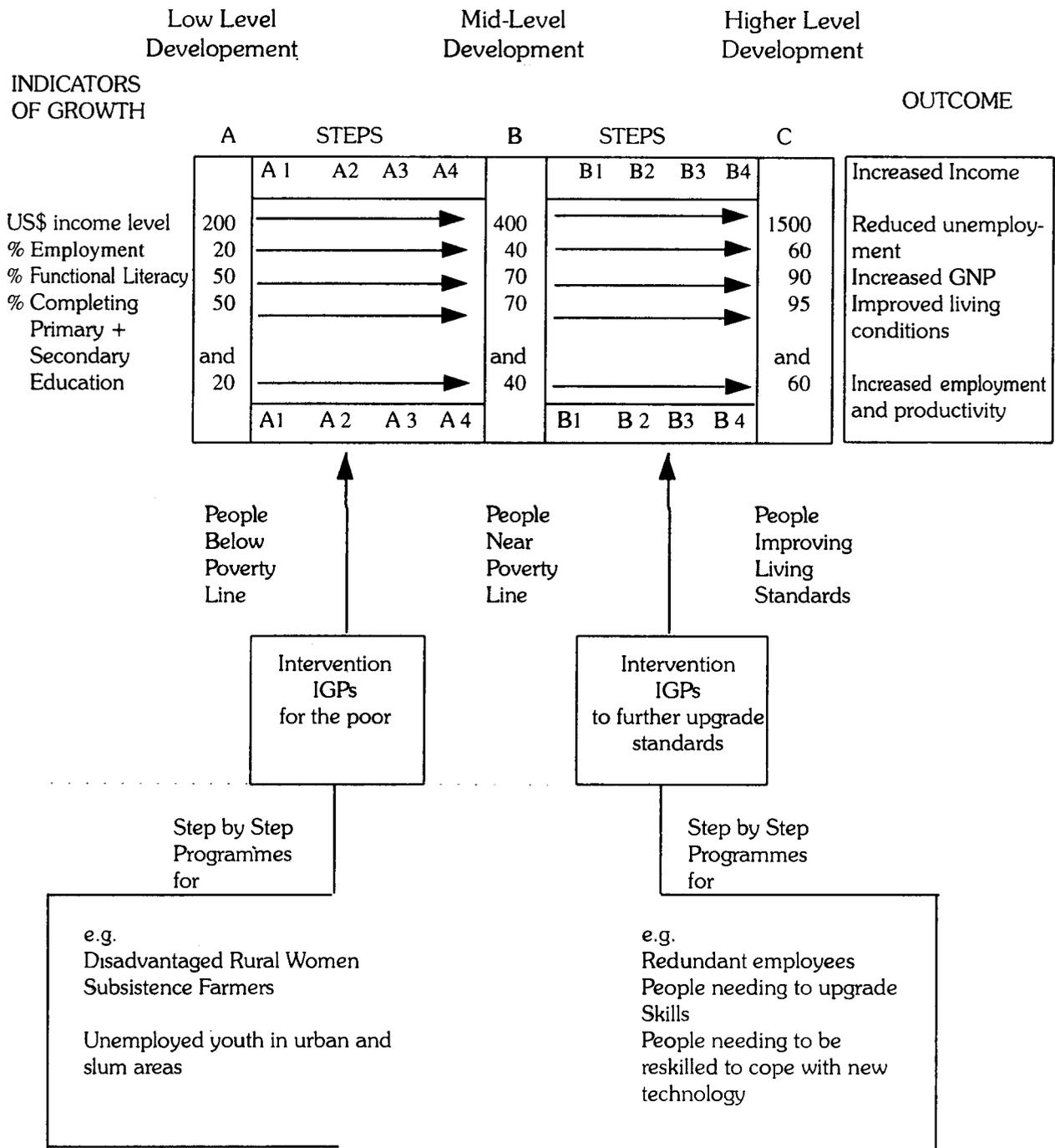
At present many Member States in Asia and the Pacific offer several kinds of income generating programmes with many a target group in mind. Though the main aim is to raise the level of income of the participants, most programmes generally end up with skill development. They are conducted by many types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

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

A Framework for IGPs

In view of the circumstances stated above, it is necessary to develop a systematic approach for bringing greater effectiveness in the planning, programming,

Development Model for IGP



A Framework for Income-Generating Programmes

implementation and evaluation of IGPs. A possible programme framework which is action-oriented is presented here for the use of planners, managers and other implementations of IGPs. The framework provides a general model for nationwide action at one level, and the development of specific activities such as projects and courses at the other. The framework as illustrated below has the following components:

- Progression from low level development through intermediate stages to higher levels of development;
- Progression measured against a series of socioeconomic and educational indicators;
- Specific programmes sufficiently flexible to cater to the needs of a variety of people at defined levels of income;
- Interventions by means of income-generating projects and activities;
- An anticipated outcome which raises overall levels of income and improves quality of life.

IGPs are required for all kinds of people (educated and uneducated, employed and unemployed, men and women, youth and adults) in all vocations (agriculture, small business, service and industrial sectors) and in all settings (rural, semi-urban and urban). However, it is emphasized that preference should be given to the rural people living below or at the poverty line who constitute a great majority of the population (more than 60 percent) in most developing countries of the Region.

Rural Setting

The rural population mainly consists of:

- illiterate youth and adults as small farmers and landless labourers- both male and female;
- school leavers (at secondary level) and drop-outs;
- traditional craftsmen and rural artisans;
- small scale businessmen.

Rural occupations are mainly associated with:

-
- Agriculture, horticulture and farm machinery;
 - livestock-poultry, cattle rearing, fish culture;
 - social forestry- village nurseries and tree plantation;
 - rural transport- rickshaws, country boats, push carts and vans;
 - rural industries- flour mills, rice mills, oil mills, ice plants, lime kilns, brick yards, food processing;
 - rural trading- buyers and sellers of products and services;
 - traditional crafts–Weaving, pottery, cane work, wood carving, lapidary, jewellery, shoe making, lace making, lacquer work, brass and silver work.

General Components of IGPs

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

a) Functional literacy.

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

b) Upgrading of literacy

The emphasis is usually on village organization, management, leadership, cooperatives, rural banking, technological change, world or work and employment opportunities.

c) Occupational theory

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

d) Basic occupational skills

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

e) Higher order occupational skills

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

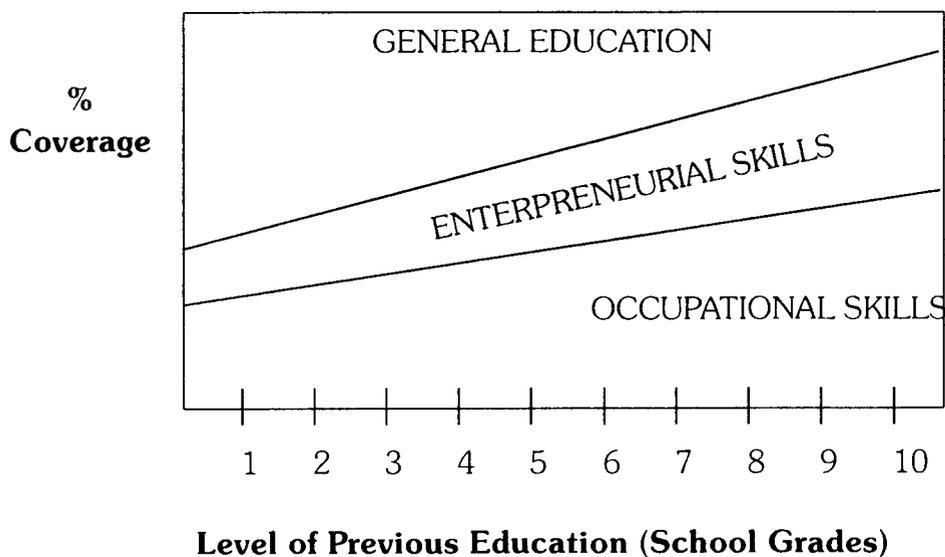
f) Entrepreneurial skill

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

g) Follow-up technical and support services

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

The degree of requirement of the above components depends on educational background, and scope and nature of employment needs. This is illustrated in the following diagram.



