The Evolution and Impact of Literacy Campaigns and Programmes 2000–2014

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IMPRINT

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FOREWORD

This is the first in a new UIL publication series comprising extended peer-reviewed research papers. Our aim in launching this series is to provide an additional platform for research that supports UNESCO's educational goals, and more specifically the mandate of this Institute: lifelong learning with a focus on adult and continuing education, literacy and non-formal basic education.

The current study was commissioned by UNESCO in 2014 as a background paper for the 2015 Education for All Global Monitoring Report, specifically to inform the chapter on adult literacy. I decided to make this analysis of major literacy campaigns and programmes available to a broader range of stakeholders and readers as the first title in the new UIL Research Series.

Literacy campaigns were a common strategy applied in the 1970s and 1980s to mobilize people and resources on a large scale. This approach had become less popular by the end of the last century, but the past decade has seen a resurgence. In many cases literacy campaigns have succeeded in creating fresh momentum to mobilize political will, resources and people. This paper analyses adult literacy campaigns and programmes worldwide from 2000 to 2014 based on ten key indicators of success. In addition, four case studies of major literacy campaigns – in Brazil, India, South Africa and Indonesia – expand on global trends in greater depth, particularly in terms of features, challenges, success factors and results.

Many campaigns have raised inflated expectations of improved literacy rates. However, the findings of this analysis paint a more nuanced picture, indicating both progress and setbacks in achieving sustainable literacy through access to basic and continuing education within lifelong learning systems. The continuity of learning processes for newly literates and the integration of short-duration campaigns into national learning systems remain major concerns.

This paper concludes with several recommendations for policymakers. These include linking large-scale literacy campaigns to processes of social change and development, supporting participation in adult literacy programmes through literate environments and opportunities for further learning, more systematic use of ICT to expand coverage of literacy programmes, and improved availability, reliability and comparability of literacy data to facilitate improved planning and a more targeted approach.

It is my hope that this publication will not only contribute to increased awareness of the complexity of designing successful literacy campaigns and programmes, but also to a broader debate on effective strategies to advance literacy within the post-2015 education agenda.

I wish to take this opportunity to thank Christine Glanz and Alexander Grossklags for the support they provided in the research process for this book.

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1. ABSTRACT

The paper analyses the status and characteristics of adult literacy campaigns and programmes since 2000. Global trends are analysed in terms of the ten key aspects of the suggested framework for successful literacy campaigns and programmes. Four case studies on major literacy campaigns in Brazil, India, South Africa and Indonesia are used to expand on these global trends in greater depth, particularly with regard to their specific features, challenges, success factors and results. While campaigns have created fresh momentum to mobilize for literacy, most large-scale campaigns have set overly ambitious targets and underestimated the complexity of the task. The continuity of learning processes for newly literates and the integration of short-duration campaigns into national learning systems are major concerns. Future strategy should promote literacy as part of lifelong learning after 2015.

2. INTRODUCTION

The use of campaigns to mobilize people and resources on a large scale in order to achieve ambitious objectives within a limited period of time is a long-established practice. H. S. Bhola traces literacy campaigns back to the Protestant Reformation in Europe in the early 1500s (Bhola, 1997). Often enough, literacy campaigns supported social, economic, cultural and political reform or transformation. However, they have also been linked to existing power structures, contributing either to their consolidation or change.

The effectiveness of large-scale adult literacy campaigns in raising literacy rates has varied considerably. The campaign approach has been criticized as 'too often run without full preparation, too brief to make any real change in the lives of communities, without follow-up for further education or for transition to work, and ephemeral, with no institutionalization of the effort' (Bhola, 1997, p. 27). A review of major literacy campaigns in the past century, such as those run in the USSR (1919–39), Thailand (1942–1945; 1983–1987), Vietnam (1945–1958; 1976–78), China (1950s–1980s), Cuba (1961), Burma/Myanmar (1960s–1980s), Israel (1964–1976), Brazil (1967–1980), Tanzania (1971–1981), the Philippines (1971–1972), Somalia (1974–1975), Mozambique (1978–1983), Ethiopia (1979–1989), Nicaragua (1980), Zimbabwe (1983–1987), Eritrea (1983–1987) and Ecuador (1988–1989), teaches important lessons and shows that it is impossible simply to characterize all literacy campaigns as successes or failures. Both short-term and sustained mass literacy campaigns follow a common political approach of commitment and mobilization. Political will, organizational structure, proper planning, adequate financial support, volunteerism and a smooth transition into longer-term advanced literacy programmes can be identified as key success factors.

In the 1970s and 80s, mass adult literacy campaigns were commonly initiated by governments, often taking the lead following liberation wars with a revolutionary or decolonizing agenda (Bhola, 1984; Bhola, 1997; Bhola, 1999; Arnove and Graff, 1987; Lind, A. and Johnston, A., 1990). During the 1990s, however, the mass campaign approach became less popular,[1] particularly due to a narrow interpretation of the Education for All (EFA) agenda and the mistaken belief that enrolment in primary education was a sufficient indicator of educational progress and literacy achievement (Lind, 2008). Boughton believes that the 'new literacies' studies led by Brian Street also contributed to an abandonment of the mass campaign approach (Boughton, 2010).[2] Alan Rogers, belonging to the same school, concludes that campaigns to promote adult literacy have almost everywhere been a failure: 'increases in national statistics are almost certainly the result of increased primary schooling, not adult literacy campaigns' (Rogers, 2003, p. 52).[3] According to Agneta Lind, it is 'mostly a mistake to make claims that adult literacy campaigns or programmes themselves have caused a registered increase in the national literacy rate of a certain country' (Lind, 2008, p. 29). The latest available figures seem to confirm the conclusion that, despite numerous efforts to address the literacy challenge with large-scale campaigns and programmes, overall progress has been extremely slow: since 2000 the number of illiterate adults has fallen by just 1% (UNESCO, 2014).

While there are serious challenges in how literacy is defined and measured (UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, 2013), the limited impact of major campaigns and programmes on literacy rates is quite discouraging. Nevertheless, in the last ten years we can observe an increasing tendency for governments in many countries to launch literacy campaigns as national mobilization strategies with the aim of 'eradicating' illiteracy once and for all or improving the general educational levels of the population.[4] Is the return of the mass literacy campaign and large-scale adult literacy programme in the twenty-first

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[1] Bhola nevertheless mentions two important literacy initiatives during the 1990s: the Total Literacy-Universal Elementary Education Campaign of India, and South Africa's Adult Basic Education and Training initiative, which was launched in 1996 (Bhola, 1999).

[2] While the 'new literacy' studies helped to problematize a number of features of mass campaigns, ironically the main target of the 'new literacies' scholarship was not in fact the mass campaign itself, but rather the human capital-driven theories of neoliberalism, in which literacy was assigned the instrumental role of advancing economic development (Boughton, 2010).

[3] Wagner also states that nearly all educational progress made over the past half-century was achieved through the expansion of access to primary schooling rather than through adult literacy programmes (Wagner, 2013).

[4] The use of the term 'eradicate' in relation to illiteracy is highly problematic. Apart from the analogy with health issues (eradication of smallpox, for example) it suggests that the problem of illiteracy can be solved with a quick operation. However, this approach overlooks the challenge of continuously improving skills levels.

century an indicator that the EFA movement, the United Nations Literacy Decade, and initiatives such as UNESCO's Literacy Initiative for Empowerment (LIFE), the Ibero-American Plan for Literacy and Basic Education for Youth and Adults (PIA) and Cuba's Yo Sí Puedo campaign model have managed to mobilize political will?

This paper seeks to analyse the status and characteristics of adult literacy campaigns and programmes implemented between 2000 and 2014. Furthermore, it examines how these campaigns and programmes have evolved over the years, what has driven these changes, to what extent they have been successful in raising adult literacy rates, and the implications for addressing challenges related to a post-2015 education agenda.

A WORD ON LITERACY DATA AND RATES

While substantial progress has been reported towards meeting EFA Goal 4 (UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, 2013), serious questions remain about the reliability of literacy data annually reported by UNESCO Member States to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS). 'UNESCO continues to publish comparative statistics that few experts take seriously as reliable data' (Wagner, 2013, p. 24; Wagner, 2008). Most countries continue to use traditional methods such as population censuses, household surveys and educational attainment to estimate literacy rates, which are still based on the dichotomous approach of classifying a person as either literate or illiterate. With the Belém Framework for Action, Member States endorsed an approach that conceives of literacy as a continuum (UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, 2010, p. 6), meaning that there is no definite line between 'literate' and 'non-literate'. Most current statistics, however, are still guided by the dichotomous approach.

This has serious policy implications, starting with potentially misleading discourse on the target of 'eradicating' illiteracy. While the generation of reliable and comparable literacy data – ideally using the method of direct measurement (testing) – is indispensable for evidence-based policy-making, literacy policy should focus primarily on raising literacy skills levels and developing literacy as part of a broader set of basic key competencies. In any case, analysis of progress based on literacy data expressed as numbers and rates can only have a referential value. Without determining specific levels of reading and writing skills in the context of how these skills are used, it is difficult to establish and meet learners' needs. Furthermore, while 'illiteracy rates' are declining, absolute numbers of adults reported as being unable to read or write have increased in a number of countries, mainly in sub-Saharan Africa. This is mainly due to population growth (UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, 2013).

3. FRAMEWORK FOR ASSESSING ADULT LITERACY CAMPAIGNS AND PROGRAMMES

In order to assess the evolution and impact of literacy campaigns and programmes, it is necessary to develop an analytical framework that allows us to identify the features that determine whether a particular adult literacy campaign or programme is more or less effective. It is also necessary to seek conceptual clarification. H. S. Bhola, who has worked extensively on the topic of literacy campaigns,[5] has made an attempt to distinguish a 'campaign approach' from a 'programme approach' to literacy.

A campaign is usually conducted by governments and involves a series of intense, well-organized activities or interventions that are aimed at massive reduction of illiteracy. Campaigns are usually national or regional in scope, though sometimes they can be more localized. Implemented within a fixed time-frame, a campaign normally runs for a relatively short period. It is characterized by a sense of urgency and fervour and a spirit of expedition or crusade, and it takes place in an environment of emergence, change, awareness and commitment. In other words, it has a mass character and is often linked to a socio-political movement. It involves a considerable mobilization of resources (human, financial and material) and of people to engage in teaching and learning literacy. Teaching is often volunteer-based. Justifications for mobilizing societies for mass literacy campaigns are usually rights-based, often seeking to redress social injustice.

Justifications may also be ideological and political (following political and structural changes, revolutionary conditions, building new societies, nation-building following independence and war or conflict), economic (increasing productivity), or cultural and educational (literacy as a precondition for participation in a new social order and for empowerment of previously excluded and marginalized population groups) (Bhola, 1984; 1997; 1999).

A programme approach is more selective in nature and tends to develop institutional-organizational structures. It has an intensive focus on particular communities, population groups, gender groups or economic sectors, and is usually part of a national development plan. Literacy programmes may also be well organized and have a clear focus on specific objectives. Like mass campaigns, they can be both large-scale and time-bound. However, programmes lack the urgency and mass appeal of literacy campaigns. While a campaign is politically 'hot', a programme is politically 'cool'. It is merely one of the many 'most important tasks' on a nation's to-do list. Campaigns are

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[5] UNESCO commissioned a study by H. S. Bhola on campaigns, which was discussed at an international seminar on Campaigning for Literacy in 1982.

typically associated with revolutions, while programmes are associated with 'reformist societies' engaged in planned developmental change (Bhola, 1984, 1997, 1999).

According to John Oxenham, the difference between the campaign and programme approaches is 'one of style'. While the campaign strategy treats illiteracy 'as a blight that requires drastic and dramatic action for its eradication' and recognizes that literacy needs to be promoted, reinforced and sustained, the programme strategy 'sets aside the principle of artificially arousing enthusiasm and moral fervour'. Instead, because of the long-term nature of learning, 'it adopts quieter measures of discussion, support, encouragement and steady expansion' (all quotations Oxenham, 2008, pp. 60-61).

H. S. Bhola draws the conclusion that a clear-cut distinction between the campaign and programme models is not possible: 'In the real world, things are quite mixed up' (Bhola, 1999, p. 289). Literacy campaigns can subsume literacy programmes, and large-scale programmes can contain features associated with campaigns, such as mobilizing strategies. The case of the National Literacy Mission (NLM) launched in 1988 by the Government of India is used by Bhola to show that both categories are part and parcel of the same structure. In this initiative, a multiplicity of district-level, community-led literacy 'micro-campaigns' were implemented under the umbrella of a national-scale programme. What was begun as a campaign could taper off into a programme, as in Zimbabwe in the early 1990s. On the other hand, South Africa's Ithuteng Initiative started as a programme and was planned to escalate into a campaign when ready (Bhola, 1997).

Bhola predicts that campaign-style strategies of mobilization will be used more and more in social and educational marketing. However, the mobilization strategies associated with campaigns will be joined with institutional-organizational structures and arrangements associated with programmes. 'Policy-makers will seek to build fully functional delivery systems that are professionally solid and administratively effective' to ensure sustainability and a sense of continuity of literacy initiatives (Bhola, 1999, p. 292). Further developments during the past fifteen years prove that he was partly right in his predictions. However, there are also cases that point to the opposite conclusion.

At present, policy discourse and official documents reveal a broad range of terms used in different countries for major literacy interventions, often interchangeably. These include 'campaign', 'programme', 'initiative', 'movement' and 'mission'. The *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2006 (Literacy for Life)* uses the term 'mobilization for mass literacy' and distinguishes between two types of mobilization: sustained literacy campaigns over several years, and short-term or one-off literacy campaigns (UNESCO, 2005, p. 196). Respected literacy specialists such as Agneta Lind use the combined term 'adult literacy campaigns or programmes' when referring to large-scale government-led national initiatives, regardless of whether they are short one-off or longer-term intensive interventions. She observes a trend of growing convergence of literacy approaches (Lind, 2008).

What is essential to carry out a national literacy campaign or programme successfully? Thirty years ago, H. S. Bhola (1984) developed a series of sub-systems which must

be addressed in order to effectively implement a fully functioning literacy campaign. These sub-systems are interdependent, with overlapping responsibilities, and relate to eight objectives: a) policy and planning, b) administrative and logistical delivery, c) social mobilization, d) curriculum and materials development, e) teaching-learning, f) training, and g) monitoring and evaluation. Thirty years later, these are still relevant.

A workshop on literacy campaigns held at the Fifth International Conference on Adult Education (CONFINTEA V) in Hamburg in 1997 came up with a list of factors identified as crucial for the achievement of large-scale adult literacy results (UNESCO Institute for Education, 1999). However, upscaling to reach more adult learners and to significantly increase the numbers of literates is a complex task, facing multiple challenges which go beyond the education sector. 'More of the same will not do. A major challenge will be to scale-up while encouraging diversity, requiring a balance between central guidance, decentralized implementation, and community ownership' (Lind, 2008, p. 124).

Strong political will by the state as the prime mover (but not the sole actor) and national commitment to scaling up literacy efforts represent a key success factor. This includes a political vision that puts the individual with his or her needs and rights at the centre of national concerns (supported by humanistic, egalitarian or democratic ideals). Political will has to be manifest in reasonable budget allocations and resources for adult literacy. Without scaling up funding it is not possible to go to scale with literacy provision. This includes sustained investment in the development of human resources and institutional and organizational capacity.