The Changing content of IGPs

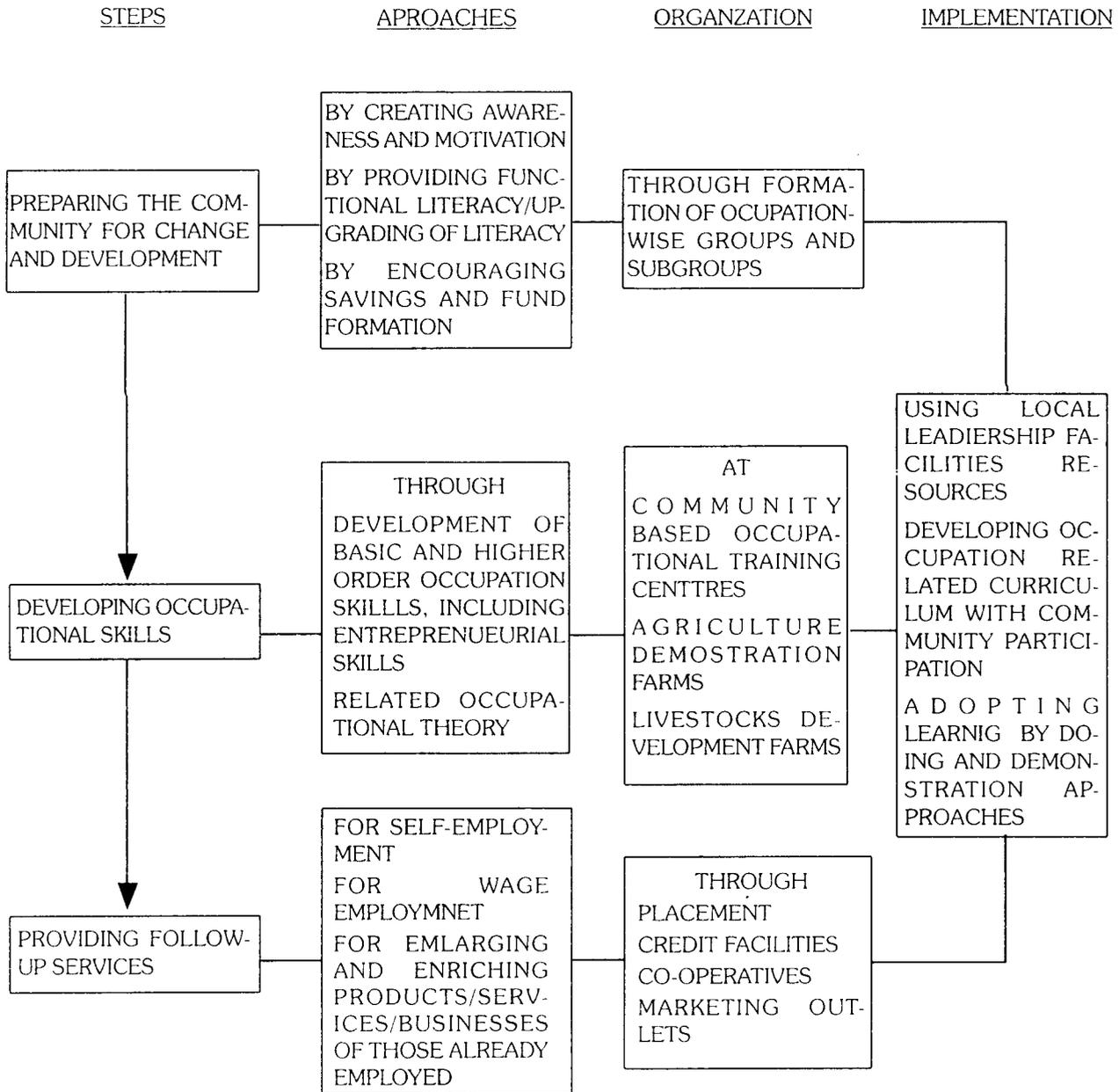
The assumption made here is that people with low level of educational background engage in occupations at a basic level. The training content for them includes basic level occupational skills, upgrading of general education and lower order of entrepreneurial development. Another assumption made is that the people with higher levels of previous education wish to pursue income generating activities which require higher order occupational abilities and competencies. As such, they require increasing development of occupational and entrepreneurial skills. Their need for general education will be less in view of their higher level of previous education.

Target specific Components of IGPs

On the above basis, IGPs for various categories of rural people comprise the following components. For coding (a) to (g) refer to components of the programme.

- Illiterate groups – require functional literacy (a) and basic occupational skills (d) and follow-up support services (g).
- School drop-outs – need upgrading of literacy (b), occupational theory (c) basic occupational skills (d) and follow-up support services (g).
- School leavers – require occupational theory (c), basic occupational skills (d), higher order occupational skills (e), entrepreneurial skills (I), and follow-up support services (g).
- Traditional craftsmen – require upgrading of literacy (b), higher order occupational skills (e), entrepreneurial skills (f) and follow-up support services (g).
- Small businessmen – require upgrading of literacy (b) and entrepreneurial skills (f).

Possible steps for development of IGPs in rural settings is schematically shown in the following diagram:



Steps for the development of IGPs in rural settings

Earlier experiences indicate that rural people have not shown adequate interest to participate in literacy development programmes which focus on literacy alone. This is because literacy alone has not improved their income raising capacity. To obviate this difficulty, occupational skill development programmes have been conducted on the assumption that the skills acquired would enable participants to engage in gainful employment. Even this has not helped the participants as much as expected because most this has not helped the participants as much as expected because most have found it difficult to become involved in income generating activities without follow-up support services for placement either in wage or self-employment. If IGPs are to be successful in respect of rural people, functional literacy, skill development and follow-up services particularly credit facilities need to be arranged as integral parts of IGPs. Seed money, revolving funds, learning, funds and cooperative banks (with rural people as shareholders) are some the ways for extension of credit facilities. This integrated approach has two benefits. Firstly, it encourages rural people to participate in literacy and post-literacy development programmes on a wider scale, secondly, it ensures their absorption in appropriate income generating activities.

TYPE 4 QUALITY OF LIFE IMPROVEMENT PROGRAMMES (QLIPs)

These aim to equip learners and the community with that essential knowledge, attitudes, values and skills to enable them to improve quality of life as individuals and as members of the community.

While almost all aspects of education can be said to contribute in some ways to improved quality of life some types of educational activities can be more specifically directed to improve general well-being through the development of higher standards of living and improved excellence of life style. These types of educational activities are termed "quality of life improvement programmes," (QLIPs).

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

Indicators for Quality of Life Development

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

The Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) has suggested that Quality of Life indicators have been traditionally classified into three groups as follows:

i) Economic Indicators

GNP and GDP

ii) Objective Social Indicators.

Hard data on elements such as:

health/nutrition
education/ learning
housing and physical environment
working life
social security
personal safety and justice
leisure and use of time
social participation
human freedom

iii) Subjective Social Indicators

Soft data on individuals' reactions and perceptions about quality of life.

Perceived levels of happiness and life satisfaction in regard to

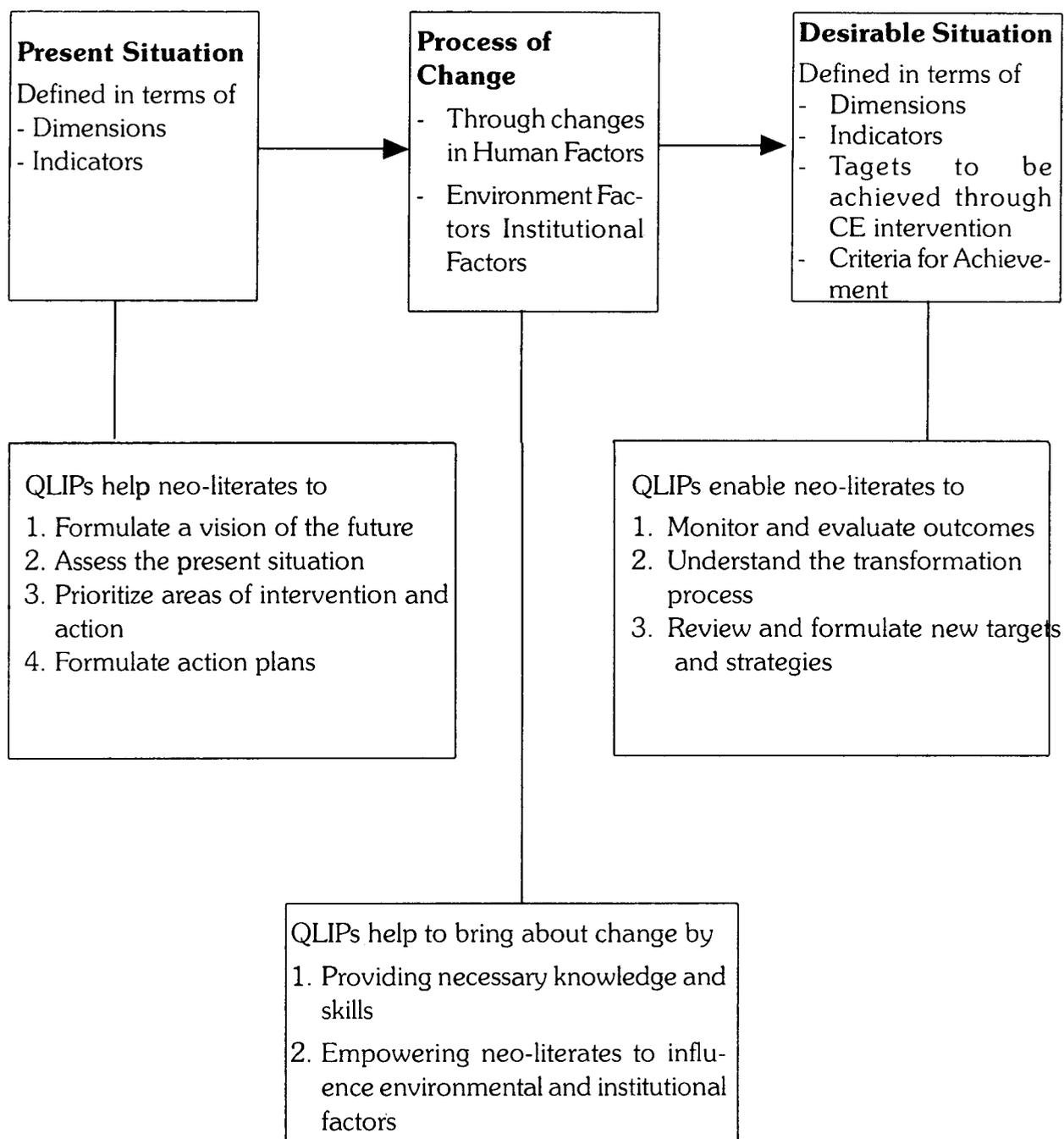
work	income
health	leisure time
family life	housing
environment	government
and others	

ESCAP points out an interesting lack of correlation between the three categories of indicators. While income levels can go up people surveyed can claim that they are less happy and so on.

The Specific Role of QLIP

Since the role of QLIPs is to facilitate positive societal change through education is it important to develop such programmes within the context of a general model for change. The change mode 1 advocated by ATLP-CE is given as follow:

PROPOSED MODEL OF CHANGE FOR QUALITY OF LIFE IMPROVEMENT CONTINUING EDUCATION PROGRAMMES



The model indicates (i) where we are now, (ii) the procedure to bring about development and (iii) a statement of the development target (where we want to be). QLIPs can be implemented at all three stages of the model.