A favourable development context is also required to succeed with national literacy campaigns or programmes. Holistic, comprehensive and inclusive education and language policies will help to focus more on quality and learning outcomes in both formal and non-formal education ('multiple strategy'). The development of learning environments encouraging the meaningful use of literacy skills ('literate environments') is a prerequisite for successfully going to scale with literacy. Related efforts have to be geared towards the development of literate families, communities and societies. This requires supportive policies and legislative measures beyond literacy and adult education. Large-scale literacy campaigns or programmes need to be planned strategically and operationally and need to build on available resources and experience. A strategic or operational plan should include objectives and targets, organizational frameworks and institutional arrangements for implementation, monitoring and evaluation, and modalities of advocacy and mobilization to sustain commitment and community support.

These literacy policies should be informed by a broad concept of literacy that goes beyond the instrumentalist approach of skills for work. It should be linked to adult learners' life realities, but should not be purely economically driven. It should also include social, political and cultural aspects and address the diversity of learners' needs and aspirations. A successful approach to large-scale literacy interventions requires

follow-up efforts ('post-literacy') following the acquisition of basic reading, writing and numeracy skills. This includes the development of a sustainable and adequately equipped institutional framework that provides further learning opportunities, including those that are equivalent to formal education, and mechanisms of recognition, validation and accreditation of prior learning leading to recognized certificates. A non-formal or adult education sub-system articulated horizontally and vertically within the education system seems to be the most promising approach to motivate learners to take up and create lifelong learning pathways.

The government must take the lead in developing a national consensus for literacy and articulating strong partnerships and coalitions leading to committed action. Collaborative involvement of a wide range of governmental and non-governmental institutions and services is crucial for nationwide mobilization for literacy. Consequently, the ability to mobilize the necessary resources and people and to achieve the sustained participation of potential adult learners is an indicator of successful literacy campaigns or programmes. This needs to be supported by central coordination of all stakeholders and actors, good publicity and mass media use by professional communicators to raise awareness, and sustainable institutional capacity. Lind highlights the importance of advocacy, social mobilization and commitment at all levels (Lind, 2008).

Good governance facilitates the implementation of literacy campaigns and programmes in ways which are effective, transparent, accountable and equitable. Good management and logistics, transparent financial management systems and effective technical support, as well as the organizational capacity to deliver good quality teaching and learning, are crucial for successful literacy campaigns or programmes. However, institutionalization should not lead to an 'overly bureaucratized' delivery of literacy activities, 'as in some cases where mass campaigns have tended to dwindle and continue merely as a normal top-down ministerial duty, without any sense of urgency or community participation' (Lind, 2008, p. 128).

According to Lind, the most critical issue for scaling up is the choice of facilitators and how they are selected, motivated, trained, supported and paid. Institutional arrangements for pre-service and in-service training, as well as for continuous pedagogical support, are required. Some of the key programme design factors include meeting the diversity of motivations and aspirations among the learners, careful choice of languages of instruction, provision of access to information through media and ICTs, attention to literacy across the curriculum, relevant content and skills, graded teaching-learning materials, participatory learner-centred teaching methods, mainstreamed gender equality, and flexible time, place and duration of instruction (Lind, 2008).

This long – but in no way exhaustive – list of important success factors shows that the initiation of large-scale literacy campaigns and programmes is a highly complex endeavour. Figure 1 attempts to render this complexity in visual form and to set a standard by taking into account the various dimensions (or domains) of organizing

successful literacy campaigns and programmes on a large scale. The different elements, contexts, circumstances, systems, measures and resources are grouped around the learner in three domains representing the teaching-learning process, the enabling support structures and the contextual dimension which shapes the broader learning environment.

Building on this framework, the analysis of the global trends and key factors driving national literacy campaigns and programmes will focus on the following main aspects:

1) Duration, intensity and number of non-literate adults targeted by the campaign or programme ('outreach')
2) Main funding sources, annual and/or overall cost of the campaign or programme, and cost per learner
3) Supporting policies and/or legislative measures and strategic or operational plan
4) Social mobilization/campaigning/advocacy, philosophy/ideology, link to social-political movement/community ownership and control of the campaign or programme
5) Partnerships, collaboration schemes, cooperation agreements, governance and management structure (in decentralized systems), logistics (availability and delivery of materials) and accountability
6) Inclusiveness of the campaign or programme: gender equality, access to learning sites, identification and removal of barriers to participation for special groups such as disabled people, women, youth, rural populations, inmates, people living in post-conflict contexts, etc.
7) Recruitment, payment and training of educators (volunteers, supervision, pedagogical support)
8) Pedagogical aspects (content and quality of materials, methodology, languages of instruction, assessment tools and system)
9) Monitoring and evaluation system, reporting impact and results, retention and pass rates
10) Continuity of learning opportunities ('post-literacy', adult basic education, equivalence), system development and institutionalization, recognized certificates

1* Political will and support

Policies and strategies

Mobilization of funds

2* Management structure and operational plan

Social-political movement

Decentralized governance

Community support

Philosophy

3*

Recruitment of educators

Curriculum

Media campaigns

Partnerships

Mobilization and retention

Learning materials

Gender sensitivity

Equivalency

Benefits of literacy (incentives)

Training and supervision

Equity and diversity

4*

Assessment tools

Development and delivery of materials

Enabling context and literate environments

Inclusiveness

Motivation

Special needs

Language approach

Establishment and equipment of learning sites

Teaching-learning methodology

ICT

Reporting and databasing

Legislative measures

Community ownership

Continuity, further learning opportunities

Monitoring and evaluation system

Institutionalization and system development

Language policies

Public access to results (accountability, auditing)

1* Enabling Environment
2* Supporting structures
3* Teaching learning process
4* Learner

Figure 1: Framework towards successful literacy campaigns and programmes

Source: Author

4. GLOBAL TRENDS IN LITERACY CAMPAIGNS AND PROGRAMMES SINCE 2000 AND ANALYSIS OF SOME KEY NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL FACTORS BEHIND THEM

DELIMITATION OF SCOPE AND SELECTION CRITERIA

For the analysis of global trends we consider literacy campaigns and programmes:
> that were conducted between 2000 and 2013
> that have a nationwide coverage
> that pursue a mass approach (targeting the mass of the adult non-literate population)
> that are government-led

These selection criteria exclude three of the E-9 countries for different reasons.[6] China and Nigeria have decentralized implementation systems, and therefore no national campaigns or programmes. Nevertheless, China has issued an overall target – to reduce the adult illiteracy rate to below 6% by 2015 – and a strong policy framework, the Guidance Opinion on Further Enhancing Literacy, jointly issued by the Ministry of Education and eleven other government departments at the end of 2007, along with a series of measures and policies to promote literacy and reforms. However, the provinces, autonomous regions and municipalities are expected to formulate their own objectives and implement programmes tailored to the specific target groups (e.g. ethnic minorities) and contexts. In Nigeria, the mandate of the National Commission for Mass Literacy, Adult and Non-Formal Education (NMEC), which was established in the 1990s following a 10-year national mass literacy campaign, passed over to the thirty-six state agencies due to understaffing and underfunding. A decentralized governance scheme was introduced which includes decentralized budgetary allocations. In Bangladesh, the government plays a minor role in the implementation of adult literacy programmes. Although Bangladesh has had a National NFE Policy since 2006, short-term non-formal education projects, which depend heavily on external funding and mainly target children, adolescents and young people, predominate. Major literacy programmes are implemented by non-governmental organizations, mainly through community learning centres, but none of these cover the whole country.

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[6] The E9 is a forum of nine countries which was formed to achieve the Education For All (EFA) Goals. The E stands for education and the 9 stands for the following nine countries: Bangladesh, Brazil, China, Egypt, India, Indonesia, Mexico, Nigeria and Pakistan, which represent over half of the world's population and about 70% of the world's illiterate adults.

RENEWED INTEREST IN CAMPAIGN MODEL

In the 1990s the campaign approach seemed to have lost momentum. However, after 2000 it began to enjoy new popularity, particularly in Latin America and the Caribbean. The initiation of the Cuban Yo Sí Puedo ('Yes, I can') literacy campaign model in 2003, which subsequently spread to the African region and even to Asia and the Pacific[7], is one indicator of renewed interest in the campaign approach. Other large-scale literacy programmes also either continued into the twenty-first century or were initiated in the last ten years in all world regions. The closer the deadline of 2015 for reaching EFA Goals approaches, the more governments seem to feel the need to launch major literacy campaigns or programmes with ambitious goals and timelines. For example, in Bangladesh an operational plan approved in April 2010 by the Ministry of Primary and Mass Education (MOPNE) strives to reach 37 million illiterates in the 11–45 age group, with the aim of achieving EFA Goals 3 and 4 by 2015. Brazil set a benchmark in its National Education Plan 2010 to achieve literacy for 10 million young people and adults in five years. In Ethiopia, the Functional Adult Literacy Programme, a key strategy within the Master Plan developed in 2010 (Hanemann, 2012, p. 47) is intended to reach 36 million adults between 2011 and 2015. The Education Minister of Mexico recently announced a new 'crusade against illiteracy', starting in August 2014 with a duration of four years, to teach reading, writing and numeracy to 7.5 million of the 32 million adults who are functionally illiterate because they did not conclude primary or secondary education or lack the opportunity to practice their skills. The target is to reduce the adult illiteracy rate from the current 6.9% to 3.4%.[8]

IMPACT OF INTERNATIONAL AND REGIONAL FRAMEWORKS ON ACHIEVEMENTS IN LITERACY

Have international and regional frameworks and initiatives had any catalytic effect on this development? The implementation of the United Nations Literacy Decade (UNLD, 2003–2012), which supports achievement of the literacy goal of EFA, and the launch of UNESCO's Literacy Initiative for Empowerment (LIFE, 2006–2015), meant that there were major initiatives and frameworks in place during the past decade that aimed at renewed commitment to literacy. However, given that these initiatives were devised for flexible adaptation and interpretation at country level, it is not possible to directly

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[7] The Cuban government took a proactive approach by offering numerous countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America the Yo sí Puedo package (consisting of a literacy primer, manual, videos and Cuban consultants to establish the programme in the countries) as a form of South-South cooperation in response to the strongly felt negative social effects of neo-liberal education policies. Very little research work has been done on the Cuban cooperation and its impact on African, Asian and Latin American countries.

[8] Excelsior, 05.03.2014 http://www.excelsior.com.mx/nacional/2014/03/05/947147

attribute progress in terms of literacy rates to the implementation of these strategic frameworks. Both UNLD and LIFE were positively evaluated with regard to their mobilizing capacity to reinforce the national and international commitment to literacy (UNESCO, 2013; Hanemann, 2012).

THE IBERO-AMERICAN PLAN FOR LITERACY AND BASIC EDUCATION OF YOUTH AND ADULTS

The Ibero-American Plan for Literacy and Basic Education of Youth and Adults (PIA), approved in November 2006 during the XVI Ibero-American Summit in Montevideo, Uruguay, is a regional framework for Latin America. Led by the Organization of Iberoamerican States (OEI), seventeen Spanish- and Portuguese-speaking countries in Latin America plus Spain have joined the plan. The ambitious target is for 34 million illiterates and 110 million people who have not finished primary education to complete basic education in the period 2007–2015.[9] The PIA has pursued five specific objectives: a) development of national plans in the countries; b) establishment of a renewed and expanded concept of adult literacy and basic education in the region; c) secure, sufficient and stable funding for the PIA; d) promotion of cooperation; and e) linking the plan with strategies to prevent school failure and dropping out.

In 2013 an evaluation of PIA arrived at the conclusion that PIA is one of the great references on literacy in the region (OEI, 2013; Toledano Nieto, 2013). While in 2006 seven PIA countries had adult illiteracy rates greater than 10%, in 2010 only four of them (Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala and Honduras) still reported adult illiteracy rates above 10% (OEI, 2012, p. 2).[10] According to the OEI 2012 report, PIA has achieved a 13% reduction in the illiteracy rate, moving from 34 million illiterates to a total of around 29 million (OEI, 2012, p. 1).[11] This would mean that during the period 2006 to 2012 around 5 million adult illiterates were reached in the countries participating in PIA.

Taking data on adult literacy rates reported to UIS as a basis for analysis (see Table 1), progress between 2000 and 2011 in PIA countries seems to be rather modest: most countries only report increases of 1–2 percentage points, two countries (Chile and Venezuela) 3 percentage points, and one country (Guatemala) 4 percentage points. One country (Nicaragua) even records a decrease of 2 percentage points in its adult literacy rate despite having implemented a national literacy campaign (Campaña Nacional de Martí a Fidel, 2007–2009) and having declared itself a 'territory free of illiteracy' with an illiteracy rate of 4.73% in June 2009.[12]

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[9] http://www.oei.org.py/pia/ and http://www.oei.es/alfabetizacion_planesyproyectos.htm

[10] The three countries which have managed to decrease their illiteracy rates to below 10% are Bolivia, Brazil and Peru.

[11] http://www.cooperacioniberoamericana.org/es/node/90

[12] http://www.tercerainformacion.es/?Nicaragua-Territorio-libre-de

However, the more people are literate in a country, the more difficult it becomes to reach out to the remaining groups of non-literates. In addition, the PIA covers not only basic literacy, but also adult basic education. What makes the PIA particularly valuable is that it deals with literacy as part of basic education, and this in turn is part of a broader regional education initiative (Metas Educativas 2021) with a lifelong learning perspective.[13] While the PIA is a promising mechanism to promote South-South

Table 1: Progress in literacy rates in countries participating in the PIA

COUNTRY	LITERACY RATES 2000–2006			LITERACY RATES 2005–2008			LITERACY RATES 2005–2011		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Argentina	98	98	98	98	98	98	98	98	98
Bolivia	90	95	85	91	96	86	91	96	87
Brazil	90	89	90	90	90	90	90	90	91
Colombia	92	92	92	93	93	93	94	93	94
Costa Rica	96	96	96	96	96	96	96	96	96
Chile	96	96	96	99	99	99	99	99	98
Cuba	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Dom. Rep.	89	88	89	88	88	88	90	90	90
Ecuador	92	93	91	84	87	82	92	93	90
El Salvador	84	87	81	84	87	81	84	87	82
Guatemala	72	78	67	74	80	69	76	81	71
Honduras	83	82	83	84	84	83	85	85	85
Mexico	92	94	90	93	95	91	94	95	92
Nicaragua [14]	80	79	81	78	78	78	78	78	78
Paraguay	94	94	93	95	96	93	94	95	93
Peru	89	94	83	90	95	85	90	95	85
Uruguay	98	97	98	98	98	98	98	98	98
Venezuela	93	93	93	95	95	95	96	96	95

Sources: UIS data published in the EFA GMR 2009, 2011, 2013/14

[13] The regional programme 'Metas Educativas 2021: la educación que queremos para la generación de los Bicentenarios' (Educational Goals 2021: the education we want for the bicentennial generation) was adopted at the XX Summit of the Ibero-American Heads of States and Governments in 2010 (Mar del Plata). The seventh general goal is to offer all persons lifelong education opportunities. The PIA is seen as a contribution to the achievement of Metas Educativas 2021 (OEI, 2013).

[14] Contrary to the overall trend, in Nicaragua the literacy rates have decreased.

cooperation, and stakeholders particularly appreciate the flexibility of its implementation mechanisms, the external evaluation report also concludes that more efforts will be necessary to create synergies with other adult literacy and education actors in the region, as well as to mobilize additional funds for making the interventions sustainable (Toledano Nieto, 2013).

THE CUBAN YO SÍ PUEDO (YSP) LITERACY CAMPAIGN MODEL

The Cuban literacy campaign model was developed in 2001 at the Institute of Pedagogy for Latin America and the Caribbean (IPLAC), based in La Habana, Cuba, which holds a UNESCO Chair in Education Sciences. Initially it provided mass literacy programmes via radio, and later through audio-visual programmes delivered via television or DVD. Between 2003 and 2013, more than 7 million people in thirty countries – mainly in Latin America and the Caribbean and Sub-Saharan Africa, including Angola, Argentina, Australia, Bolivia, Colombia, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Guinea Bissau, Guinea Equatorial, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Mozambique, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Nigeria, Paraguay, Peru, Timor-Leste, Uruguay and Venezuela – are reported by IPLAC to have learned to read and to write using the Cuban literacy method Yo Sí Puedo.[15]

According to Enia Rosa Torres, an advisor to the Cuban Minister of Education, 5.8 million people have already learned to read and write using the 'Yo Sí Puedo' method (basic level), while 723,900 others have benefited from a similar Cuban methodology called Yo sí Puedo Seguir ('Yes, I Can Continue'), which builds on the basic level and allows the learner to complete the elementary level, which is equivalent to primary education. The Yo Sí Puedo method has fourteen versions, eight of them in Spanish, one in English, another in Portuguese, and one in Creole for Haiti. There are also versions in Aymara and Quechua for Bolivia, and in Tetum for Timor-Leste.[16]

Cuba's contribution to national literacy campaigns normally consists of the production of seventeen videos recorded with the sixty-five programme lessons and supporting teaching materials based on the Yo Sí Puedo method. The three-month course is divided into three phases: training, teaching of reading and writing, and consolidation. Building on the principle that learning should start from what learners know already (number), each letter of the alphabet is associated with a number (a–w = 1–30),

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[15] Guzman, 2013. Another source claims that eight million people in 29 countries have benefited from Yo Sí Puedo: http://www.counterpunch.org/2014/01/10/cuba-55-years-of-ideas-and-truth/

[16] http://www.jayblessed.com/2012/01/23/cuban-literacy-method-benefits-almost-six-million-people-around-the-world/ (accessed 31 March 2014)

and each letter is introduced in one class session.[17] Artaraz recognizes that data for Cuba's contribution to literacy campaigns at the global level is hard to come by (Artaraz, 2012).

The creation of the Alianza Bolivariana para los Pueblos de Nuestra América (ALBA) in 2004 gave a boost to Cuba's export of literacy campaigns and sent the Yo Sí Puedo method around the world to around thirty countries. Five of the eight ALBA member states – Bolivia (2009), Cuba (1961), Ecuador (2009), Nicaragua (2011) and Venezuela (2002) – have declared themselves 'illiteracy-free'. The principle of South-South collaboration among ALBA members, with Cuba as a key player, has not only supported attempts to address the countries' literacy challenges, but also advanced an approach to social change through literacy campaigns (Artaraz, 2012).

José Rivero, who makes a case for a broad literacy concept within a lifelong learning perspective, criticizes the approach to literacy which consists in teaching elementary notions of reading and writing, easy to implement, normally through short and intense campaigns which will help to 'overcome the problem' (Rivero, 2011, p. 112). He further identifies a trend of literacy campaigns launched as part of electoral promises to govern in favour of the excluded. This has contributed to the discrediting of literacy campaigns, because they have been used to produce visible results within a short time. This 'triumphalist posture' to produce 'political results' has tended to confuse the number of learners enrolled with learners made literate (Rivero, 2011, p. 115).

Rivero is particularly critical of the declaration of 'territories free of illiteracy' because it is obvious that basic literacy skills are only a first phase of basic education. The example of Nicaragua shows that declaring the country officially 'free of illiteracy' is problematic, since the root causes of illiteracy (poverty and poor formal basic education, among others) have not yet been addressed. The failure to address these causes also reversed the achievement of the national literacy campaign in 1980 through an increase in the illiteracy rate from 12% to almost 50%.[18] The examples of Ecuador and Peru show that the results of the literacy programmes implemented within the framework of the PIA were exaggerated in presidential messages. While in Ecuador the Education Minister had to resign after the National Institute of Statistics and Census reported that the illiteracy rate in 2009 (7.7%) was higher than those registered in previous years, in Peru the report of an external evaluation could not overcome the lack of transparency; on the contrary, it was plagued with contradictions and raised doubts about the veracity of the 'spectacular figures' (Rivero, 2011, p. 116).

Many governments see Yo Sí Puedo as 'a low-cost method of reaching very large numbers of people in a fairly short period of time' (Boughton, 2010, p. 68). Therefore, despite

[17] http://es.wikipedia.org/wiki/M%C3%A9todo_de_alfabetizaci%C3%B3n_%22Yo,_s%C3%AD_puedo%22 (accessed 03 June 2014)

[18] On the 1980 literacy campaign in Nicaragua see: http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001460/146007e.pdf

the existence of critical voices and reports,[19] governments – in particular local governments – continue to contract the Cuban advisory services to implement Yo Sí Puedo campaigns (e.g. Burkina Faso, Djibouti, Equatorial Guinea). However, until now no independent evaluations have been conducted to determine either the cost-effectiveness of the method or its capacity to achieve sustainable reading and writing skills among adult learners on a large scale.

In the following section some global trends in national literacy campaigns and programmes will be analysed using the ten key aspects of the suggested framework (chapter 3) as the organizing structure.

4.1 Duration, intensity and number of non-literate adults targeted by the campaign or programme ('outreach')

DURATION OF LITERACY PROGRAMMES

Mass literacy campaigns usually apply strategies that aim at broad coverage over a short period, while the duration of national literacy programmes can vary between a couple of months and several years if they are part of a more comprehensive programme package (for example, the MEVyT in Mexico or AKRAB! in Indonesia) considered equivalent to formal primary and secondary education. For Latin America a consensus was adopted by the governments of the PIA countries that a literacy programme should have a minimum duration of three years (OEI, 2006). However, the relevant information on duration is only available for some of the PIA countries (Rivero, 2011).

Most of the literacy campaigns or programmes analysed (see Table 2 below) have been implemented for more than six or even more than ten years, and most of them build on prior literacy interventions. Only in the case of Nicaragua, Bolivia and Venezuela did the campaigns have a limited duration (2–3 years). However, all of them are implementing follow-up programmes (Yo Sí Puedo Seguir) for those who complete the literacy campaigns and those striving to complete basic education.

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[19] For example, Lind, A., Aksornkool, N. and Heinsohn, N. 2006. Cuba's literacy methodology 'Yo sí Puedo'. Unpublished (on the Mozambique experience); or OREALC. 2006. Study on the effectiveness and the feasibility of the Literacy Training Method Yo Sí Puedo (on the Latin American experience). Available at: http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001468/146881e.pdf [accessed 23 April 2014]

Table 2: Duration of literacy campaigns or programmes: (*)

< 1 year	1–3 years	3–6 years	6–10 years	> 10 years
Equatorial Guinea	Nicaragua	India	Indonesia	Brazil
	Bolivia	Burkina Faso	South Africa	Mexico
	Venezuela	Ethiopia	Ecuador	Pakistan
	Bangladesh	Iraq	Peru	UK
	Egypt	Afghanistan	Argentina	Ghana
		Nepal	Colombia	Chile
			China	Namibia
			Dominican Republic	
			El Salvador	
			Guatemala	
			Panama	
			Paraguay	
			Timor-Leste	

(*) This table is organized according to the number of years which have elapsed since the implementation of the respective campaign or programme. Except for Nicaragua, Bolivia and Venezuela, campaigns are still running today (2014) in the countries listed.

Sources: Author's research

The duration of literacy course cycles varies from three months up to three years. However, information on the number of teaching-learning hours is not available for most of the campaigns and programmes analysed. Research suggests that between 550 and 600 hours of instruction are needed to become fully literate and numerate.[20] The classes of the Nepalese National Literacy Campaign Programme are only conducted for three months. Classes are run in three slots each year and only during day time due to a limited budget for kerosene. However, a recent evaluation of the programme concludes that the duration of the literacy programme needs to be extended by one month and that participants should be involved in fixing the timing of the class (Government of Nepal/National Planning Commission, 2013, p. 14). The curriculum of the National Literacy Programme[21] in Pakistan is designed to be completed in five months with 210 teaching-learning hours.

The South African Kha Ri Gude mass literacy campaign is designed for a duration of six months (240 hours).[22] For vulnerable groups such as older learners and deaf and blind learners, there are special provisions to continue classes for nine (instead of six) months, and learners who are unable to complete the course within six months are also given the option to re-attend the programme the following year. The Brazilian 'Brasil Alfabetizado' Programme has a flexible duration of between six and eight months.[23] The same is true for the AKRAB! programme in Indonesia, which lasts between six and ten months.[24] In the case of the Enhancement of Literacy in Afghanistan programme, learners are obliged to attend basic and post- or functional literacy classes for six and three months respectively.[25]

Other programmes which have been running for a long time and are well established, such as the National Literacy Programme in Namibia, are implemented in phases.[26] The literacy phase of the Namibian adult basic education programme comprises three formative one-year training stages, each averaging about 240 learning or lesson hours: Stage 1: Basic Mother-Tongue Literacy; Stage 2: Intermediate Literacy Learning; and Stage 3: English for Communication/Communicative English (followed then by the Post-Basic Literacy Education Programme). The curriculum of the Mexican Education Model for Life and Work (MEVyT)is modular and allows each learner to progress at his or her own pace.[27]

[20] http://www.qualifax.ie/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=238:adult-literacy-faq&catid=70&Itemid=63

[21] http://www.unesco.org/uil/litbase/?menu=14&country=PK&programme=66

[22] http://www.unesco.org/uil/litbase/?menu=13&country=ZA&programme=69

[23] http://www.unesco.org/uil/litbase/?menu=16&country=BR&programme=50

[24] http://www.unesco.org/uil/litbase/?menu=14&programme=121

[25] http://www.unesco.org/uil/litbase/?menu=14&country=AF&programme=143

[26] http://www.unesco.org/uil/litbase/?menu=13&country=NA&programme=15

[27] http://www.unesco.org/uil/litbase/?Sources: Author's research menu=16&programme=39

On average, learners need between seven and ten months to complete the basic level; however, completion of the remaining two levels is dependent on the individual's ability, the speed at which he or she learns and the time he or she has at his or her disposal for learning.

The UIS survey results on adult education and literacy programmes in Latin America and the Caribbean show an inverse relationship between programme duration and participation rates: the shorter the programme (e.g. in Bolivia and Nicaragua) the higher the participation (average 24.2%). At the same time, the countries with programmes shorter than six months display some of the highest illiteracy rates in Latin America. By contrast, countries that implement programmes of six months or longer (e.g. Chile, Colombia, Mexico, Paraguay, Uruguay) had lower participation rates (average 5.2%) (UIS, 2013b, p. 16). This trend, however, is normal in countries with literacy rates approaching 100%. The last 5–10% usually corresponds to the most difficult to reach population groups who need to be served with diversified and integral strategies.

Another factor that has an impact on the programme duration is the implementation of programmes in bilingual and/or intercultural contexts. For example, countries that offer bilingual literacy programmes for indigenous populations, such as Ecuador, Guatemala, Mexico, Paraguay and Peru, reported that these programmes need to be longer than those offered only in Spanish (UIS, 2013b, p.16).

NUMBER OF NON-LITERATE ADULTS TARGETED BY THE CAMPAIGN OR PROGRAMME

The analysis of the national literacy campaigns or programmes included in Table 3 below suggests ambitious targets in most cases which will be difficult or even impossible to achieve. In some cases the deadline has already been passed and the programme concerned has demonstrably failed to reach its target. A number of countries are still striving for the status of 'illiteracy-free', which is not in line with Member States' commitment to address literacy as a continuum (UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, 2010, p. 6).

Table 3: Number of non-literate adults targeted by selected campaigns or programmes when launched

COUNTRY	NAME OF CAMPAIGN OR PROGRAMME	YEAR OF LAUNCH	NUMBER OF IL-LITERATES (AGED 15 AND ABOVE)	TARGET (*)
Afghanistan	National Literacy Action Plan (NLAP) (different programmes including ELA)	2010	9,500,000 (estimate)	3,600,000 by 2014 Increase literacy rate from 26% to 48% by 2014 (60% by 2020)
Argentina	Encuentro	2006	730,038 (2006)	Illiteracy free in 2010
Bangladesh	National Action Plan (different programmes)	2010	49,036,000 (2005–2009)	37,000,000 (11–45 age group) 100% literacy rate by 2014
Bolivia	Programa Nacional de Alfabetización Yo Sí Puedo	2006	1,200,000 (2006)	Illiteracy free by 2008
Brazil	PBA (Programa Brazil Alfabetizado)	2003	15,089,000 (1994–2004)	Illiteracy free in 2010 (2,000,000 per year)
Burkina Faso	PRONAA (Programme nationale d'accéleration de l'alphabétisation)	2010	5,646,000 (2005–2009)	4,000,000 Increase from 28.3% (2007) to 60% in 2015
Chile	Campaña de Alfabetización Contigo Aprendo	2003	480,865 (2006)	20,000 per year
China	Guidance Opinion on Further Enhancing Literacy	2007	64,604,000 (2005–2009)	Reduce the adult illiteracy rate to below 6% by 2015
Colombia	Programa Nacional de Alfabetización y Educación Básica de Jóvenes y Adultos	2007	2,475,000 (2006)	Illiteracy free by 2015
Dominican Republic	Red Nacional de Alfabetización	2005	736,698 (2006)	200,000 in 3 years
Ecuador	EBJA (Programa Nacional de Educación Básica para Jóvenes y Adultos) – Sub-programa 'Manuela Sáenz'	2006	672,478 (2006)	Reduce illiteracy to 2% by 2015

The dark shaded targets have not been met, while the targets in cells with hatched shading are impossible to meet by 2015.