At the initial stage the aim should be to compare national targets on key indicators with community perceptions. Education through QLIPs can help the community to:-

- understand national targets
- assess their own situation
- identify their own targets
- negotiate desirable targets

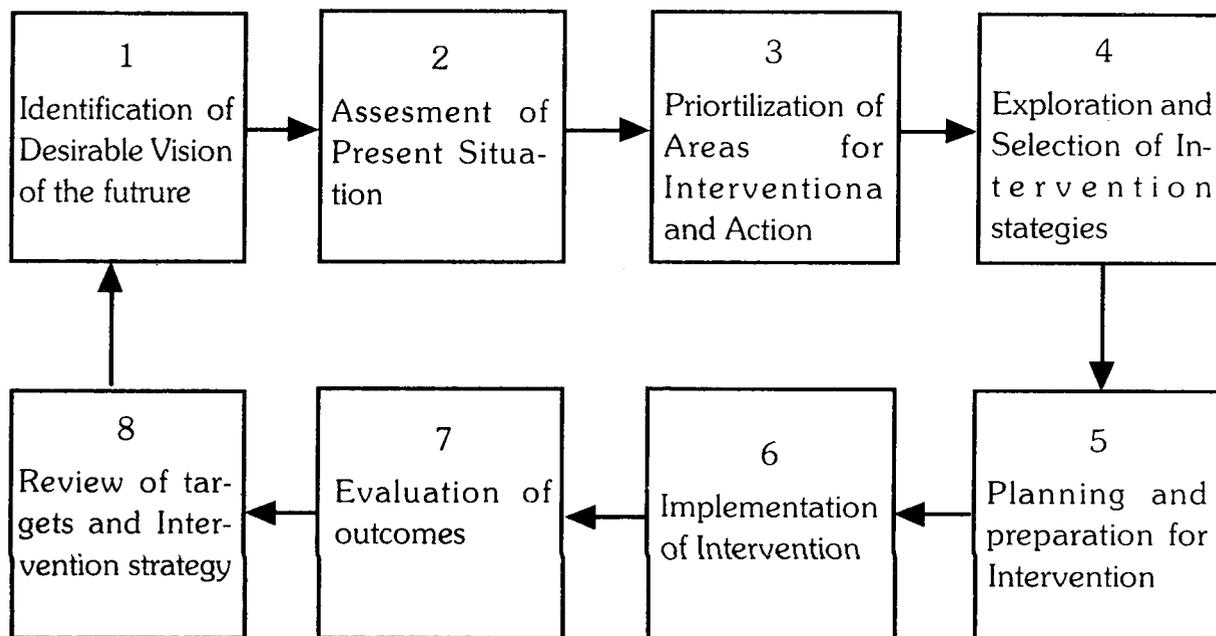
At the second stage QLIPs can help to change human factors and through them change institutional and environmental aspects.

At the third stage QLIPs may help people monitor and evaluate whether they have reached the target, to assess successes and failure and to help in deciding where to go next.

So the model implies that there should be two types of QLIPs- general and specific. The general types should be concerned with broad aspects of implementation such as planning, management and evaluation. For example, QLIPs could be developed for each stage of the model.

- Stage I : How to determine needs
How to assess the level of relevant indicators
- Step II : How to select appropriate methods
How to implement change
- Step III : How to assess level of achievement
How to evaluate the effectiveness of the outcomes
How to assess impact
How to review processes
How to determine future priorities.

In bringing about the planned process of change, the following steps are generally undertaken as shown below:



Steps in Implementing Planned Development

QLIP Programme Framework

The framework should include two types of educational activities, general and specific. The general activities should include education and training about managing and implementing development projects. Areas to be covered could include the following:

- Leadership
- Project Planning
- Project Implementation
- Monitoring
- Evaluation

Specific activities should relate to the specific elements to be covered by a particular programme and to the specific indicators and targets to be addressed. The emphasis should be on how to translate national or provincial level indicators to local level indicators and targets. The following diagram illustrates how a national set of indicators

could be translated into an action curriculum at the local level. The present and targeted standards could in practice be shown in several ways (ratings, percentage of population, percentage yield, numbers of people or services provided and so on). In the exemplar the standards are shown as percentages only. The figures shown are of course arbitrary but in practice would be derived from a careful analysis of the present situation and by the setting of realistic targets.

I. NATIONAL INDICATORS AND TARGETS (perhaps a five year plan)

Element and Indicator	Present	Development Stage					Target level
	level (%)	1	2	3	4	5	(%)
Biological							
Food availability	60	60	65	70	75	80	80
Air cleanliness	40	40	45	50	55	60	60
Clean water	50	50	55	60	65	70	70
Freedom from illness	etc.	etc.					
Quality of housing							
Social							
Parenting Quality							
Level of socialization							
Degree of freedom							
Level of participation							
Absence of discrimination							
Access to social services							
Access to cultural activities							
Degree of law and order							

TYPES 5 INDIVIDUAL INTEREST PROMOTION PROGRAMMES

(IIPs). These provide opportunity for individuals to participate in and learn about their chosen social, cultural, spiritual, health, physical and artistic interests.

The objectives of Individual Interest Promotion Programmes (IIPs) is to provide learning experience to promote and improve the individual interests of various groups such as youth, women, elderly people, etc. They basically aim at promoting and strengthening learning activities which promote (a) leisure utilization, (b) life improvement and (c) self-actualization.

IIPs can be categorized into the following types, i.e.

1. Hobbies and Leisure Utilization

Such as flower arrangement, cake decoration, photography, stamp collection, bridge playing, etc.

2. Cultural

Such as art, painting, drawing, traditional music, dance, drama, ballroom dancing, calligraphy, comparative religions, etc.

3. Self-Reliance

Such as car care, video repair, dress making, sewing, knitting, healthy cooking, computer literacy, owner builder training, property investment, self-defence for women, first aid, etc.

4. Sports

Such as aerobics, swimming, mountaineering badminton, tennis, billiards, etc.

5. Personal Development and Self-Actualization

Such as meditation, creative writing, speed reading, Taichi, presentation skills, public speaking, etc.

It is difficult to isolate IIPs from IGPs and QLIPs, because some one may pursue individual interests through training and practice, while at the same time gaining some income. For example a lady has learned flower arrangement as hobby only to find that people start coming to buy her flowers. Similarly one person has learned Taichi as an IIP, but other members of the community come to learn Taichi from him and as a result the health of a many members of the community improves. Thus distinction between IIPs, IGPs and QLIPs depends upon the motivation and purpose of the career and income, it is an IGP for him/her, but if the person attends the same course just for self-development, it is an IIP.

What usually happens in practice, is that courses emerge at local level. A group with a common interest comes together, coordinated by a local leader or expert in the area of interest. In a more developed community this interest could be one of many and may require a good standard of general education- courses in creative writing for example would require people to be able to read and write at a high standard. In less developed countries the common interests are more likely to relate to local cultural traditions such as religion, dance, music, folklore, traditional medicine and so on where the general educational background is less important but knowledge of local traditions is the key. These interests can be springboard for the emergence of a wider range of interests as development proceeds.

In more developed countries IIPs generally arise spontaneously. There are skilled qualified presenters available and promote, sponsor and present IIP activities and mechanisms are available to organize and administer IIPs.

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

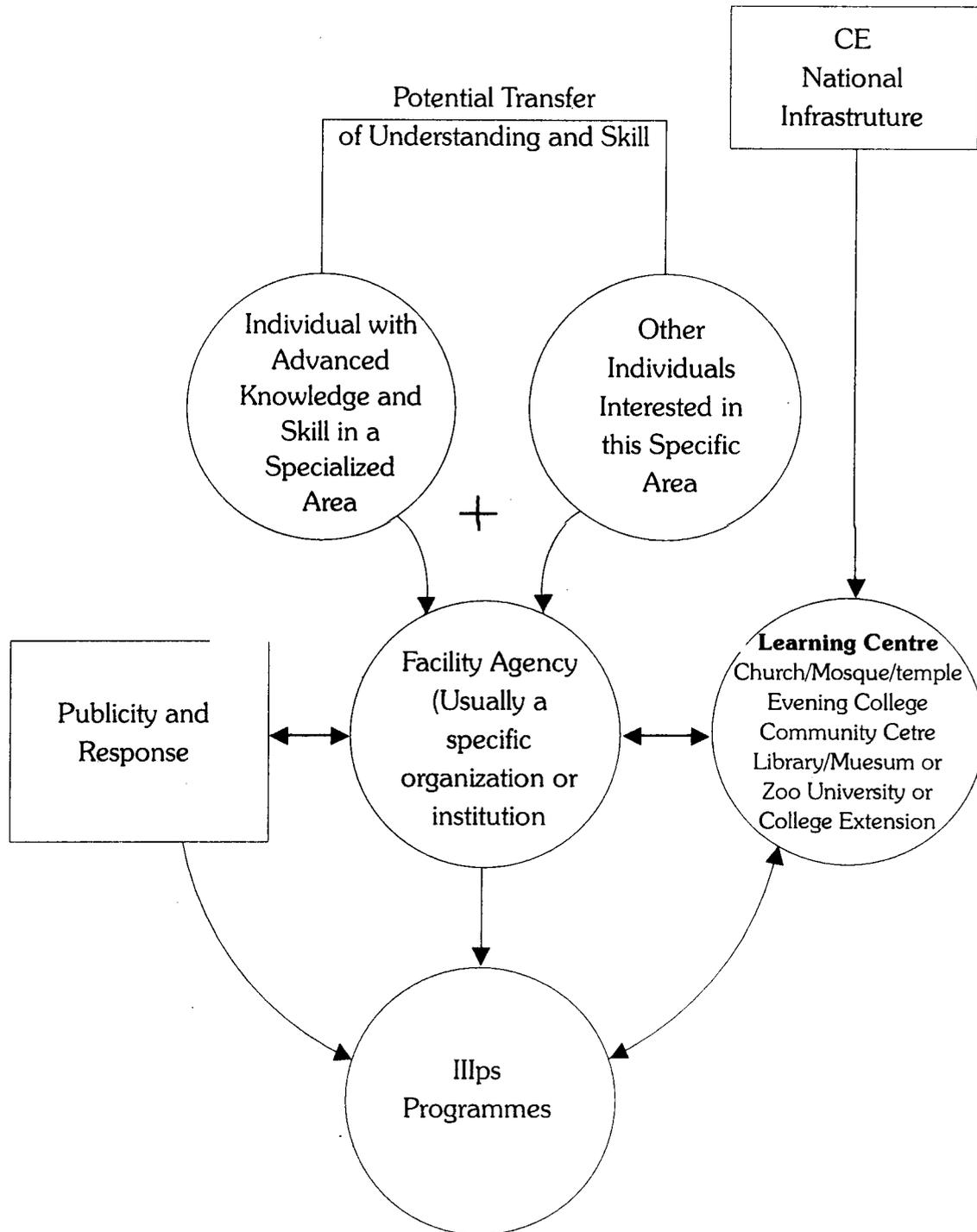
The formation of any IIP group is facilitated by a CE agency at a Learning Centre. This agency is a local body. It may be a village or suburban community group, religious organization, a government agency, a community or evening college, the extension division of a formal school, university or college, a library, gallery, zoo or botanical garden, and so on. (See ATLP-CE volume VIII.)