Table 3: Number of non-literate adults targeted by selected campaigns or programmes when launched

COUNTRY	NAME OF CAMPAIGN OR PROGRAMME	YEAR OF LAUNCH	NUMBER OF ILLITERATES (AGED 15 AND ABOVE)	TARGET (*)
Egypt	National Literacy Campaign	2011	17,816,000 (2005–2009)	Reach a literacy rate of less than 10% by 2020
El Salvador	Plan Nacional de Educación 2021	2007	1,006,761 (2006)	360,000 in 3 years
Ghana	NFLP (National Functional Literacy Programme)	2000 2nd phase	5,290,000 (2000–2004)	1,000,000 by 2006
Guatemala	Estrategia Nacional de Alfabetización Integral CONALFA	2005	1,817,596 (2006)	862,969 in 3 years
India	Saakshar Bharat Mission	2009	283,105,000 (2005–2009)	70,000,000 (60,000,000 women) by 2017 80% literacy rate by 2017
Indonesia	AKRAB!	2006	12,858,000 (2005–2009)	8,500,000 95.8% adult literacy by 2014
Mexico	MEVyT (Modelo Educación para la Vida y el Trabajo)	1997	5,942,091 (2006)	Reduce illiteracy rate from 4.7% to 3.5% by 2015
Namibia	National Literacy Programme	1992	316,268 (2007)	Achieve a total youth and adult literacy rate of 90% by 2015
Nepal	(NLCP) National Literacy Campaign Programme	2008	7,604,000 (2005–2009)	100% literacy rate by 2011
Nicaragua	Campaña Nacional de Martí a Fidel	2007	1,095,765 (2006)	Reduce illiteracy to less than 3% by 2009
Pakistan	NCHD Literacy Programme	2002/03	46,625,000 (1994–2004)	85% literacy rate by 2015

Table 3: Number of non-literate adults targeted by selected campaigns or programmes when launched

COUNTRY	NAME OF CAMPAIGN OR PROGRAMME	YEAR OF LAUNCH	NUMBER OF ILLITERATES (AGED 15 AND ABOVE)	TARGET (*)
Panama	Proyecto Muévete por Panamá	2005	168,140 (2006)	90,000 in 5 years
Paraguay	Plan Nacional de Alfabetización 'Por un Paraguay Alfabetizado'	2005	191,683 (2006)	157.807 overcome absolute illiteracy and 100.000 functional illiteracy
Peru	PRONAMA (Programa Nacional de Movilización por la Alfabetización)	2006	1,465,320 (2006)	Reduce illiteracy rate to 2.5% by 2015
South Africa	Kha Ri Gude Adult Literacy Programme	2008	9,600,000 (2006)	4,700,000 (2008–2012)
Timor-Leste	National Literacy Campaign *Yo Sí Puedo*	2007	252,000 (2005–2011)	Eradicate illiteracy by 2011
UK	Skills for life	2001	5,200,000 (16%) have literacy skills below Level 1 15,000,000 (46%) have numeracy skills below Level 1 (Skills Survey 2003)	Improvement of basic skill levels of 2,250,000 adults between 2001 and 2010 (7,400,000 by 2020, 95% adult basic skills)
Venezuela	Misión Robinson	2003	1.08 million (2001)	1,500,000 by 2006 (illiteracy free in 2006)

(*) The dark shaded targets have not been met, while the targets in cells with hatched shading are impossible to meet by 2015.

Sources: UIS, 2011; OEI, 2006, and official documents from Ministries of Education

4.2   Main funding sources, annual and/or overall cost of the campaign or programme, and cost per learner

The feasibility of large-scale interventions is determined by realistic cost estimates. The mobilization and allocation of sufficient resources is crucial for the success of a major campaign or programme. It is extremely difficult to find accurate, reliable and comparable information on the budgetary allocations for literacy campaigns and programmes. A general finding from analysing 2012 country reports on progress in meeting commitments of the Belém Framework for Action seems to apply also to the literacy campaigns and programmes implemented during the past decade: Investment levels 'fall far short of meeting demand' (UNESCO, 2013, p. 158). Even without accurate data on investments it is clear that a) resources are insufficient to meet the needs of non-literate adults in the countries concerned; and b) the resources mobilized for major literacy campaigns or programmes are often unstable and fluctuating over the years, and in some cases heavily dependent on external aid.

The Ibero-American Plan for Literacy and Basic Education of Youth and Adults (PIA) is an example of a regionally coordinated attempt to address the funding challenge in a coherent way. On the basis of the illiterate adult population in each of the PIA member states (around 34 million), a global budget of US$4,090,012,200 was estimated for the Plan. This would imply an annual cost of $US454 million over nine years (2007–2015). [28] The government of each country participating in the PIA was expected to pay these costs; if necessary, international donors would match funds to fill eventual gaps. The average annual cost per learner was estimated to be around $US40, which would amount to $US120 per person acquiring basic literacy skills (over the minimum of 3 years that was established). This average cost would be distributed in the following ways: facilitators/educators 40%; training 20%; materials 20% and monitoring 20% (OEI, 2006, pp. 19-20).

In most of the cases analysed the central government is the main source of funding for the national literacy campaign or programme. Often sub-national governments (state, provincial, district governments and/or municipalities) are expected to contribute financial, material or human resources. This, for example, is the case with the Saakshar Bharat Mission in India: the Central Government of India provides three-quarters of the costs and state governments share one quarter, except in the case of the North-Eastern States where central government provides 90%. The total cost of the Saakshar Bharat programme during the last three years (2008–2010) of the Eleventh Five-Year Plan is about US$1.2 billion. The unit cost per learner made literate

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[28]   4,090,012,200 divided by nine (years) = 454,445,800

is extremely low, at around US$5.[29] For the AKRAB! programme in Indonesia, most of the budget allocation is provided by the central government. Major contributions, however, are also made by provincial and district governments and other sources. In general, the budget for each implementing organization, that submits their budget proposal in order to join the programme is paid for by the central government at national level (50%), the provincial government (30%), and the municipal government (20%). The cost of the programme is approximately US$62 per learner.

In Brazil, the Federal Government provides the majority of funding for the implementation of the 'Brasil Alfabetizado' Programme through the Secretariat for Continuing Education, Literacy and Diversity (SECAD) and the Ministry of Education (MEC), despite the fact that the constitutional responsibility for financing adult education lies with the states and municipalities. SECAD and MEC transfer funding to the states and municipalities to cover payment of the literacy personnel (volunteers, coordinators and sign language translators), the training of literacy teachers, food for lunches and all materials for teachers and learners (Mendonça et al., 2014). In the case of the Kha Ri Gude mass literacy campaign in South Africa the government is the sole funding source.

For the Skills for Life strategy, which was launched in the UK in 2001 as the national strategy for improving adult literacy, English for speakers of other languages (ESOL) and numeracy skills, the government was the key funding source. Until 2007 the Department of Education and Skills (DfES) had spent at least £GB5 billion on adult literacy, language and numeracy skills since the strategy began in 2001. Over the period 2007/08–2010/11, planned expenditure was £GB3.9 billion (Burr, 2008).

Approximately 3.5 billion Nepalese rupees (US$358.2 million) was invested in four years (2008–2011/12) for the Nepalese National Literacy Campaign Programme (NLCP). The ratio of allocated budget and non-literate population attended varies for each year, resulting in a cost per participant ranging from NRs.577.70 (US$6) in 2008/09 to NRs.1,945.50 (US$20) in 2010/11. According to the implementation guidelines adopted by the governmental Non-Formal Education Centre (NFEC), which is the lead implementer of the NLCP along with the Department of Education and Ministry of Education, NGOs and CLCs were identified as implementing partners through a competitive bidding process according to the government's procurement guidelines. However, these potential partners were put off by the requirement that partners reach 30% of the total targeted non-literate population from their own resources. Even the partners who were selected for implementing literacy classes manipulated the allocated budget to cover their part of the cost or applied cost-effective measures and

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[29] Country Paper: Status and Major Challenges of Literacy in India.
  Prepared by the Ministry of Human Resource Development of India, June 2010.

thereby compromised on the quantity and quality of literacy materials and classes. In conclusion, the cost sharing approach (70% NFEC and 30% NGO partners) failed. NFEC learned from this experience that it needs to provide the complete budget if it is to reach the target of making 100% of the non-literate population literate (Government of Nepal/National Planning Commission, 2013, p. 5 and 14).

In Pakistan, the major funding for the National Commission for Human Development (NCHD) to implement the National Literacy Programme came from the federal government. However, funds are also raised through donors, donations and expatriate Pakistanis. As a public-private partnership model, NCHD and the Pakistan Human Development Fund (PHDF) together raise funds from members of their own Board of Directors, private sector philanthropists, international donor agencies, volunteers and the Government of Pakistan. So far the total funds raised by PHDF/NCHD amount to 1.659 billion Pakistani rupees (US$27 million), while the Government has provided 7.693 billion Pakistani rupees. For literacy and education the NCHD spent 5,543,840,504 Pakistani rupees (US$90.2 million) between 2007 and 2011.[30] The annual allocation for literacy and education, however, shows major fluctuations, particularly for 2009:

Table 4: Financial allocations of NCHD to literacy and education between 2007 and 2011

2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	**Total**
PR 1,365,467,006 (US$ 22.2 million)	PR 1,638,241,561 (US$ 26.7 million)	PR 314,285,405 (US$ 5.1 million)	PR 1,134,015,968 (US$ 18.5 million)	PR 1,091,830,564 (US$ 17.8 million)	**PR 5,543,840,504 (US$ 90.2 million)**

Source: NCHD, Financial Statements for the years 2007 to 2011, http://www.nchd.org.pk/ws/

An audit report in 2011 concludes that the PHDF failed to raise enough funds, making the NCHD dependent on government grants. This runs contrary to the original intention to raise funds from international and national donors. The grants provided by the government to the PHDF over the six years from 2002–2008 amounted to PR6.25 billion, which was 74.43% of the total funds received for the NCHD.[31] One of the lessons to be drawn from the NCHD experience in Pakistan is that public-private funding models which are dependent on the support of the ruling political party cannot guarantee a stable funding basis for large-scale literacy provision.

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[30] http://www.nchd.org.pk/ws/
[31] http://www.pakistantoday.com.pk/2011/06/21/national/audit-report-says-nchd-mostly-a-failed-programme/

The main funding source for the Ghanaian literacy programme was quite unusual until 2006. For both phases (1992–1997 and 2000–2006) of the Ghanaian National Functional Literacy Programme (NFLP), 60% of funding was provided by World Bank credit, 30% by the Government of Ghana, and the remaining 10% by communities and NGOs. The total estimated cost of the second phase of the NFLP was US$46 million (ODI/DFID, 2006). At present the government of Ghana is the only funder of non-formal education including adult literacy provided by the Non-Formal Education Division (Abudu et al., 2013).

Funding of literacy programmes in a number of countries, particularly in those emerging from conflict, depends substantially on development assistance, such as in Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Timor-Leste or South Sudan, which makes such interventions rather short-term and project-oriented and poses challenges of coordination when several donors are involved.[32]

4.3 Supporting policies and/or legislative measures, and strategic or operational plan

A favourable policy and legal context is important to support a literacy campaign or programme in its organizational and operational implementation. This also includes the broader development context: other ongoing social, economic, political, educational and cultural changes – particularly those that benefit poor people – can significantly contribute to the success of a large-scale literacy campaign or programme. In some cases governments have issued specific instructions or decrees to launch major literacy endeavours.

For example, in Indonesia, a Presidential Instruction (No. 5/2006) on the 'National Movement to Accelerate Completion of the Nine-Year Compulsory Basic Education and the Fight Against Illiteracy' was issued in 2006, followed by a Decree of the Minister of National Education on Guidelines for Implementation of the same, and a Letter of Decision of the Director-General for Non-Formal and Informal Education No. 258/2009 on the structure of the literacy education programme.

The Brasil Alfabetizado programme was initiated in 2003 by President Luiz Inácio da Silva ('Lula') himself, who had identified literacy as a priority at the beginning of his term of office. A number of policy and legislative frameworks support the Programme, such as the Federal Constitution of 1988, the National Education Plan 2000, the National Education Guidelines Act No. 9394 of 1996, the Decree No. 6093 of April 2007, the National Education Development Plan 2007 (Ministry of Education of

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[32] In Timor-Leste, which has a total population of only around 1 million, the following organizations and countries are involved in literacy projects: UNICEF, UNESCO, UNDP, New Zealand, Australia, Cuba, the USA and since 2010 the World Bank (República Democrática de Timor-Leste/ Ministry of Education, 2011, p. 34).

Brazil, 2010) and the Territorial Agenda for an Integrated Development of Youth and Adult Literacy and Education (2009). Several laws, decrees and even a constitutional amendment issued between 2004 and 2009 regulate different factors that have an impact on financing literacy.[33]

The relevant government policy for basic skills in the UK is laid out in its Skills for Life strategy, which was launched by the Prime Minister in 2001 and aims to improve the literacy and numeracy skills of 750,000 adults by 2004 through a promotional campaign and reinforcing the entitlement to free training in basic skills. In July 2000 the Learning and Skills Act became law, establishing the Learning and Skills Council (LSC), a new body whose role is to secure and actively promote provision of education and training for all post-16 learning outside of higher education, including adult literacy.

In the case of Nicaragua the literacy campaign was treated at policy level as an isolated activity to be implemented within a short timeline. The legal instrument of a 'presidential accord' was used only to create the national and sub-national literacy campaign structures. For the development of the campaign a national plan was prepared which supported the implementation of strategies at the sub-national level. These were continuously updated and adjusted to evolving situations in order to maintain momentum or intensify efforts during limited periods. During the last months of the campaign in 2009, a 'Final Offensive Strategy' was developed to prioritize those departments that concentrated the highest illiteracy rates in the country (Ministerio de Educación, 2009).

The Government of Timor-Leste gave priority to promoting non-formal education in the 2008 National Education Policy. This policy highlighted the issue of illiteracy and the need to address it by building on past initiatives. In the National Education Strategic Plan (NESP) 2010–2015, 'Recurrent Education' was one of the government's priority programmes for education. Recurrent Education includes both literacy and adult basic education which is equivalent to formal education. The overall goal of NESP was to 'eradicate illiteracy' among all age groups of the population by 2015 and to complete the introduction of the National Equivalence Programme (NPE), which will allow accelerated completion of basic education for all graduates of Recurrent Education. In the National Education Strategic Plan 2011–2030 (República Democrática de Timor-Leste/Ministry of Education, 2011), both literacy and Recurrent Education are to be phased out after 2015: 'In the future, the quality of the formal education system will be such that literacy and second-chance education programmes for youth and adults will be unnecessary' (p. 15).

[33] National Report Brazil 2012 http://uil.unesco.org/home/programme-areas/adult-learning-and-education/
confintea-portal/global-report-of-adult-learning-and-education-grale/latin-america-and-the-caribbean/

In most of the countries analysed, national constitutions establish citizens' right to literacy and education. For example, the right to education is enshrined in the Bangladeshi constitution. A national NFE Policy was approved in January 2006 which provides the policy framework for non-formal education in Bangladesh, including vision, mission, goal, objectives, scope, and potential target groups. The constitution of Pakistan of 1973 also recognizes the importance of literacy. A Literacy Act was enacted in 1987 but implementation is still pending because the enforcement date has yet to be announced by the Federal Government. A number of policy measures have been outlined in the new National Education Policy (2009) in order to achieve literacy goals and targets. Broader policy frameworks constitute the National Plan of Action on EFA 2001–2015 and the MDG Acceleration Framework (2013–15) (NCHD, 2014).

The inclusion of adult literacy components within national education laws, policies or plans seems to be another trend. For example, the Saakshar Bharat Mission in India was supported by the Eleventh Five-Year Plan and has also been included into the Twelfth Five-Year Plan 2012–17. In the case of Ghana, the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education policy, which was introduced in 1996 to improve access to basic education for all, is believed to have contributed to the success of the national literacy programme (ODI/DFID, 2006). In Bolivia the Education Law No. 79 'Avelino Siñani-Elizardo Pérez' of 2010 includes regulations on adult literacy and alternative education. In South Africa, policies framing adult literacy work include the Adult Basic Education and Training Act (Act No. 52 of 2000) and the National Multi-Year Implementation Plan for Adult Education and Training (1997). Furthermore, South Africa has a National Qualifications Framework that provides a reference for equivalencies as well as for recognition, validation and accreditation of prior learning. The South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) acts as the accrediting body.

In some cases literacy is included in adult education policies, such as in Paraguay (Public Policy of Youth and Adult Education, 2011), Burkina Faso (Decree No. 2009/644/PRES/MEBA to Organize Non-formal Education, 2009), or Mexico (Accord to Create the National Council for Education for Life and Work (CONEVyT), 2002). Specific policies on adult literacy exist in Morocco (National Strategy of 2004 revised in 2009), Namibia (the Adult Literacy Policy of 1996 is under revision; a new policy on Basic and Post Literacy was drafted in 2011), and Guatemala (Literacy Law and its Regulation, Decree No. 54–99 and Government Accord No. 137–91 of 1986, with reforms in 1991 and 1999). In Peru the National Mobilization for Literacy was initiated in 2006 and is supported through the Supreme Decree No. 022–2006–ED.