The facilitating agency advertises and organizes the courses. It recruits the course leader, meeting costs from fees paid by those attending or from other sources. If fees are charged they are kept to minimum by means of government subsidy and/or by using very low cost learning centre venues such as schools (out-of-hours) and other public buildings. Some courses could be held in the homes of presenters or participants. The facilitating agency enrolls participants, provides resources and administers the through a national or provincial CE infrastructure such as a State council of continuing Education. Most facilitating agencies are members of nation-wide CE networks.

IIPs are demand driven. Each stands or falls on its own merits. Courses attracting viable enrolment are repeated and those which do not are discontinued.

Courses usually emerge in one of two ways. The first way, and by far the most common, is that a potential course leader offers his or her services in a specialized area, or is recruited by the facilitating agency. Based on previous experience, the facilitating agency decides if the course suggested is marketable and then advertises it. Courses which do not attract more than an agreed minimum number of participants do not process. The second way is for a group of local people with a common interest to request a course. The facilitating agency then finds a suitable leader and the course is initiated.

This procedure is illustrated in the following diagram.



Programme framework for individual Interest Continuing Education courses and activities

TYPE 6 FUTURE ORIENTED (CE) PROGRAMMES (FOPS). These give workers, professionals, regional and national community leaders, villagers, businessmen and planners new skills, knowledge and techniques to adapt themselves and their organizations to growing social and technological changes.

Diversity, complexity and rapid change are characteristic of the contemporary world. Science and technology advance into new areas; social and economic changes effect the life style and attitudes of almost all people. Many countries organizations and communities are undertaking reforms-- political economic, social, administrative and educational. These reforms aim to prepare the people to face and guide change

Many scholars, social critics and futurologists are attempting to forecast future changes. These forecasts are in the form of alternative scenarios. These forecasts, however, are uncertain and open to various interpretations. The future cannot be predicated with certainty. Not many people could foresee or predict the widespread application of computer technology in daily life. Very few could anticipate the disastrous effects of AIDs on our society.

On the other hand the future is not unconnected from the present. Constant effort to reform, plan, innovate and manage are the very foundations of the future. Some of our dreams and aspirations often influence the course of change, especially if they evolve into wider societal visions. In this sense the future is a continuum of the present.

Education is one of the most powerful components of such a continuum because it develops people capable of facing and building the future. The complexity of contemporary life calls for a diversified and flexible approach in education to meet the diversity of needs, interest and requirements of the future. Recent history in the Region has demonstrated a clear causality between education and socio-economic development.

Since school education is a relatively structured way of providing the basis for human development, formation of personality, development of knowledge skills and values and so on, it is likely that more flexible aspects of continuing life-long education outside the formal system will be increasingly called for. More specifically it will be non-formal educational systems and guided informal learning which will be utilized to i) review becoming obsolete in the changing world; ii) mobilize social participation and iii) develop new values needed to cope with newly emerging problems and issues on a societal level.

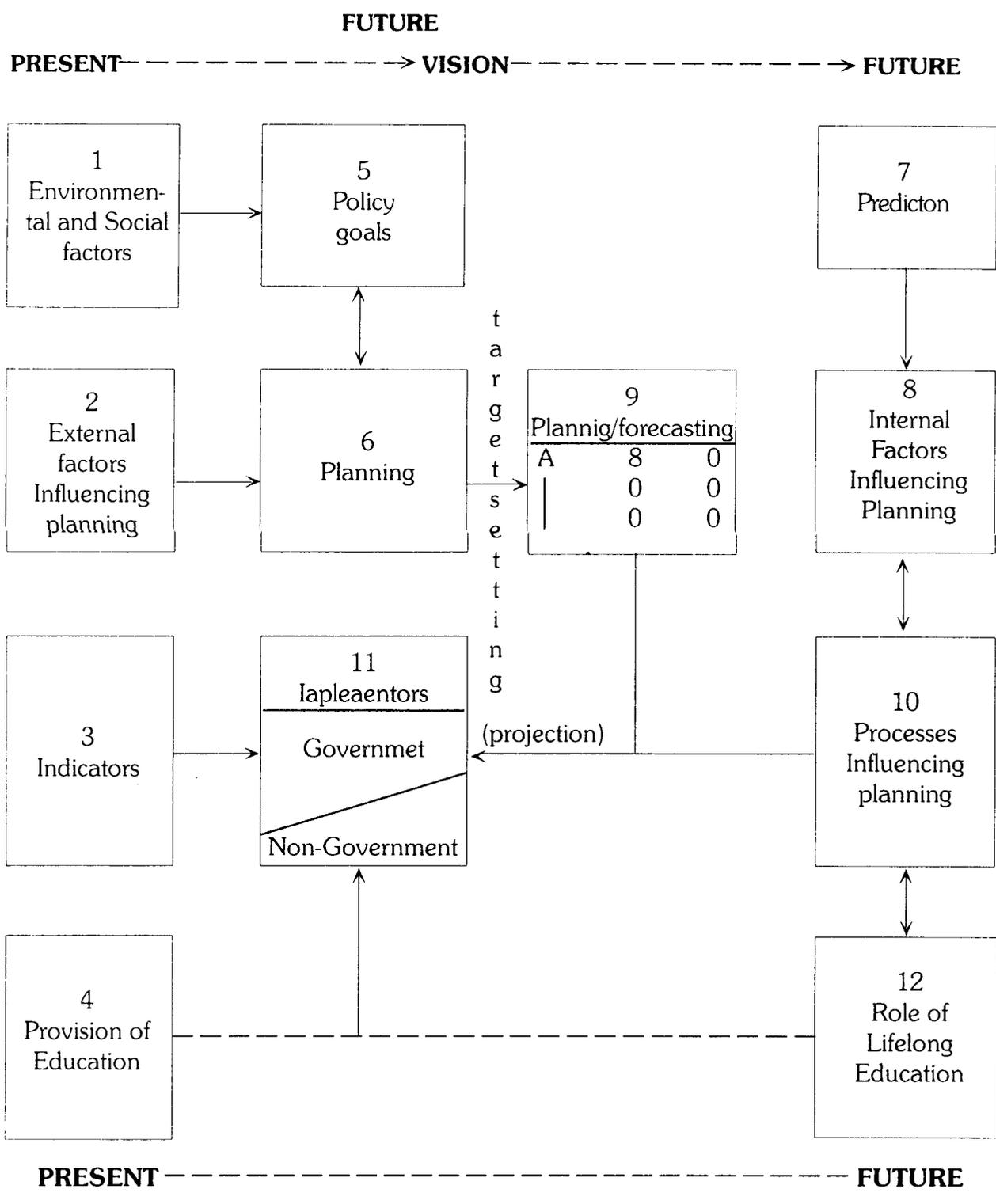
The diagram given below attempts to clarify the complex process of transforming the present into the future. It stresses the place and role of continuing education in a future oriented context.

An essential element in planning for the future is to have an agreed vision of what the future should be like. This vision emerges from the reality of the present society and its environment. (Box 1). In describing the present reality the will, wishes and hopes of those involved should be taken into account together with their aspirations and dreams. Ethical and moral issues of the day; social trends, human and personal factors, economic factors and the growing influence and role of science and technology should also be taken into consideration.

External factors likely to influence the future should also be identified, described and analyzed (Box 2). In particular those external factors which should be taken into account in planning for the future should be considered. For example factors which will affect all aspects of future development include the growing impact of science and technology; international trends such as globalization and the realignment of power blocs; changes in information systems and communications and the need to preserve and protect the natural environment through policies of sustainable development.

Appropriate indicators of development relevant to the future vision must be identified (Box 3). Today indicators which are relevant to societal change include extent of human rights; the degree of effort given to human resource development; the degree of emphasis given to cultural evaluation and a range of indicators of quality of life.

The vision will not be achieved in the absence of effective education (Box 4). The extent to which citizens have access to and engage in life-long learning is critical in this regard.



The process of transforming the present into the future

Any vision of the future must take into consideration the policy goals of the nation, the organization or the community which is formulating this vision (Box 5). For a national community this could be constitutional, equity related or be related to economic, social or educational development. For a commercial organization or industry, they could be related to resource management, profit or diversification of activities.