A number of the countries analysed have policies regarding language of instruction, such as Brazil (including Portuguese sign language), Paraguay, Ecuador, Guatemala, Mexico, Peru, Bolivia, Nepal, Bangladesh, Indonesia, Afghanistan, China, India, Morocco, Namibia and South Africa (UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, 2013, pp. 54–55). This does not mean, however, that the literacy programmes analysed are offered in all official languages or in all mother tongues/minority languages.

4.4 Social mobilization/campaigning/advocacy, philosophy/ideology, link to social-political movement/community ownership and control of the campaign or programme

In the framework (Figure 1), political will and national commitment, including the capacity to organize and mobilize people around the goal of literacy, were identified as critical factors for the successful implementation of large-scale literacy campaigns or programmes (see also: Bhola, 1984; 1997; 1999; Lind, 2008; Hanemann, 2012). Initial motivation for participation is necessary but not enough. Moreover, after the launch of such large-scale endeavours, continuous mobilization activities aimed at sustaining collective motivation are crucial to achieve the planned results. Mobilization and support at the local level are of particular importance, including strongly committed local leaders and community participation. In a number of countries large-scale literacy campaigns or programmes were launched after a political change or after civil war and independence (e.g. Afghanistan, Iraq, Timor-Leste, South Sudan).

Clear linkages between an ideological-political movement and a literacy campaign can be seen in the cases of Bolivia, Nicaragua and Venezuela, and to some extent also in the cases of Ecuador and Peru. For example, the Movimento al Socialismo (MAS) movement in Bolivia, which won the elections in December 2005, was closely linked to the 'campaign for the eradication of illiteracy' (2006–08) and the 'refoundation' of Bolivia's education system as the first step towards 'decolonization'.[34] Within days of his electoral victory in December 2005, the Bolivian President Evo Morales signed an agreement with Cuba to offer advice on Bolivia's literacy campaign in what was the first policy measure of the MAS government. While an important outcome was long-term political support for the 'process of change' initiated by the government and increased awareness and national cohesion, the literacy campaign would not have been possible without the social and political organization that took MAS to power. 'Indeed, the power of Bolivian social movements is such that they are the driving forces behind the new educational developments that aim to go beyond the original literacy campaign' (Artaraz, 2012, p. 34).

In May 2007 the Nicaraguan President created a National Council of the National Literacy Campaign 'From Martí to Fidel' per Presidential Accord. The Council was chaired by the President himself, coordinated by the Ministry of Education, and integrated by a broad range of 26 stakeholders including other ministries (Ministry of

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[34] In Bolivia, as well as in Ecuador and Venezuela, the social groups that have led 'revolutions in democracy' often emerged from within 'politics of recognition' – as have indigenous peoples in the region – to bring about political change built on indigenous forms of knowledge. These are 'refoundations', new beginnings that build on a new 'epistemology of the South' (Santos, 2010).

Finance), institutes for women, youth and culture, the Army, Police, churches, unions, foundations, national university councils, student federations and the National UNESCO Commission. At the sub-national (departmental and municipal) levels similar councils were created, chaired by the mayors and municipal delegates of the Education Ministry.[35] The main task of these councils was to coordinate the mobilization and administration of human, material and financial resources for the campaign. Particularly important was the support of local governments and state institutions which was mobilized through their participation in the councils, because they contributed the payment of municipal officers as well as resources for mobilization and development of the campaign (Ministerio de Educación, 2009).

Social mobilization for literacy also played an important role in Pakistan. The design, development and implementation of Pakistan's National Literacy Programme (ALP) is based on a tripartite partnership between the National Commission for Human Development (NCHD), District Education Department (DED) (including schools and teachers) and communities (including volunteer literacy teachers). A particularly innovative and critical feature of the ALP is its emphasis on social mobilization and community involvement in programme implementation. Social mobilization is often undertaken through a network of influential local leaders such as teachers, elected officials and religious leaders. This is intended not only to identify and mobilize potential learners and teachers, but also to ensure that the programme effectively addresses their particular needs, as well as encouraging parents to enrol into the ALP and to support their children in school. In addition, the community provides space for the setting-up of community-based adult learning centres (ALCs) and is responsible for their management and for the identification of potential programme facilitators from the communities concerned. On the other hand, the NCHD and the DED are responsible for preparing implementation plans and providing teaching-learning resources to ALCs, as well as for the training and payment of programme teachers/facilitators (NCHD, 2014).

The mobilization and recruitment of learners through awareness campaigns is crucial for the success of all large-scale literacy programmes. The evaluation of the Nepalese National Literacy Campaign Programme (NLCP) establishes that more than 70% of the enrolled learners had received the information on the programme from the facilitator, followed by family members (22%). The awareness-raising campaign activities consisted in door-to-door visits (72%), radio programmes (20%) and street drama (8%) (Government of Nepal/National Planning Commission, 2013, p. 7). In the same evaluation, participants reported that decisions about the location of literacy classes were taken mainly by facilitators (48.6%), while 21.5% said in the interview that they

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[35] http://legislacion.asamblea.gob.ni/Normaweb.nsf/b34f77cd9d23625e06257265005d21fa/5f255005fb0071560625 72f90070c062?OpenDocument

themselves selected the location. Only 11.1% reported that the location was selected by the Class Management Committee, facilitator and participants together, and only 3.8% said the decision was taken by the Class Management Committee (Government of Nepal/National Planning Commission, 2013, p. 8). 59% of the literacy graduates reported that they encouraged others to participate in literacy classes; of these, 87.9% said that they had managed to motivate relatives and friends to attend the literacy class (Government of Nepal/National Planning Commission, 2013, p. 9). One of the conclusions of the evaluation is that in the absence of wider community participation and media mobilization, 'the NLCP cannot get momentum' (Government of Nepal/National Planning Commission, 2013, p. 15).

The 'Get On' campaign, which formed part of the UK Government's Skills for Life strategy, was one of the biggest and most successful campaigns in the UK to mobilize learners and increase participation in literacy programmes. In its first stage launched in 2001, it featured a now-famous 'gremlin'[36] character in television and press advertising, encouraging people with literacy, numeracy and language needs to tackle their fears or 'gremlins' regarding basic skills. [37]

4.5 Partnerships, collaboration schemes, cooperation agreements, governance and management structure (in decentralized systems), logistics (availability and delivery of materials), and accountability

Broad collaborative involvement of stakeholders from other ministries and government entities, civil society and the private sector is important for the mobilization of resources and people in support of a literacy campaign or programme. This requires a strong central coordination complemented by local responsibility and flexibility to respond to specific contexts and situations. Organizational structures and effective management structures from national to local levels is important to facilitate the implementation of large-scale literacy programmes.

One of the success factors of the National Movement to Accelerate Completion of the Nine-Year Compulsory Basic Education and the Fight Against Illiteracy (NMHFI) in Indonesia seems to be a well-defined structure for the coordination of multi-level literacy and basic education implementation, established from central national level right down to the level of the local village. Each of the nine actors has clearly defined roles and responsibilities.[38] Coordination meetings, operational meetings, public hearings and other meetings have increased coordination among the ministries and government agencies

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[36] A grotesquely unattractive cartoon character, presented as blocking people's access to learning and life progression.

[37] CONFINTEA VI UK National Report 2009, http://www.unesco.org/fileadmin/MULTIMEDIA/INSTITUTES/ UIL/confintea/pdf/National_Reports/Europe%20-%20North%20America/United_Kingdom.pdf

[38] The Coordinating Ministry of Public Welfare, Ministry of National Education, Ministry of Internal Affairs, Ministry of Religious Affairs, Ministry of Finance, Ministry of Women's Empowerment, Head of National Bureau of Statistics, Governor of each Province (33 provinces) and the Head of Municipality or Regency (Country Paper: Status and major Challenges in Literacy in Indonesia. Prepared by the Ministry of Education of Indonesia, June 2010).

concerned, as well as between the Government and the Legislative Assembly, particularly with its Commission that manages education and the Budget Committee. Partnership with provincial and district/municipal governments has also been strengthened. The Ministry of National Education signed two memoranda of understanding (MoUs): one with the Minister for Religious Affairs on the implementation of literacy education and other non-formal education in religious education institutions (2007) and another with the governors and district/regency heads of 26 provinces on budget allocation for the NMHFI. Collaboration also takes place with a wide range of stakeholders, including women's organizations, religious institutions, 87 universities and higher education institutions and the Forest Corporation. With the latter two the Directorate General of Early Childhood, Non-Formal and Informal Education has also established MoUs.

The Kha Ri Gude Unit of the South African Department of Basic Education works closely with the Department of Public Works, Expanded Public Works Programme, the Department of Home Affairs, the Department of Correctional Services, the South African Qualifications Authority, and other governmental institutions which support the literacy campaign. In Brazil, partnerships have been established between the Ministries of Education and Health within the Olhar Brasil project, which provides ophthalmological examinations and glasses for participants on the Literate Brazil Programme. A further partnership is in place with the Ministry of Culture and civil society networks to promote reading and literature appropriate for the newly literate.

With the launch of the National Literacy Campaign in Timor-Leste in 2007, an independent office of the National Campaign Secretariat was created which reported through the Minister of Education to the National Campaign Commission and sub-commissions. However, a change of government shortly after this gave rise to a restructuring of the Ministry of Education. Priorities were shifted away from the national literacy campaign and the National Commission and Campaign Secretariat was closed down, returning the overall leadership of the campaign to officials in the Ministry of Education (Boughton, 2010; Fernandes, 2010). This not only led to a loss of momentum but also put an end to the inter-sectorial cooperation of ministries and institutions which had worked together through the national campaign commission structure.

The National Commission for Human Development (NCHD), set up in Pakistan in 2002 under the Cabinet Division as the lead organization in literacy, has its own administrative and management structure at national, provincial and district levels.[39] Together

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[39] According to a report of the Crisis Group Asia (2013), the NCHD was created together with other bureaucratic entities by the Musharraf regime to target political opponents and, more generally, to undercut the national and provincial assemblies. More than five years after the return to civilian rule, most of these entities, including the NCHD, continue to exist. Requiring a massive infrastructure and staff, they also significantly added to government cost, contrary to what they claimed to do (improve governance, reduce bureaucracy and promote accountability). http://www.crisisgroup.org/~/media/Files/asia/south-asia/pakistan/249-parliaments-role-in-pakistans-democratic-transition.pdf

with the Pakistan Human Development Fund (PHDF), which was registered as a non-profit company under the Companies Ordinance 1984, it is a unique public-private partnership model for social sector development in Pakistan, focusing mainly on the improvement of basic education and healthcare. The PHDF receives funds for the NCHD's programmes and oversees its operations and programme implementation. It has an independent 37-member Board of Directors who make the policy decisions. However, following elections and consequent changes in the government, the new government stopped the grants to the NCHD. In January 2008 the literacy programme had to be shut down and the contracts of all literacy staff in the field were discontinued. A Cabinet Committee was formed to look into the affairs of NCHD. In 2009, literacy programmes were restarted, but it took until October 2011 for the Supreme Court to decide that the NCHD should not be closed down. It is still not clear whether the financial stability of the NCHD has been fully restored. A special audit report on the NCHD in 2011 concludes that, on the whole, the NCHD could not achieve its objectives and could not be termed compliant with its mandate.[40] This experience shows how vulnerable government schemes for literacy provision can become when they depend on political stability.

The launch of the literacy campaign in Nicaragua required changes in the national and sub-national structures of the Ministry of Education in 2007. A General Directorate for Youth and Adult Literacy and Education (DGAEJA) was created in the Ministry of Education to take responsibility for the campaign under the leadership of the Minister (literacy work had previously been implemented mainly by NGOs). A team of technical Ministry staff was assigned one or two departments each, with the brief to follow up and provide technical support to the departmental and municipal coordination units for adult literacy and education. During the first year of the campaign, the governance structure of the newly created DGAEJA caused a dual management situation at the sub-national level because it collided with existing ministry structures in charge of coordinating adult literacy and education. This was solved in 2008 by giving the sole leadership to the newly created Ministry structure (DGAEJA), while trying to link campaign activities at the sub-national levels to ongoing adult literacy and education work. In 2008, 787 additional technical personnel were contracted to consolidate the structure at all levels, in particular the technical teams in the 153 municipal administrations of the country (Ministerio de Educación, 2009). This experience demonstrates the challenges resulting from a campaign structure that is created as an 'add-on' to the existing adult literacy and education system.

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[40] The report says that the NCHD did not support government line departments, non-governmental organizations and public representatives at the district level as envisaged in the ordinance. The audit noted that the NCHD engaged in provision of services directly, contrary to its mandate. 'Since the funds were not channelled through proper budgetary procedures and the advisory council representing critical stakeholders did not provide much-needed interface between the NCHD operations and other development organs of the state, audit noted instances of duplication in development activities.' http://www.pakistantoday.com.pk/2011/06/21/national/audit-report-says-nchd-mostly-a-failed-programme/

4.6 Inclusiveness of the campaign or programme: gender equality, access to learning sites, identification and removal of barriers to participation for special groups, e.g. people with disabilities, women, youth, rural populations and living in post-conflict contexts

Making an adult literacy programme accessible for all involves catering to people with diverse learning needs and life circumstances. Potential barriers to participation must be identified and removed, and learners with learning difficulties and disabilities supported. Particularly in those countries which have already reached high levels of literacy rates, for large-scale programmes to reach out to the remaining non-literate population it is necessary to develop differentiated strategies for specific target groups. The review of official documents relating to the literacy campaigns and programmes analysed indicate that the target population includes marginalized and vulnerable groups such as women, indigenous populations, ethnic minorities and disadvantaged communities, disabled persons (including persons with physical disabilities and persons with learning difficulties), rural populations, inmates in prisons, and war-affected populations (see Table 5 below).

Table 5: Target population of national literacy campaigns and programmes as expressed explicitly in official documents

Women	Indigenous peoples, ethnic minorities, disadvantaged communities	Blind (Braille), deaf (sign language), physically disabled	Rural population	Inmates in prison	War-affected populations
India	Nicaragua	Nicaragua	Ghana	Pakistan	Pakistan
Pakistan (90%)	Ecuador	South Africa	Brazil	Ecuador	Afghanistan
Nicaragua	UK	Pakistan	Nicaragua	UK	South Sudan
Afghanistan	Brazil	Ecuador	South Africa	South Africa	
Ghana	Mexico	Brazil	Mexico	Mexico	
Mexico			Indonesia		
Timor-Leste					

Sources: Author's research

At the global level, two-thirds of adult non-literates are women. According to the EFA-GMR 2013/14, of the 61 countries with data, around half are expected to achieve gender parity in adult literacy by 2015, while another ten will be very close to meeting this goal (UNESCO, 2014, p. 4). This is why countries with significant gender disparities (mainly in favour of men) need to address the gender dimension when going to scale with literacy. The Enhancement of Literacy in Afghanistan (ELA) programme has adopted the target of 60% female learners in literacy programmes. The Indian Saakshar Bharat Mission has planned that, out of its total target of 70 million beneficiaries, 60 million will be women. One of the goals of Timor-Leste's literacy programme is to promote gender equity and empower women; it seems that the overwhelming majority of participants in the programme are women (Fernandes, 2010, p. 282). In Nepal and Indonesia, strategies for linking literacy with income-generating activities are expected to provide women, particularly in rural areas, with more decision-making control.[41]

The removal of cultural barriers to participation in literacy courses involves finding solutions that work for both men and women.[42] The recent evaluation report of the Nepalese National Literacy Campaign Programme (NLCP) concluded, for example, that management of separate literacy centres for male and female participants helped to engage more participants from the target group, because in some areas cultural norms discourage attendance in mixed classes (Government of Nepal/National Planning Commission, 2013, p. 16).

The Skills for Life strategy in the UK targets the unemployed and welfare benefit claimants, offenders, public sector employees, people who do not speak English as a first language and those in low-skilled employment. It also targets migrant communities (e.g. from Pakistan, Bangladesh and India) who need to learn English as a second language in addition to acquiring basic literacy and numeracy skills. In the framework of the Skills for Life initiative a special manual detailing strategies for supporting learners with learning difficulties and disabilities was developed and disseminated to literacy providers and teaching personnel.[43]

In Latin America and the Caribbean, diversity has been identified as a particularly relevant feature in adult literacy programmes. The experiences analysed reflect

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[41] For more examples of literacy programmes empowering women, see: http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0022/002257/225787E.pdf

[42] For more examples of challenges and solutions with regard to women's participation in literacy, see: http://uil.unesco.org/home/programme-areas/literacy-and-basic-skills/news-target/uil-publishes-research-study-on-womens-literacy-and-empowerment/8624adcb9ae9b516bd5a636b6c8ab34b/

[43] Access for All identifies seven groups of learners: people who are deaf or partially hearing, people who are blind or partially sighted, people with mental health problems, people with dyslexia and related difficulties, people with physical disabilities, people with learning disabilities, and people with autistic spectrum disorders. It provides practical guidance on the impact such issues can have on learning, as well as on technology and on approaches to consider.

the heterogeneity of target populations in urban and rural areas, indigenous peoples, inmates, young people excluded from the school system, older adults, and persons with disabilities (Infante and Letelier, 2013). The Literate Brazil Programme, for example, has a special focus on vulnerable population groups such as farmers, fishermen, women, quilombola communities, and the prison population. The Education Model for Life and Work (MEVyT) in Mexico has developed a special Indigenous Bilingual programme for the indigenous population (MEVyT Indígena Bilingüe – MIB)[44], which has been implemented by the National Adult Education Institute (INEA) since 2007 and is currently available in the 42 main indigenous languages found in the 15 participating states. So far, the MIB programme has created an alternative route for about 90,000 indigenous learners (92% of whom have been women) to gain access to basic literacy and life skills training.

In the documents analysed there are plenty of examples showing how vulnerable groups with special needs were considered and addressed. However, there is little consistent evidence to determine the levels of inclusiveness of large-scale literacy campaigns and programmes. Apart from sex-disaggregated data, and sometimes data broken down into different age groups, it is not easy to find information on participation in literacy campaigns and programmes that is differentiated by other categories.[45] Even if such information were available, it would still need to be contrasted with differentiated information on the composition of the total non-literate adult population, in order to see if the proportions of participating special groups correspond with the proportions of potential special target groups.

According to the final report on the literacy campaign in Nicaragua, the campaign arranged for opportunities for differently abled persons, including sign language for persons with hearing problems and the Braille system for blind learners. It had also a particular focus on rural populations and women. It aimed to respect the autonomy of indigenous communities at the Caribbean Coast and their cultural and linguistic roots by teaching literacy in Miskito, Mayangna and Creole languages (Ministerio de Educación, 2009, p. 3).

The evaluation of the Nepalese NLCP provides some data on participants' profiles. It shows that female participants constitute the overwhelming majority. Out of a total of 1,000 literacy graduates selected randomly for the interview, 95.1% were women. However, the same evaluation shows that more than two-thirds of participants came from well-off families. Only 1% of the participants were from the lowest income quintile, despite the fact that most of Nepal's illiterates are from this group. The majority

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[44] See: http://www.unesco.org/uil/litbase/?menu=16&programme=92

[45] Sex-disaggregated literacy data still cannot be taken as a guaranteed standard. For example, the final report of the literacy campaign in Nicaragua, data provided by SECAD Brazil on the Brazil Alfabetizado Programme, or literacy data provided in the annual PIA reports are not differentiated by male and female populations.

of the participants (30.4% and 27.9%) were from the 35–45 and 46–55 age groups respectively. 16% of the participants were 56 and older (Government of Nepal/National Planning Commission, 2013, pp. 6-7).

Data on the number of learners certified as having completed the assessment for Basic Literacy Competencies of the Saakshar Bharat Programme in India from 2010 to 2013 provide a more nuanced picture. A total of 33,921,633 learners took the exam, of whom 72% were women, and 24,734,705 (73%) passed, of whom 72% were women. Of the 24,734,705 learners who passed the exam, 23.2% were aged 15–25, 36.6% were aged 26–35, 25% were aged 36–45, and 15.2% were over 45 years old. In addition, the data was broken down into caste or ethnic categories: 23.1% of the 24,734,705 who passed the exam belonged to the 'scheduled castes' (SC), 12.9% to the 'scheduled tribes' (ST), 8.2% to 'minorities', and a majority of 55.8% to 'others'.[46] It would be interesting to analyse the data of those who participated in the programme but did not present to the final exam (potential drop-outs), as well as of those who presented to the exam but did not pass.

4.7 Recruitment, payment and training of educators (volunteers, supervision, pedagogical support)

Recruitment, motivation and training of literacy teachers, including in-service training and a system of pedagogical and organizational support services, are key issues to be considered when planning a large-scale intervention. However, according to evaluations and reviews, teacher recruitment and training is the weakest point in many literacy programmes (Lind, 2008, p. 88). While there is a strong case for sustained investment in human resources (Lind, 2008; Oxenham, 2008; UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, 2010), the use of volunteers has always played a role in adult literacy campaigns. In order to attract volunteers to national literacy work, it is helpful to have a well-designed strategy which takes into account their requirements.[47]

An important factor behind the success of the National Literacy Programme in Ghana was the willingness of many people to work as volunteer facilitators. Upon successful completion of the learning cycle they were awarded a bicycle, sewing machine or other token gift (ODI/DFID, 2006). The facilitators of the literacy campaign in Nicaragua were mainly young people, students or teachers who worked on a voluntary basis in their free time, 'showing their social commitment'. They were recruited by the municipal technical teams together

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[46] Information provided by Dr Nasim Ahmad, Assistant Educational Advisor, D/o School Education & Literacy, Ministry of Human Resource Development, India, 25 April 2014.

[47] Peter Lavender, NIACE, UK, mentions (among other strategies): a) effective screening, induction, training and support; b) proper valuing of volunteers' motivation; c) progression opportunities; d) a marketing and promotional strategy to recruit volunteers. See http://volunteermanagers.org.uk/research/.

with school directors and teachers, community and religious leaders, (political) youth and student organizations and the teachers' union (Ministerio de Educación, 2009).

In all cases analysed the facilitators or educators receive training before they start their teaching tasks, and most of them are obliged to attend regular follow-up training activities. Continuous capacity development is usually seen as a key factor for the success of the campaign or programme. The evaluation report of the Nepalese NLCP showed that only 74% of the facilitators received the five-day training recommended by the NFEC (Non-Formal Education Centre. 36% and 54% of the facilitators who did receive the training indicated that their training was either 'very efficient' or 'efficient' respectively (Government of Nepal/National Planning Commission, 2013, p. 13).

Some of the countries analysed have started to implement strategies of professionalization for adult literacy and education personnel. Examples include the UK and South Africa – both with National Qualifications Frameworks in place – and Brazil, where partnerships with higher education institutions allow for training courses that are conducive to qualifications. However, while Brazilian universities seem to have invested very little in the training of managers, coordinators and teachers for youth and adult education (Ministry of Education of Brazil, 2010), the University of South Africa (UNISA) has trained tens of thousands of adult educators for the Adult Basic Education Programme, mainly through distance learning courses. The Kha Ri Gude Mass Literacy Campaign was able to build on this long-term investment in developing professional capacity in adult literacy and education country-wide over almost two decades (Hanemann, 2011).

The Saakshar Bharat Mission also places emphasis on the professional development of literacy providers. Its human resource development plan includes the following elements (Hanemann, 2012, p. 53):

a) training of trainers, literacy facilitators and supervisors using learner-centred, learning-by-doing, participatory techniques
b) Total Quality Management (TQM), which emphasizes the quality of literacy workers and literacy educators
c) volunteer teachers are given intensive pre- and in-service training in adult education in local languages
d) a cascade approach is adopted in training literacy personnel
e) model manuals and resource books with participatory training techniques have been distributed for adaptation at State Resource Centres and State Literacy Mission Authorities
f) ongoing training is provided to key resource persons at district level
g) orientation and managerial training is provided to literacy managers
h) various kinds of training workshop have been organized by different bodies for different target literacy personnel

However, there is no information available on the implementation of this plan.

4.8   Pedagogical aspects (content and quality of materials, methodology, languages of instruction, assessment tools and system)

A curriculum, learning materials and teaching–learning methodologies which are relevant for learners and within the reach of literacy teachers are of utmost importance for the success of the learning process. The choice of language of instruction is essential for motivation and learning. Mother-tongue based multilingual literacy programmes that cater for the needs of different ethnic and linguistic groups, together with rich and dynamic literate environments that support the development of multilingual skills in oral and written communication, have proven to be the most effective approach to linguistic diversity (see Ouane/Glanz, 2010, 2011; ADEA/UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, 2010).[48] Assessing learning progress in the acquisition of literacy and numeracy skills is also a critical issue. However, combining the pedagogical and formative purposes of measuring learning achievement with the need to account for the investment made and generate comparable data poses major challenges for providers around the world.

The review of the different experiences shows diverse pedagogical approaches to teaching and learning literacy. Social awareness approaches can be found mainly in Latin America. Isabel Infante and María Eugenia Letelier, who analysed 23 major literacy programmes in Latin America and the Caribbean, concluded that the 'popular education' approach, based on the pedagogical thinking of Paulo Freire, is 'a hallmark of the region'. One of the key ideas of this approach is to perceive literacy teaching and learning as a space of social participation (Infante and Letelier, 2013, p. 37). Other common features of teaching–learning approaches in the literacy programmes analysed from all regions are participatory and activity-oriented learning and the integration of literacy with life skills and content which is relevant to learners' everyday lives and needs.

In the attempt to cater for diversity and allow for flexible approaches to delivering literacy courses, the curriculum of the Mexican MEVyT literacy programme is modular, comprising a series of self-contained yet complementary modules leading to accreditation (certification) at different levels. More than 60 modules have been developed and produced to date. Modules are tailor-made to reflect and respond to the linguistic, cultural and social circumstances and needs of various ethno-regional groups of learners. As a result, the modules have been sub-divided into: 1) Modules in Spanish; 2) Modules in Indigenous Languages; and 3) Modules for People in Special Circumstances such as prisoners, the blind and migrants. MEVyT modules for the different target groups are designed to satisfy learning levels and cover a broad range of themes. The MEVyT programme is based on three accredited learning levels, each

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[48] See also the Background Paper by Clinton Robinson on languages in adult literacy (Robinson, 2014).

with a specified number of study modules: 1) the initial (basic) level is dedicated to the acquisition of basic literacy, numeracy and writing skills; 2) the intermediate level offers modules for learners with basic literacy and numeracy skills and leads to the competition of primary education; and 3) the advanced level offers modules that lead to the completion of secondary education and pave the way for advanced, post-secondary learning.[49]

Another example of integrated approaches to literacy teaching and learning is the Indonesian AKRAB! programme, which incorporates entrepreneurship, life skills, gender equity and local culture into literacy training. The curriculum for basic literacy is part of a broader curricular strategy for non-formal basic education, with learning modules offered in Package A (equivalent to primary education), Package B (equivalent to lower secondary education) and Package C (equivalent to senior high school education). All programmes lead to recognized certificates.

In Latin America and the Caribbean, new ICTs have not displaced the radio as a means to reach out to illiterate population in remote areas, such as in Chile (until 2009), the Dominican Republic, Costa Rica and Paraguay. Videos and television are used in those countries using the Cuban Yo Sí Puedo method. In Mexico, since 2000 INEA has been promoting the 'Community Places' (Plazas Comunitarias) approach, which makes learning programmes including the MEVyT programme available on computers for young people and adults. In Asia, the use of ICTs to support literacy teaching and learning is increasing. For example, in Pakistan, the NCHD in collaboration with UNESCO has established 20 mobile phone based community learning centres (NCHD, 2014).

The choice of language for literacy instruction needs careful consideration and planning in each specific context. Decisions must also be made about bilingual – or even multilingual – approaches to teaching and learning literacy. In India literacy is provided in all State languages and other officially recognized languages. The Kha Ri Gude campaign in South Africa is offered in the 11 national languages, Braille and sign language. The National Functional Literacy Programme in Ghana is available in 15 Ghanaian languages and English. However, the Adult Literacy Programme of the NCHD in Pakistan is taught only in Urdu, the official language, even though only 8% of the population speaks Urdu as their first language. The Brazil Alfabetizado Programme provides classes and materials only in Portuguese (some materials are produced in Braille for blind students), while the literacy programme in Timor-Leste is taught in Tetum and Portuguese. The importance of the need to operationalize and implement what has been adopted at policy level becomes evident when analysing the case of literacy programmes in Latin American countries with considerable indigenous

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[49] http://www.unesco.org/uil/litbase/?menu=16&programme=39

populations. Although most of these countries have policies on language, this cannot necessarily be taken as an indicator of inclusiveness, because it has not always given rise to linguistically and culturally sensitive approaches to literacy teaching and learning (López and Hanemann, 2009).

Most of the campaigns and programmes analysed have developed some kind of assessment tool or system to measure learning progress and determine when learners have reached the required competency level to be considered literate or awarded a certificate. A diagnostic assessment in the case of the Brazil Alfabetizado programme seeks to establish the reading, writing and numeracy skills of learners when they enter and leave the programme. For the Saakshar Bharat programme, a systematic learner assessment system has been devised. The AKRAB! programme has developed a system of learning process evaluation and assessment, featuring a final exam and certification. The Adult Literacy Programme of the NCHD in Pakistan includes assessments upon completion of each of the four books; a certificate is awarded to learners after the completion of the six-month course.

At the conclusion of the three-month literacy classes, facilitators test the participants on the Nepalese NLCP Programme. Those who achieve over 50% are considered literate. However, tests are not standardized and do not allow for accreditation. Literacy test findings from a sub-sample of 100 literacy graduates in the context of the recent evaluation of the NLCP indicate that only 34% of graduates achieved literate status according to the NFEC's criteria (50% or more of the possible score). Except for comprehension and addition, where 58% and 54% of graduates respectively achieved over 50%, the graduates performed below the minimum standard in all of the literacy components. Their performance was lowest in multiplication, division and word problems (where only 21%, 24% and 12% respectively achieved over 50%) (Government of Nepal/National Planning Commission, 2013, p. 10). Not only does this raise questions about the effectiveness of the literacy classes, particularly when they last only three months; it also shows that without standardized and quality assured processes to assess learning progress and achievement it is difficult to establish how many learners have actually achieved a sustainable level of literacy.