Policy goals moderated by external factors influence planning for achievement of the future vision (Box 6). The planning itself must have a clear strategy; should take into account relevant suitable time frame. The aim of the planning step should be to set clear targets for the achievement of the future vision and this involves careful projection of current trends.

Any future vision, therefore, is a product of predication involving forecasting, prognosis and planning (Box 7). In organizing a future plan the readiness and preparedness of the nation, community or organization to undertake the change, the timing of the change and available options and alternatives must be considered (Box 8). The approach adopted for implementing the plan (Box 9) could be (a) long term; (B) organized in short intermediate plan could be based on inputs from relevant academic research, social and political forums and so on (Box 10).

The implementators of the change leading to the new vision could be governmental or non-governmental (Box 11). Indeed the trend in almost all areas of socio-economic change involves both the governmental and private sectors. The diagram shows that in fact non-government agencies are playing an increasingly important role in most aspects of planned socio-economic change.

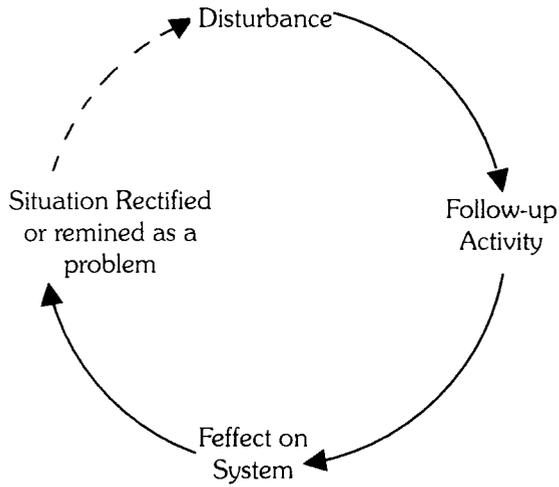
Finally, the diagram shows that life-long learning has a key role in formulating and achieving a future vision (Box 12). Continuing Education can train those involved to be effective planners, to have forecasting skills, and to be competent in adapting to and managing change. Future Oriented CE programmes, therefore, are essential if relevant rational practicable and effective visions of the future are to be formulated and achieved.

Justification for Future Oriented CE Programmes

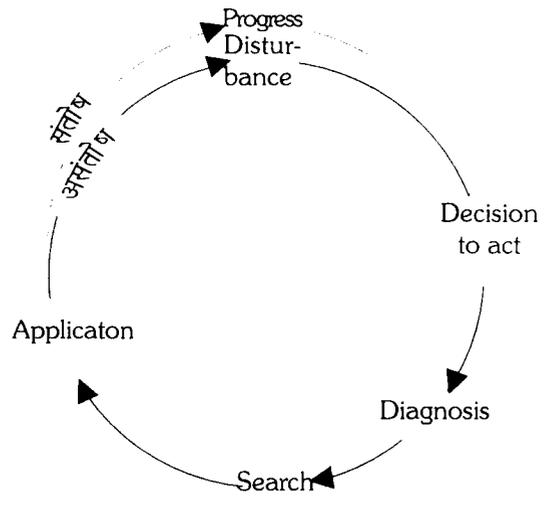
The most important reason for implementing FOCEPs, therefore is the need for

effective personnel who can construct appropriate views of the future, and who can plan, guide and manage the changes necessary to achieve the visions. Such change agents are needed at all levels of society from village to nation and from small to large organizations.

In regard to the process of change itself several authors have proposed useful general models. The American sociologist and management expert Ronald G. Havelock suggests that changes are of two types. They are either purely reflexive responses to some unexpected or unplanned event (model A) or they are based on rational problem solving and planning (model B). Havelock's models A and B slightly modified are illustrated below. These models apply to change in any societal system such as an institution, an organization, a community or a nation.

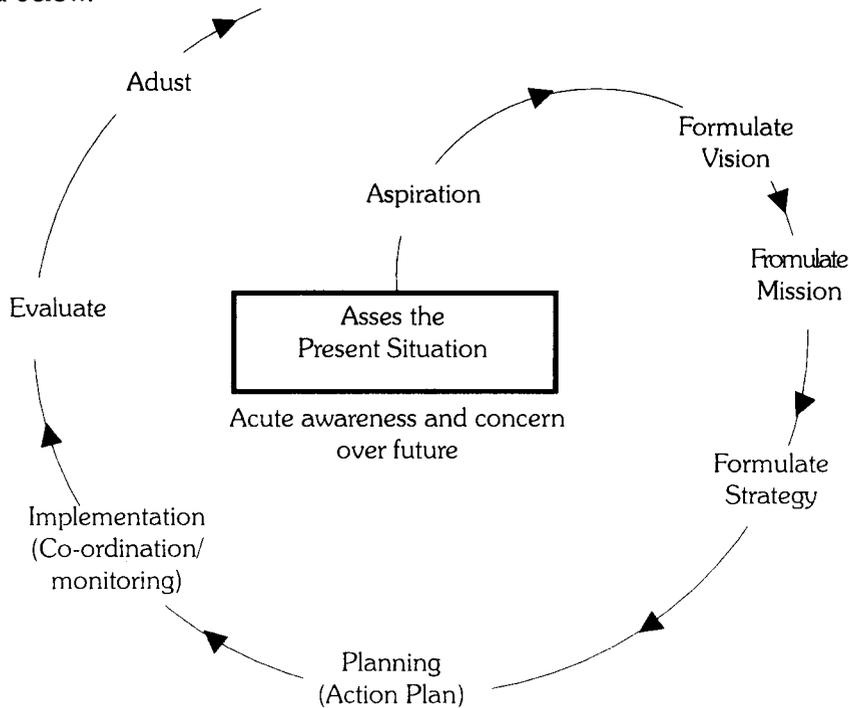


Model A
Reflexive Change



Model B
Rational Change

In the summary any FOP helps the personnel involved in individual, organizational or societal change in moving forward from the present to the future in a planned, organized and rational manner. Participants, however, should understand that the process of change is open-ended. The implications of any vision of the future cannot be totally predicted. Scenario building, therefore must be flieible and provision made for a range of alternatives and for adjustments to all aspects of the change. This ideas is issultrated below.



The open ature of planned change and the need for flexibilty in designing futre oriented continuing education.

LEARNING CENTRES DEVELOPMENT

[SUMMARY of ATLP-CE Volume VIII]

ATLP-CE has defined Learning Centres as :

Local and educational institutions outside the formal education system, for villages or urban communities usually managed by the local people and providing (i) resources for local development and family-oriented learning, and (ii) information about what, how, where and when individuals can engage in various types of education locally.

As NFE systems in developing countries expanded, it became apparent to those organizing the systems that these problems and weaknesses needed to be addressed by a more holistic response in terms of improved infrastructure and by broadening the scope and duration of NFE activities. In addition it became apparent that in poorer communities it was unrealistic to expect the community itself to take all the initiative in picking up from where NFE activities left off and applying the newly acquired but limited knowledge and skill to foster meaningful sustained personal and community development.

The idea of providing an infrastructure and an institutional base for holistic life-long education gradually emerged and become operational through the establishment of local community-based learning Centres, usually organized and managed by the people themselves. These Centres took over many of the roles of NFE but did so in a

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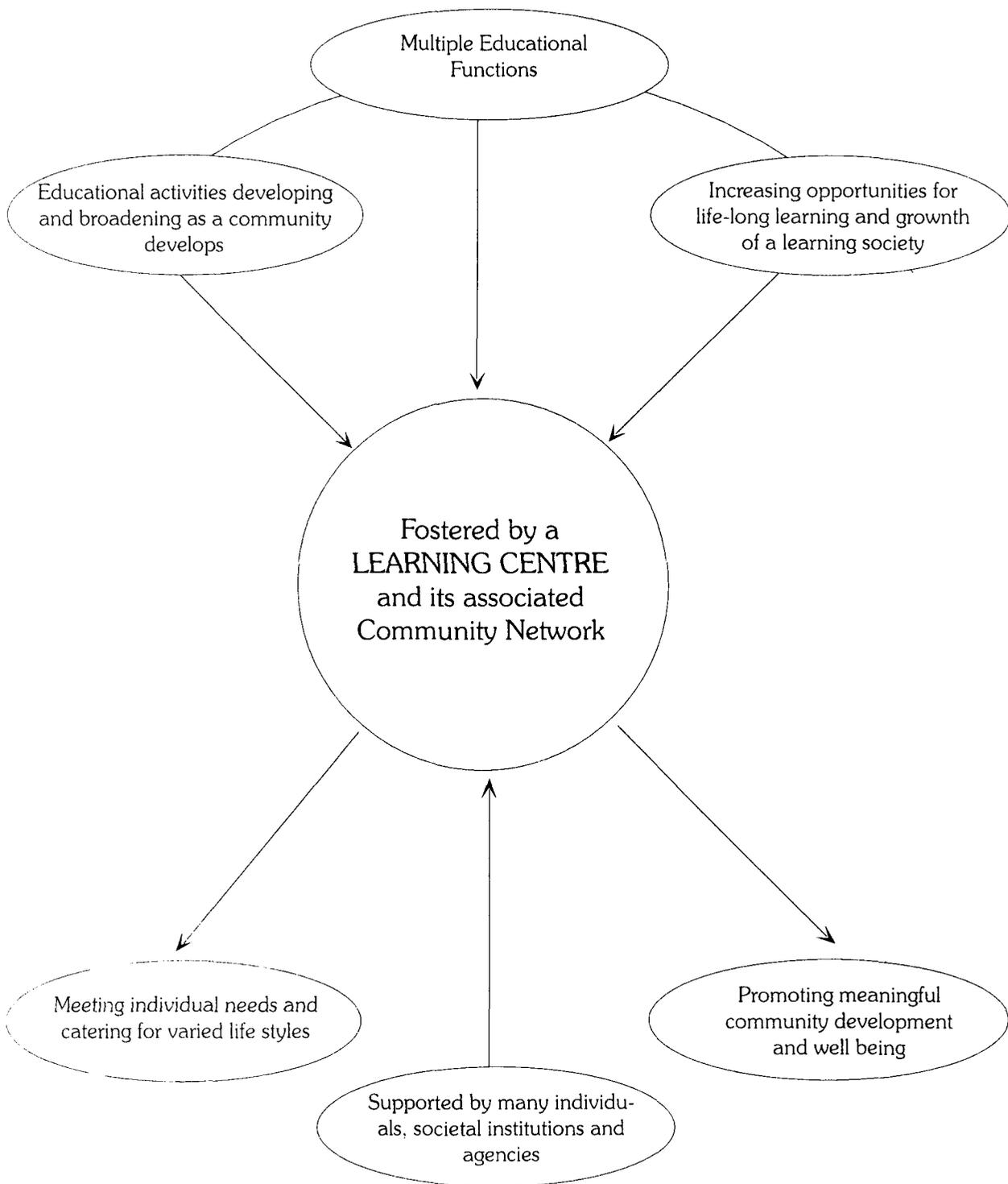
way which enabled beneficiaries (i) to continue to learn after completing specific NFE programmes and activities, and so promoted the concept of life-long learning and (ii) to apply knowledge and skill in continuous and sustained community development.

Initially most such centres were established in rural communities and were built into an overall programme of rural development linking together the initiatives not only of NFE but of other relevant ministries such as housing, health, industrial development and agriculture, Non-Government Organizations (NGOS) also established centres or worked together with Government in establishing and running Centres. The Learning Centre movement expanded to cater for urban areas and to broaden its activities still further to address a variety of social problems and issues. It gradually emerged as a network of community focused institutions providing continuing education, that is providing gradually opportunities for lifelong learning for all, and with a focus on the broader issues of community wellbeing and community development.

Learning Centres as Multi-purpose Institutions

Because, as mentioned above, Learning Centres having outreach and community development roles they must not only be concerned with a narrow range of programmes such as those provided under a Non-formal education programme but they must be multi-purpose and multi-functional.

A Reading Centre or a literacy class is, under this definition not a Learning Centre. If a temporary literacy class should become permanent and institutionalized and add other functions such as post-literacy or quality of life improvement activities then it emerges as a Learning Centre as defined here. Further an individual learning alone or with the help of a one-to-one facilitator can not be said to constitute a learning Centre. Such a situation could, however, be fostered as part of a Learning Centre programme. The concept of a Learning Centre thus also includes by definition its multipurpose nature.



The function of a Learning Centre as multipurpose and oriented towards personal and community development.

Functions of Learning Centres

Learning Centres have a broad range of general functions which are common to almost all. These are operational in varying degrees according to the socio-economic and cultural situation of the community served by the Centre. An important task for the promoters and managers of Centres, therefore, is to ensure that the Centre performs these functions appropriately to meet the genuine needs of the beneficiaries. The general functions are listed and discussed below:

TEN GENERAL FUNCTIONS- OF LEARNING CENTRES

1. Venue for learning
2. Education and training
3. General community activities
4. Community development
5. Advisory and counselling service
6. Training of NFE and CE personnel
7. Educational information and coordination
8. Community information and resource services
9. Promotion of life-long learning
10. Future visioning

DIFFERENTLY EXPRESSED IN DIFFERENT SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND CULTURAL SITUATIONS

For Example

1. Social groups at level of survival
2. Underprivileged social groups
3. Rural development situations
4. Society in transition from agriculture to industry
5. Affluent urban society in industrialized country

**The functions of Learning Centres are
expressed differently in different societal contexts**

a) Venue for Learning

A learning Centre, first of all, is a place where people can learn outside of formal education for the purpose of self-enrichment and self-development. In particular it is a place where they can learn to learn and to live effectively in a rapidly changing society. It is concerned with fostering the habits of life-long learning, especially encouraging people to read in areas of their interest and concern, and to help them formulate and achieve specific learning objectives.

To achieve this the Centre as a learning venue must provide a supportive positive atmosphere and use non-formal and informal methods to build self esteem and enhance confidence. Since in most cases participants will be youth or adults the venue must be suitable for use by adults and must use teaching methods appropriate for them.

Learning venues must also be appropriate for the particular situation served by the Centre. If it is mainly focusing on the needs, say, of underprivileged groups such as illiterate women in a rural community considerable sensitivity should be shown in regard to meeting places and perhaps much of the actual learning may occur in people's homes. For a society in transition from agriculture to industry the venue may be the meeting hall of the village management committee. And so on.

For further details of these aspects, please see chapter Five (ATLF-CE Volume VIII).

b) Education and Training

The central function of Learning Centres, therefore, is to provide education and training programmes from basic levels to advanced knowledge and skills according to the needs of their clientele. These needs will be different in different socio-economic and cultural situations.

Clients may be individuals seeking specific skills, or families needing support services and income-generating programmes. Clients could be organizations or busi-

nesses or institutions seeking organizational renewal programmes with a special focus on preparing for the future. Clients could also be employers seeking to upgrade the qualifications and skills of their staff. Moreover, education and training programmes of learning centres may be used by Gos and NGOs for empowerment of disadvantaged groups such as minorities, women or street children. Whomever the clients may be, the success of programmes depends to a large extent on the accurate diagnosis of clients' requirements, well-developed teaching materials and appropriate instructional approaches.

The characteristics of effective programmes are discussed in chapter Four (ATLP-CE Volume VIII).

c) General Community Activities

A Learning Centre should be concerned with promoting and facilitating various community activities in order to contribute to local social and economic well-being and to solidarity and harmony among the people of a community.

By being an organizer or facilitator and venue for various meetings, gatherings, sports, cultural activities and so on, a learning Centre becomes an integral and inseparable part of the community. It is through these activities that community solidarity and belongingness are fostered, participation in management of community is tapped.

d) Community Development

Since the ultimate purpose of Learning Centre is to promote human development, especially at personal and community levels, it is important that its functions and activities be designed to contribute to such development, either directly or indirectly. Some Centres may themselves initiate community development projects by means of Quality of Life Improvement CE programmes (QLIPs). Others may provide the necessary training required by development projects initiated by others as they are implemented. Whatever its activities, however, promoters and managers of a Learning Centre need to be aware of local community developmental needs and trends and provide services which correlate with and support them.

Steps of Establishing and Strengthening Learning Centres

Step	Activity	Output
1.	The promoter discusses with community leaders, school teachers, village head person, religious priests, extension workers, and and NGO personnel the importance of establishing a learning centre in the community or the need for strengthening any existing learning centre.	Community awareness of importance of a Learning Centre
2.	The promoter organizes a meeting of selected community representatives to discuss strengths and weaknesses and problems of the community and possible solutions to address local problems.	Identification of strength and weakness in community.
3.	Promoter announces establishment of Learning Centre to assist in solving local problems.	Announcement of establishment of the Learning Centre or an upgrading programme for an existing centre.
4.	Promoter forms a nucleus community group for organizing the Learning Centre.	
5.	The nucleus group conducts a household survey to identify potential learners, resources and learning needs.	List of needs and resources.
6.	The nucleus group sets up a governing committee for the Learning Centre.	Appointment of governing Committee
7.	The Learning Centre committee (LCC) decides policy, selects strategies, and plans the learning programmes.	Programme planned.

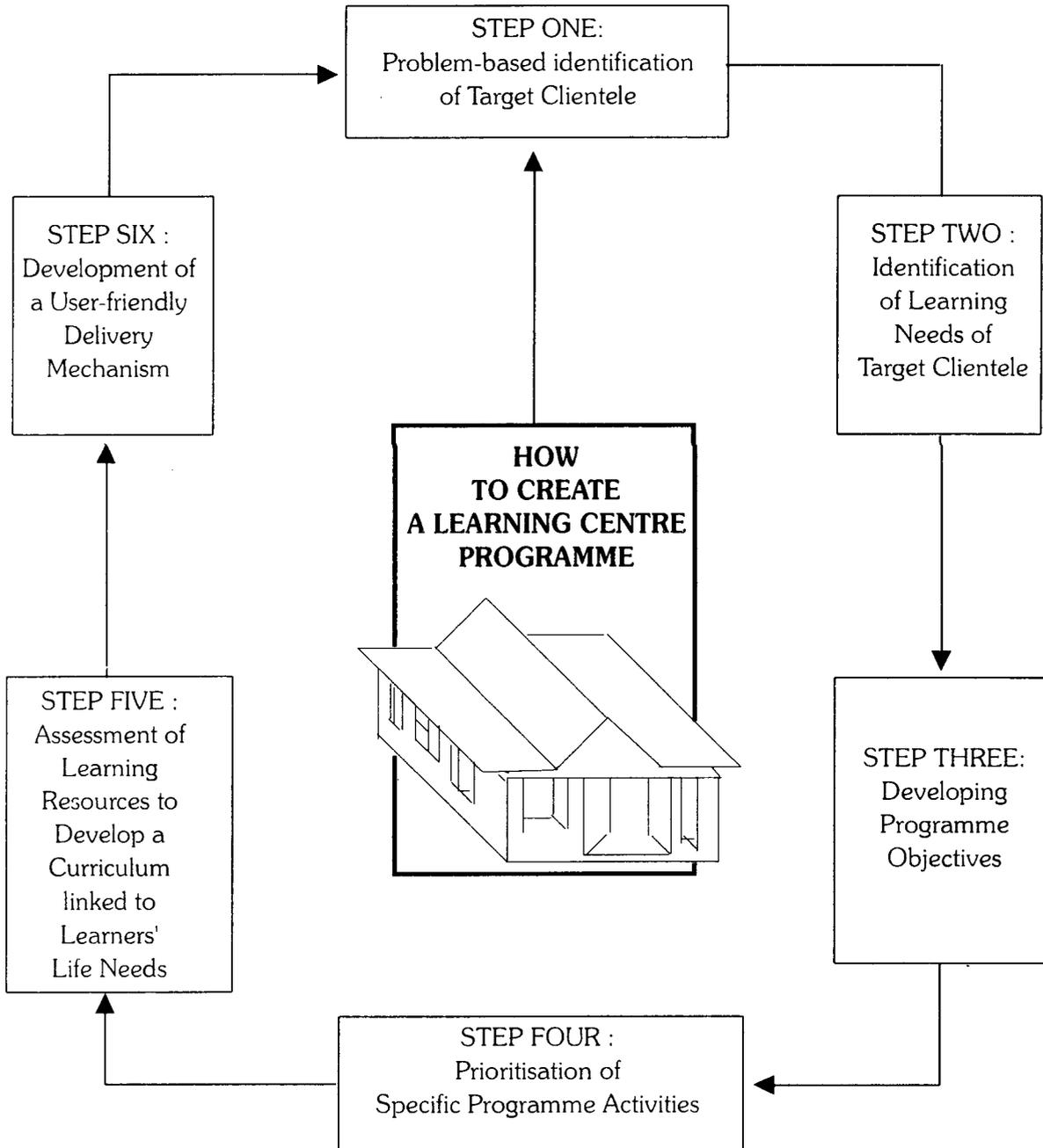
Step	Activity	Output
8.	The LCC appoints an organizer in-charge of the Learning Centres.	Appointment of Organizer to run Learning Centre
9.	Support staff appointed.	Staff appointed
10.	The promoter organizes an Orientation programme for Learning Centre members on their role and responsibilities.	orientation of the LCC and staff
11.	The promoter arranges to train the organizer on his/her functions.	Organizers trained
12.	Organizer of Learning Centre trains volunteer instructors/facilitators or arranges for this training.	Personnel trained.
13.	Volunteers/instructors/facilitators, implement the programme.	Programme implemented.