The Kha Ri Gude Mass Literacy Campaign in South Africa has attempted to implement a strategy for mass-based assessments to assess the learning outcomes of participants enrolled on the campaign and provide tangible evidence of learners' full and active participation. The strategy for assessing learners' knowledge and skills has been integrated into the ongoing monitoring and evaluation of the campaign. The assessment approach was designed to be regular, integrated and non-threatening, and to allow learners to demonstrate their growing competences in the 'Yes I can' Learner Assessment Portfolio. This structured portfolio assesses learners' competencies against outcomes aligned with specific unit standards. All learners' grades are recorded in a central database.

4.9 Monitoring and evaluation system, reporting and databasing, impact and results, retention and pass rates

The implementation of large-scale literacy programmes or campaigns involves the need to incorporate an effective monitoring and evaluation system to observe the progress of ongoing programmes and to evaluate the results. There are a number of examples in the cases analysed of internal evaluations conducted by implementing ministries of education. In Nicaragua, for example, the Ministry of Education prepared a final report on the National Literacy Campaign (Ministerio de Educación, 2009). In Nepal, the evaluation of the National Literacy Campaign Programme (NLCP) was commissioned by the Ministry of Education to the National Planning Commission Secretariat in 2013. This was called a 'Third Party evaluation' (Government of Nepal/National Planning Commission, 2013).

Other governments opted for external evaluations. The Ministry of Human Resource Development of India is currently preparing detailed guidelines to commission external agencies to carry out evaluation and impact studies on the Saakshar Bharat programme.[50] There are also mixed approaches featuring both internal and external evaluations. For example, in the case of the Indonesian AKRAB! programme, internal monitoring and evaluation is carried out by the Ministry of National Education, Provincial Education Office, District Education Office, Sub-district Education Office, and the Education Units themselves, whilst external evaluation is performed by the National Board of Education Standardization, Inspectorate General, and others.[51]

According to the Pakistan National Commission for Human Development (NCHD), monitoring and evaluation has been one of the strongest components of their National Literacy Programme. Each Adult Literacy Centre was visited at least once a week by senior NCHD staff (supervisors/coordinators and the DED) who used Literacy Management Information System (LIMS) software to enhance the monitoring and evaluation process. The field visits were also used as an opportunity to assist programme facilitators in their duties in order to enhance programme effectiveness. In addition to internal monitoring, the programme was also evaluated by external professionals. To date, comprehensive programme evaluations were undertaken by UNDP (2004, 2006) and Shell Pakistan (2005).[52]

The monitoring of the National Functional Programme in Ghana is carried out by around 1,000 permanent employees who regularly supervise literacy classes in rural

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[50] Information provided by Dr Nasim Ahmad, Assistant Educational Advisor, D/o School Education & Literacy, Ministry of Human Resource Development, India, 25 April 2014 .

[51] http://www.unesco.org/uil/litbase/?menu=14&country=ID&programme=121; see also 5.4.

[52] http://www.unesco.org/uil/litbase/?menu=4&programme=66

areas. District staff supervise the zonal centres and regional staff supervise district offices, while headquarters staff make periodic visits to local and district-level administrators to monitor compliance with guidelines. Overall programme performance is monitored through a set of objectively verifiable indicators. In addition, studies are conducted on the efficacy of the reading materials, learning support systems, income generating activities, facilitator incentive awards and supervision systems. Monitoring outputs demanded by the World Bank at each stage of the schedule for fund disbursement helped the programme comply with its plan and objectives (ODI/DFID, 2006).

Reliable databases that capture the relevant information on large-scale literacy programmes are crucial for effective planning, management, monitoring and evaluation. Such databases have been established in the four literacy campaigns or programmes that are analysed in depth in section 5. The South African Kha Ri Gude literacy campaign has developed a highly effective data management system which provides statistics on all learners, including each learner's biographical profile, assessment records and attendance. Each learner is given a unique identity number so that it is possible to find out about learners who repeat a course.[53] All learner records are uploaded onto the South African National Learner Record Database to enable tracking of learners.

When reviewing information on the impact and results of the large-scale campaigns and programmes analysed, it becomes clear that statistical data on literacy is weak in many countries. Available information on progress in adult literacy in countries with major literacy programmes for 2000–2011 (see Table 5 in the Annexes) shows a mixed picture: in fourteen out of thirty countries with data the number of non-literate adults has actually increased. Furthermore, in contrast to the celebratory discourse, even the results of short and intensive campaigns are often rather modest. This is demonstrated by the example of Venezuela which is discussed in some detail below.

In October 2005, the Venezuelan government declared the country an 'illiteracy-free territory' following the two-year national literacy campaign, Misión Robinson, which reported to have reached 1,482,543 persons with the Cuban Yo Sì Puedo method. Using data from the Venezuelan Household Surveys, which include self-reports on literacy, to evaluate official claims of having wiped out illiteracy and to assess the impact of the programme, Ortega and Rodríguez (2008, p.3) found evidence of 'at most, small positive literacy gains as a result of the program, though in many specifications the Misión Robinson program's impacts are statistically indistinguishable from zero'. One puzzling fact about the government's claim is that according to official statistics, the number of illiterate Venezuelans before the start of Misión Robinson was already below 1.5 million persons (1.08 million in 2001). In their still optimistic estimates, the

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[53] This is neither the case in Saakshar Bharat nor in AKRAB!.

authors calculate that the total number of people who became literate as a result of the programme was only 48,327. Since the Venezuelan government has invested US$50 million in Misión Robinson, the cost per newly literate person would be as high as US$1,035.[54]

The authors try to identify why such a large, well-funded and high-profile effort failed to generate visible reductions in illiteracy. One reason they identify is that the programme was never as large as the government claimed. Several characteristics of the programme's design seem to have contributed to its lack of success, such as politicization, inadequate incentives, and delays in payments to trainers. In addition, they suggest that the pedagogical approach to teaching and learning literacy needs to take on board recent neuro cognitive research evidence which the Yo Sí Puedo approach failed to do (Ortega and Rodríguez, 2008; Abadzi, 2003).

In the case of Nicaragua, according to the National Information System created by the Ministry of Education (MINED) for the National Literacy Campaign 'From Martí to Fidel' (2007–2009), on 30 June 2009 when the campaign was officially closed and the final report presented, the national illiteracy rate was 4.1%. The National Institute of Information on development (INIDE) had established through a survey in 2005 that 20.07% of the population aged 15 to 65 years old were illiterate (772,025 persons). According to these data, the three-year campaign achieved a 15.97% reduction in adult illiteracy in Nicaragua (Ministerio de Educación, 2009). The Basic Document of PIA estimated that in Ecuador 672,478 adults were in need of literacy instruction (OEI, 2006, p. 19). In 2009, a total of 601,998 persons were reported to have participated in literacy programmes (UNESCO, 2009, p. 36). In the report, however, no distinction is made between the number of people who attended courses and the number of people who actually became literate as a result. There is no information about how learners' achievements were assessed, whether there was a final exam, and if so, what the pass rate was.

In the case of Timor-Leste, according to population censuses in 2004 and 2010, the 15–24-year-old non-literate population decreased by 4% from 220,000 to 211,000, while in contrast the 25–64-year-old non-literate population increased by 2% from 376,000 to 385,000 (República Democrática de Timor-Leste/Ministry of Education, 2011, p. 233).

Nonetheless, the reliability of population censuses as a method of obtaining literacy data is limited. Usually the estimate of adult literacy rates is based on a single question phrased in very simple terms, such as 'Can you read and write?' or a variation on this. The statistics therefore rely on information that is self-reported or reported by someone on

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[54] This is extremely high for a three month programme such as Yo Sí Puedo. Jan Van Ravens and Carlos Aggio, who developed a model to calculate the unit cost of literacy programmes in Brazil, Burkina Faso and Uganda, arrived at USD151 as the highest value for making a rural learner above the age of 45 literate in Brazil (comparable to Venezuela) in 2004 (Van Ravens and Aggio, 2007).

behalf of an entire household, and not on direct measurement methods such as a standardized literacy test (UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, 2013, pp. 26-27).

The third-party evaluation of the Nepalese National Literacy Campaign Programme (NLCP) conducted by the National Planning Commission Secretariat in 2013 arrives at the overall conclusion that the NLCP is moderately satisfactory. Data presented in the evaluation report shows an 11% increase in the national literacy rate in 2011 compared to 2001, while in the target districts the literacy rate increased, on average, by 15.4%. Out of the ten target districts, Rasuwa, Solukhumbu, Myagdi and Terhathum achieved the target of reaching out to over 95% of the illiterate population above the age of 15. In these districts the literacy rates increased by between 15.4% (Terhathum) and 18.9% (Solukhumbu). On the other hand, in the remaining six districts (Bajura, Bardiya, Bhaktapur, Jajarkot, Mahottari and Tanahun), less than 95% of the targeted illiterate population were reached. The increase in literacy rates in these districts was lowest in Mahottari (6.9%) and highest in Jajarkot (18.8%) (Government of Nepal/National Planning Commission, 2013, p. 4). However, there is no analysis of the possible reasons for these variations across districts targeted by the same programme.

The National Plan of Action for EFA (2003) of Pakistan aims to achieve a 75% literacy rate by 2015 (revised target: 86%). In 10 years (2002/03 to 2012/13), the NCHD established 164,190 Adult Literacy Centres in 134 districts of Pakistan and enrolled 3.8 million illiterate adults, of whom 90% were women (NCHD, 2014). The NCHD reported the following achievements for the period from August 2002 to 2008: Over 120,263 Adult Literacy Centres were established; 2.76 million adults were made literate, of whom 90% were women; more than 150,000 teachers were trained in adult literacy teaching; about 100 civil society organizations and 2000 professionals were trained in the implementation of literacy programmes; and 12,000 literacy supervisors were trained in the management of literacy centres (NCHD/ PHDF, 2010, pp. 14-15).[55]

In the most recent progress report (2012–13), the NCHD announced the establishment of 164,190 Adult Literacy Centres in 134 districts and the enrolment of more than 3.8 million illiterate people in the 10 years prior to the publication of the report. This reflects a contribution of 2.95% to the improvement of Pakistan's overall literacy rate over the ten years concerned (NCHD, 2014).[56] If progress in addressing the existing literacy challenge in Pakistan – over 55 million adults – were to continue at this pace, another 145 years of literacy programme delivery would be required to complete the job! This shows that in highly populated countries with continued population

[55] Due to the cut in government funds in 2008 no literacy programmes were implemented from mid-2008. http://tribune.com.pk/story/551523/education-crisis-2/

[56] As one of the E-9 countries, Pakistan is still challenged by the 130,086,767 people aged 10+ who were reported to be non-literate (NIPS projections, 2013; in NCHD, 2014, p. 8).
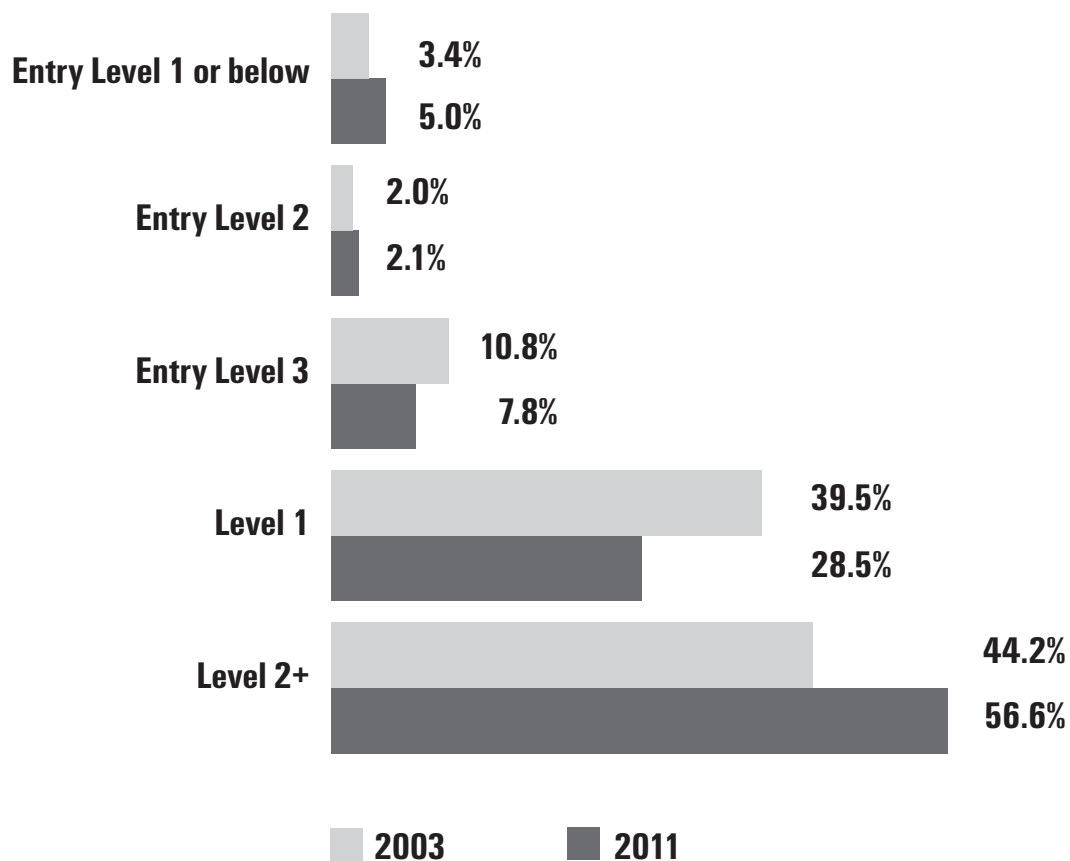
growth and weak formal education systems that perpetually produce new non-literates, literacy efforts need to multiply in order to cause a visible increase in national literacy rates.

In the case of Ghana, the long-running national literacy programme has contributed to improving the literacy rates over the past two decades in the following way. From 1992, when the programme started, until 2010, 2,781,973 learners participated, of whom 2,247,329 graduated. The average dropout rate was 19%. According to the Ghana Statistical Service, literacy rates increased from 57.4% in 2000 to 71.5% in 2010 (Abudu et al., 2013). However, this improvement cannot be attributed to governmental efforts alone, since other programmes have been implemented by both national and international NGOs (e.g. School for Life, Action Aid, Ghana Institute of Linguistics, Literacy and Bible Translation, and World Vision). None of these, however, have operated country-wide. Generally, the participation of women is higher than that of men: 60% and 40% respectively. Nevertheless, to achieve gender parity, it was estimated that 75% of the beneficiaries should be women. Drop-out rates among women have also been higher than among men (ODI/DFID, 2006).

A survey of 1,200 beneficiaries from 2000–2005 in Ghana showed strong achievements in reading skills, with 80% scoring 21–30 on a 30-point scale. Weaker achievement was observed in writing. Less than 40% could write a simple letter of a few paragraphs. The study raised concerns that many learners had lost a significant level of skill since completing the course, particularly since learning mostly takes place during the first year of programme enrolment, with only minimal further development in the subsequent year (Aoki, 2005). However there are other positive impacts to consider. For example, government officials believe that the national literacy programme has reinforced public health campaigns and had a positive impact on healthy lifestyles (ODI/DFID, 2006).