It is vitally important that at all stages of this process the community is fully involved and that they come to accept that they "own" and "control" the Centre. A public awareness campaign should run continuously from step. 1 through to step 13 making maximum use of the mass media and informal communication methods.

G. Organizational Infrastructure

Setting up a single community based Learning Centre in isolation is unlikely to make any significant impact on the development of a country. It must be part of a network of such Centres linked to other types of development agencies (see Chapter Six). In order to harness resources of larger administrative, social and political instrumentalities at local, provincial and is needed at each level. If an infrastructure already exists for continuing education of the type recommended in ATLP-CE Volume I then the resource centres suggested here could be part of that infrastructure. In any event some such multi level support is needed. This idea is illustrated in as follow :

The six steps in determining the overall Programme of Learning Centre



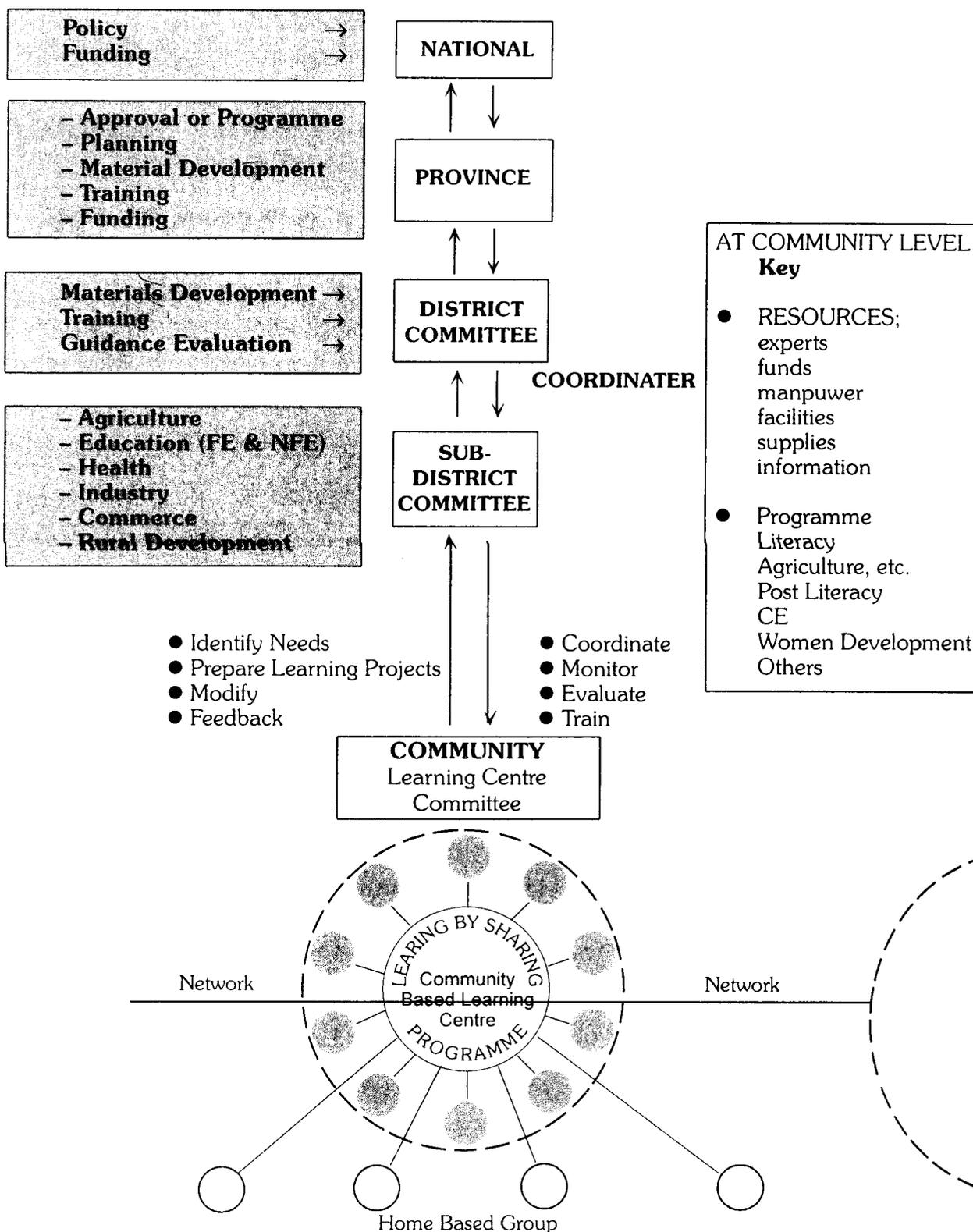
How to Develop Learning Programme for Learning Centres

Learning Centres have to prepare learning activities according to the needs and aspiration of the community where it is located. ATLP-CE Volume VIII has explained how different programmes could be developed for the following five exemplar situations :

The five Exemplar Development Situations Discussed
Throughout this Volume

1. Social groups at the level of survival.
2. Underprivileged social groups.
3. Rural development situations.
4. A society in transition from agriculture to industry.
5. An affluent urban community in an industrialized society.

Generally there are six steps in developing the programmes. They are illustrated by the figure as follow :



An organizational infrastructure in the support of Learning Centres

PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT OF CONTINUING EDUCATION

a) Need for Coordinated Planning

While many of the planning principle and methods described for Literacy Programmes are relevant to Continuing Education as well, there are some important differences. At various levels the same personnel may be responsible for both literacy and Continuing Education. However, they will have to use different techniques for planning and for implementation.

In planning for literacy it is possible to make fairly accurate predictions of need. It is then possible to calculate the resources necessary over some period of time and proceed with the literacy programmes if funds are accountable. In contrast the needs for continuing education are quite unpredictable. We know only knowledge and skills. This further complicates. We know only that all people have changing and perhaps ever increasing needs for knowledge and skills. This is further complicated by the fact that many government, community and non-governmental agencies are involved in the provision of continuing education programme. It is usually not possible to either predict needs accurately or to control the programmes satisfying those needs. However, this should not be an excuse for inadequate planning. Rather it only highlights the complexity involved and the need to systematize the planning process adopting appropriate strategies.

It should be recognized at the outset that with literacy it is possible to make plans in a fairly centralized fashion as in most cases government agencies are in control of the programmes including the resources. In continuing education the resources are often

already in the hands of other government and non-government organizations. The role of the Continuing Education Planner will be to develop plans obtaining the co-operation of these organizations. Therefore, planning for continuing education at all levels, from national to local, demands a participatory and democratic approach. The task essentially begins with initiating suitable co-ordination mechanisms at various levels, each having well defined roles and responsibilities. The overall scheme for the coordination mechanism for continuing education can be as shown in diagrammatically (see figure on next page).

(i) National co-ordination Structure. Planning at the national level may be coordinated by a National Co-ordinating Committee for Continuing Education (NCCCE). Such a committee should consist of representatives of various participating agencies including the government organizations together with some representatives of learner groups and planning experts in continuing education. The Department of Non-Formal Education on Adult Education of the Education Ministry may function as the Secretariat of the NCCE, which will carry out the detailed work of data collection, diagnosis and plan formulation. The National co-ordination Committee would have links with and receive technical support from several other structures operating at the national level. These would include such organizations as The National Planning Authority, Research and Development Centres, Data Banks, Employment Survey and Register Organizations, Commission for the Future, and International Networks. The specific roles and responsibilities of the NCCCE will vary from one country to another depending on the politico-administrative set up.

(ii) Provincial Level Co-ordination. Between the National Level Co-ordination Committee and the local level there will usually be need for one or more levels of co-ordination. These may be provincial, regional, or district levels. At each of these levels it is recommended that a co-ordination committee for Continuing Education be established. The Links between National and Provincial Co-ordination committee for Cointinuing Education be established. The links between National and Provincial Co-ordination Committees will need to be thought out carefully if they are to work in harmony. The specific functions of the Committee at this level will have to be worked out keeping in view the vastness of the country and the scope as well as variety of the continuing education programme being initiated. In fact, in certain large countries, the provincial structure will play a major role in identifying the local specific needs of the

communities, designing need based programmes and preparing necessary curricular inputs. Obviously, in order to effectively implement these tasks there would be need to create suitable technical support structures at the state/provincial level. These support structures can work commonly for literacy and continuing education programmes.

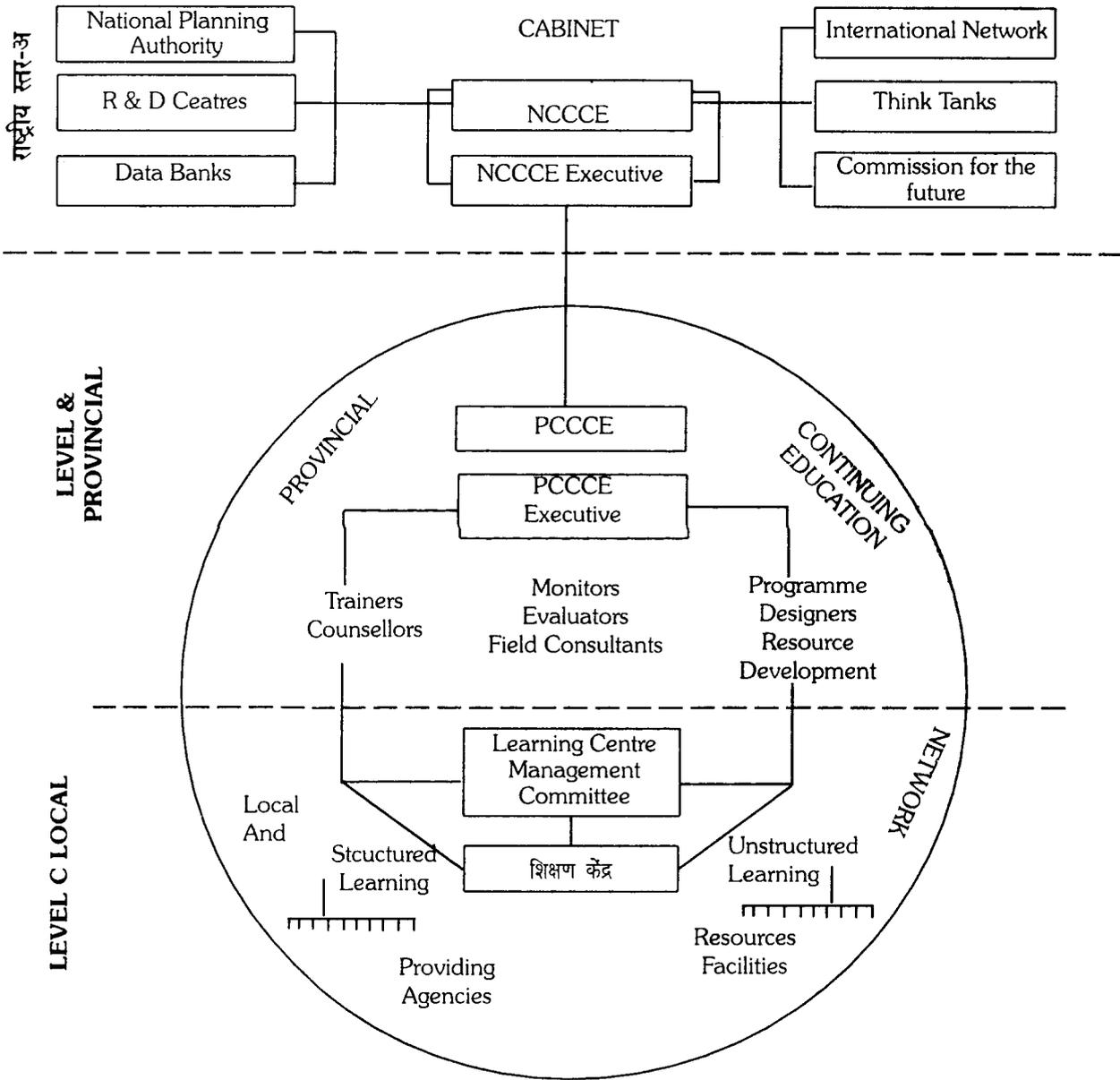
(iii) Local Level Co-ordination. The structures that exist at local levels to provide and coordinate continuing education need to form networks among themselves and draw support from each other. This is necessary in order to avoid duplication of effort and optimal utilization of resources. These network representatives would constitute the local co-ordination committee along with some representatives from the state/provincial committee and village level Learning Centre Management Committees, and such professionals as field consultants, programme developers and trainers.

b) The Macro-level Planning Process for Continuing Education

Continuing Education will be required in increasing amounts as the population of most countries in the region grows and the numbers of literate persons increase. The concepts of a "learning society" and "life-long learning" imply that the demand for continuing education will never be fully satisfied. The basic approach therefore will be to have an on-going provision of continuing education.

Planning will need to have basic diagnostic information about the states of basic education in various parts of their country, including details of the distribution of minority and ethnic groups for whom special help may be needed. Particularly, detailed information on the numbers who complete literacy programmes or primary schooling along with those who drop out of the system with or without completing the first cycle of education is essential. Based on such analysis the national plan with specific targets may be drawn indicating the creation of different types of continuing education structures such as reading centres, learning centres, centres for specialized skill development and libraries. Since some continuing education programmes are going on at least through voluntary efforts in all the countries, it is necessary to make an assessment of the extent of coverage achieved through the on-going programmes, the types of programmes being organized, categories of targets groups being reached and the agencies involved in organizing the programmes. As has been noted earlier collection of accurate information with respect to continuing education programmes at the national level is a

Overall Scheme for Co-ordination of Continuing Education



NCCE - National Co-ordinator Committee for Continuing Education
PCCCE - Provincial Co-ordinating Committee for Continuing Education
Source : Continuing Education, ATLP-CE, UNESCO/PROAP, Bangkok, 1990

difficult job. However, some broad sets of information become essential for making policy decisions regarding resource allocation, types of courses and agencies to be supported, number of potential aspirants for different categories of programmes and so on. Some countries periodically collect some data in this regard.

In considering provision of continuing education on a national basis it will be helpful to classify the programmes into different categories for deciding the weightage to be given to each one of them in a need based manner. Based on the kinds of programmes being organized in different countries of the Asia-Pacific Region, six categories of continuing education programmes have been identified by APPEAL. These are :

- Post Literacy Programmes (PLPs)
- Equivalency Programmes (EPs)
- Income Generating Programmes (IGPs)
- Quality of Life Improvement Programmes (QLIPs)
- Individual Interest Promotion Programmes (IIPs)
- Future Oriented Continuing Education Programmes (FOPs)

In general, the policy may be to have equality of opportunity in accessing continuing education. However, it is quite likely that some groups would have particular needs or are likely to miss out unless special attention is paid to them. For instance, these may include :

- 1 Industrial workers
- 1 Small and marginal farmers
- 1 Women
- 1 Rural youth
- 1 Ethnic minorities
- 1 Low income families
- 1 Urban poor
- 1 Nomadic tribes

Protecting the interests of these groups and arranging for their continuing

education in a need specific manner becomes an important task of the national planning process. Once such an assessment of the situation is done the tasks will be to identify suitable agencies which can design and implement suitable programmes at the local level, and then to assign them specific responsibilities as well as deciding on the resources support to be extended to them for this purpose.

The formal education programmes are designed with a common curriculum generally across the whole country or at least at the state or provincial level. This makes the process of evaluation and certification of learners a relatively standardized task. In contrast, continuing education programmes constitute a conglomerate of courses varying in content and nature of treatment depending on the needs identified and the potential for absorption in the work force. One cannot even assume any long term stability for the curriculum developed for a particular continuing education course as the demands for the types of skills may change and therefore the learning inputs will have to be suitably remoulded. The national level planning and coordination body will have to carefully tackle this task by creating an appropriate accreditation mechanism for setting the norms and procedures for evaluating and certifying the learners by local level organizers, especially in the case of courses within Equivalency Programmes.

c) The Micro-level Planning Process for Continuing Education

Since the target groups for continuing education are those who have already completed basic education through formal or non-formal channels, as far as possible the people in the community should themselves be involved in identifying their learning needs and seeking educational answers to the problems they have identified. This will insure that the greatest needs are identified and people are committed to adopting the knowledge and skills they acquire through the continuing education programmes.

In carrying out local needs analyses the local planners should be particularly aware of national and provincial plans including the target groups and priorities identified in those plans. However, these higher level plans should not override important local needs that are identified.

Local level planners will have to specially deal with four major tasks. Having identified the perceived as well as actual needs of the learners and matching them with the priorities identified at national and provincial level, the local planning tasks will be to generate relevant learning inputs which are tailor made for the specific programmes.

While state level or national level resource centres may provide the prototypes for the learning materials, it is for the local level planners to arrange for their suitable adaptation to local conditions. The second task is to identify qualified personnel who can translate the curriculum under different programmes in an effective manner. Since this will have to be done in a decentralized manner, the role of the local level coordination mechanism becomes crucial. The third task of the local level planner is to insure that the graduates from the continuing education centres use the knowledge and skills acquired by them in practical life. This may involve creation of interlinkages with industries and other organizations where the demand for the learning experiences provided really exists. The fourth task which is closely related to the third one is to organize for proper evaluation and certification of learners who undergo various continuing education courses especially Equivalency Programmes. This task is very vital and may to be closely monitored according to the norms specified at provincial and national levels.

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