The national Skills for Life strategy for improving adult literacy and numeracy skills in the UK committed the Department for Education and Skills (DFES) to conducting two comparable surveys: the first in 2002–2003 to determine literacy and numeracy needs (DFES, 2003), and the second in 2011 to evaluate progress. [57] The first Skills for Life survey, the National Needs and Impact Survey of Literacy, Numeracy and ICT Skills, assessed adults' basic literacy, numeracy and ICT skills at five levels (Entry Level 1 or below, Entry Level 2, Entry Level 3, Level 1, and Level 2 or above) by using tests as a direct measurement method to establish a baseline. The second survey nine years later establishes the following changes of skills levels in the adult population (16–65 year-olds):

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[57] Responsibility for the Skills for Life strategy passed in 2009 to the Department for Business, Innovation and Skills (BIS).

Entry Level 1 or below
3.4%
5.0%

Entry Level 2
2.0%
2.1%

Entry Level 3
10.8%
7.8%

Level 1
39.5%
28.5%

Level 2+
44.2%
56.6%

2003   2011

Base: All respondents with literacy scores in 2003 (Unweighted=7874) / All with literacy scores in 2011 (Unweighted=5824)

Figure 2: Adult literacy in England 2011 and 2003 (Full Level Distribution)

Source: Department for Business, Innovation and Skills (BIS), 2011, p. 5

Overall, 57% of respondents achieved Level 2 or above in literacy, which corresponds to a 13% increase from 44% in 2003. 85% of respondents achieved Level 1 or above in literacy, and 15% of respondents performed at Entry Level 3 or below. Consequently, it is estimated that 29 million adults aged 16–65 in England had literacy skills at Level 1 or above, and 5.1 million at Entry Level 3 or below. In 2003 the equivalent figures were 84% and 16%. Whilst this represents a difference of 1.3 percentage points (14.9% compared with 16.2% when rounded to one decimal place), it is not statistically significant. In numeracy, 76% of respondents achieved Entry Level 3 or above, with 24% scoring below this level. This represents a decline of 3% in numeracy levels compared to 2003 (BIS, 2011, pp. 4-5). Except for the achievements at the higher levels, this represents no significant change since 2003. Progress among adults at the lower literacy and numeracy skills levels has been very modest, despite major and sustained governmental investments into the Skills for Life initiative.

The impact of large-scale literacy campaigns and programmes, however, is not restricted to the number of people who successfully pass a literacy test. Aside from the individual gains for graduates of literacy courses in terms of improvements in different life domains and personal empowerment (Metcalf et al., 2009), literacy campaigns may have a positive impact on the broader education policy and system. This is demonstrated by the example of Bolivia, to which we now turn.

The most important impact of the Bolivian literacy campaign (2006–08), according to Kepa Artaraz, was the way in which it has shaped educational policy in the country. A post-literacy campaign which began in March 2009 attracted far more people than had taken part in the basic literacy campaign. Whereas the original plan was to stop at the point of having 'eradicated illiteracy' via a two-year literacy campaign, the policy thinking of the Bolivian decision-makers evolved beyond this to providing basic primary education for the entire population and then introducing an accelerated secondary education programme. Policy aims have become much broader and more ambitious, aiming to increase the educational level of the majority of the population and create the basis for a comprehensive and holistic education system that is able to tackle the literacy challenge from different angles (Artaraz, 2012).

The example of Nepal shows that literacy programmes may also cause unintended political effects, contributing to civil unrest by providing a forum for people to criticize the dominant political structures. The term 'political benefits' of literacy is often related to citizenship education. However, the case of Nepal suggests that literacy interventions may also result in unintended political consequences. A number of young women in particular joined the Maoist cadres as a result (Robinson-Pant, 2010).

There is much anecdotal evidence of the impact of literacy programmes on women's empowerment. However, progress in terms of gender equity in adult literacy (see Table 6 in Annex) shows that, out of twenty-seven countries running large-scale literacy programmes for which data is available, only seventeen managed to reduce the number of

non-literate women. In ten countries the number of non-literate women has increased, according to data from the UNESCO Institute for Statistics. The LIFE Mid-term Report 2012 already showed a worrying trend, with twenty-one LIFE countries facing increases in the numbers of non-literate women, while only ten countries showed decreases (Hanemann, 2012, p. 28). It seems that much work remains to be done in this regard.

4.10 Continuity of learning opportunities ('post-literacy', adult basic education, equivalence), system development and institutionalization, recognized certificates

Continuity of learning opportunities – such as 'post-literacy' programmes, adult basic education programmes equivalent to formal basic education, or vocational skills training courses – and the development of literate environments are crucial to help learners sustain and further develop their newly acquired reading and writing skills. While in the last century 'post-literacy' and continuing learning opportunities were usually not part and parcel of the preparation for literacy campaigns, we can observe a trend during the last decade towards more and more national literacy programmes planned as building blocks of non-formal education systems, national qualifications systems, or at least of equivalency programmes. This means that they are designed to create bridges to follow-up courses and equivalency programmes, often leading to recognized certificates.

Often we can also observe that earlier large-scale programmes led to new initiatives and revised strategies, such as in India, South Africa and Brazil. Agneta Lind identifies a trend towards a certain institutionalization of adult basic education (Lind, 2008, p. 128). Many national literacy campaigns and programmes seem to make amendments to their strategy to service the demands of newly literate populations. This has been the case in the short-term campaigns in Latin America (i.e. Bolivia, Nicaragua and Venezuela), which led to follow-up courses. Although the national literacy campaign in Nicaragua was designed only for a short term (2007–2009), the final report claims that its vision included a longer-term perspective: namely, to develop a solid basis among literate people ('alfabetizados') to achieve Youth and Adult Basic Education in the medium-term future, while contributing to their personal development and economic growth and thus furthering poverty reduction (Ministerio de Educación, 2009, p. 3).

Many literacy programmes, even those running for a long time, do not seem to work towards the establishment of a non-formal education sub-system. They offer just one step further than basic literacy, often still called 'post-literacy'. For example, the National Functional Literacy Programme in Ghana encompasses two levels: basic literacy (in Ghanaian languages, 21 months) and post-literacy (Basic English, 21 months). In Pakistan, the National Commission for Human Development (NCHD) has initiated a six-month (132 days/264 learning hours) Post-Literacy Programme (PLP) to provide graduates of the Adult Literacy Programme (ALP) and out-of-school young people

with opportunities for continuing their education, leading to enrolment in formal primary, secondary or vocational education and engagement in secure income generation activities. Thus, as well as consolidating learners' literacy skills, the PLP also endeavours to empower them through functional literacy learning and vocational training. To this end, the PLP emphasizes training in, for example, literacy (mathematics, English, Urdu), health, agriculture (crop, fish, poultry and livestock production), life skills (peace-building, conflict management and resolution), food processing and preservation, and dressmaking (NCHD/PHDF, 2010).

The short-term goal of Timor-Leste's NESP 2011–2030 is as follows: 'By 2015, completely eradicate illiteracy in all age groups of the population and complete the introduction of the National Equivalence Programme (NEP) that will allow accelerated completion of Basic Education for all graduates of Recurrent Education' (República Democrática de Timor-Leste/ Ministry of Education, 2011, p. 115). The Timorese government plans to build a non-formal education sub-system for adults to obtain recognized primary and secondary school certificates through an equivalency programme which is already being piloted (ibid., p. 36).

The smooth transition of graduates from basic literacy courses to follow-up learning opportunities remains a challenge in many cases. Often, learners have no access to related information, counselling and guidance, particularly in the context of short courses. The evaluation report of the Nepalese NLCP established that only 4.5% of the literacy graduates interviewed knew about the opportunity to use their newly acquired skills in the community learning centre (CLC) that has been put in place, and only 56.6% of those who did, actually visited CLCs (Government of Nepal/National Planning Commission, 2013, pp. 10-11). In other cases, such as the Brazil Alfabetizado Programme, not enough places are available for learners to further their studies, and such opportunities are very rare in rural areas.

Even in a country with a sophisticated National Qualifications Framework like South Africa, where integration is possible into the non-formal Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) Programme equivalent to nine years of General Education, the transition from the Kha Ri Gude campaign to the ABET system poses challenges. In order to boost its effectiveness, Kha Ri Gude was designed as an independent system which is not organically integrated into the non-formal education system. The transfer of learners from Kha Ri Gude to ABET requires a more systemic and institutionalized approach in order to make the gains of the campaign sustainable (Hanemann, 2011).

5. FOUR CASE STUDIES

5.1   Brazil: Literate Brazil Programme (Programa Brasil Alfabetizado)[58]

CONTEXT AND BACKGROUND

The government of Brazil reported to UIS a literacy rate of 88.4% for the adult population (15 years and above) for the years 2000–2004. Divided by sex, the rate was 88.3% for men and 88.6% for women. In absolute numbers, 14,870,000 adults lacked reading and writing skills in this period.[59] For the same period (2000–2004) the youth literacy rate (15–24 years old) was 96.6% (95.6% for young men and 97.7% for young women). Altogether, 1,180,000 young people were affected by a lack of reading and writing skills at that time (UNESCO, 2005). Most members of the non-literate adult population are male, black, 60 or over, and live in rural areas of the Northeast of Brazil (Ministry of Education of Brazil, 2010). According to the most recent data (2005–2011), the adult literacy rate stands at 90% (90% for men and 91% for women). 13,984,000 adults are still not literate.[60] The youth literacy rate has reached 98% (97% for young men and 98% for young women). Thus, 836,000 young people still lack literacy skills (UNESCO, 2014). Progress has therefore been modest: the adult literacy rate has improved by only 1.6%, and the youth rate by 1.4%, between 2000–2004 and 2005–2011.

In 2003, the Government of President 'Lula' da Silva initiated the Literate Brazil Programme (Programa Brasil Alfabetizado – PBA) as a nationally coordinated literacy effort. The programme reflects a new conception of public policy, recognizing the obligation of the State to guarantee education as a universal right. At that time, Alfabetização Solidária was already running as one of the first long-term, nationwide youth and adult literacy programmes. Launched in 1997, the programme is managed by the NGO Associação Alfabetização Solidária (AlfaSol) and works through a network of public-private partners.[61] With the launch of PBA the Federal Government, particularly the Ministry of Education, took the lead in literacy as part of a broader strategy of public policies towards the inclusion of historically excluded social groups in mainstream society. Since 2003 adult literacy has been a 'Presidential Goal' (Ministry of Education of Brazil, 2010).

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[58] See LitBase: http://www.unesco.org/uil/litbase/?menu=16&country=BR&programme=50

[59] In 2004, IBGE (Instituto Brasileiro do Geografía e Estatística) recorded the figure of 15.6 million adult Brazilians (age 15 and over) who were illiterate (Ministry of Education of Brazil, 2010, p. 2).

[60] According to the National Random Household Survey (PNAD) in 2008, the number of illiterate adults had declined to 14.25 million, with a drop in illiteracy from 11.45% to 9.96% during this period.

[61] http://www.unesco.org/uil/litbase/?menu=16&country=BR&programme=1

DEVELOPMENT OF PBA, INSTITUTIONAL SETTING AND MAIN FEATURES OF IMPLEMENTATION

The objectives of PBA are: 1) to contribute to the universalization of literacy among young people, adults and older adults in Brazil, and to support the continuation of their studies to higher levels; and 2) to collaborate in the efforts of the federal districts and municipalities to universalize basic education. PBA is a joint venture between the Federal Government, state/local governments, municipalities, universities and private agencies (mainly private schools). The Federal Government is primarily responsible for providing technical and financial support, while the other partners focus on implementing the literacy programme in the communities.

Over more than ten years of existence, PBA has experienced adjustments and changes, based on studies and evaluations. In its first version (2003–2004) the programme was carried out through partnerships with states, municipalities and the Federal District and agreements with civil society organizations, with funds transferred directly to public institutions upon approval of their literacy projects and registration of learners and literacy teachers, as well as accreditation by the National Education Development Fund (FNDE) and agreements in the case of private entities. The second version of PBA (2004–2006), developed in dialogue with the National Literacy Commission, began with the creation of the Secretariat for Continuing Education, Literacy and Diversity (SECAD) within the Ministry of Education. SECAD's responsibility was the coordination of youth and adult literacy and education policies. The intention was to broaden the focus of literacy acquisition with a view to the continuation of the learners' education. At the same time, an attempt was made to diversify provision to cater for specific learning needs.

Between 2006 and 2007 the PBA was restructured for the third time.[62] One of the most salient features of the new restructuring was the stipulation that only municipal and state governments can be direct programme partners.[63] This change was intended to reduce the remaining obstacles preventing PBA graduates from continuing their education within the public youth and adult education system. NGOs, which had previously made agreements with the Ministry of Education to provide literacy classes, began to provide only training of literacy teachers and class coordinators, through agreements made with states and municipalities. A second innovation refers to the transfer of funds: the grants for literacy teachers began to be paid directly by the

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[62] Decree No. 6093 (April 2007) deals with the reorganization of PBA with the aim of achieving universal coverage of literacy provision for young people and adults. The transfer of financial resources to states, the Federal District and municipalities was regulated by Resolution No. 12 of 03 April 2009 (Ministry of Education of Brazil, 2010, p. 6).

[63] The partnerships and participation rate of NGOs fell progressively between 2003 and 2006 (Ministry of Education of Brazil, 2010).

Ministry of Education. In addition, the position of pedagogical coordinators as public servants was introduced.

The Department of Youth and Adult Education Policy (DPEJA) is directly responsible for planning and implementing PBA. The DPEJA is part of the newly (2004) created SECAD within the Ministry of Education. The programme is developed in partnership with state and municipal governments, who are in turn free to contract NGOs for literacy work or technical support. Public State and Federal Universities are now financed by the Ministry of Education to offer training courses for literacy teachers, making use of both distance education methodologies and in-service/face-to-face courses.

In partnership with the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Health implements the Olhar Brasil project which offers ophthalmological examinations and eyeglasses for learners participating in PBA. During the 2009–2010 cycle, the programme served around half of the enrolled learners (Ministry of Education of Brazil, 2010).

Over the last decade, each state has set up its own state forum for adult and youth education involving all actors engaged in youth and adult literacy work: local and state governments, universities, social and popular movements.[64] These have contributed to raising public awareness, as well as providing forums for debate and social control of public policy. Formal meetings are held with representatives of the forums twice a year. Together, forums and the Ministry organize a national annual meeting on youth and adult education. In 2003 the Ministry created the National Literacy and Youth and Adult Education Commission (CNAEJA), which is made up of representatives of state and municipal governments, universities, trade unions, NGOs, international agencies and other stakeholders. It serves as a consultative group on literacy matters and meets four times a year. The ministry also holds twice yearly meetings with state coordinators of youth and adult education to discuss policy and its implementation.

The main goal of PBA is to target socially disadvantaged groups such as indigenous populations, fishermen, workers in the fishing industry, small farmers, seasonal workers in rural areas, women, prison inmates, child labourers, people with disabilities and the poverty-affected populations involved in the Family Grant Programme. PBA operates throughout the country, with a priority focus on the 1,928 municipalities that have illiteracy rates of 25% or above.

In 2008 the Ministry of Education created the 'Territorial Agenda' in each state, which included the task to 'articulate and integrate the literacy programme with its continuity in youth and adult school education programmes' (Ministry of Education

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[64] Amongst those involved in formulating and promoting educational activities are religious, trade union and social movements, student organizations, neighbourhood associations, youth groups and clubs for older adults and a host of similar organizations (Ireland, 2009).

of Brazil, 2010, p. 6). In addition, in 2009, the Governors of the States with the highest illiteracy levels signed a pact with President Lula to give literacy priority treatment in the period 2009–2011, to guarantee placement for literacy programme graduates in basic adult education classes, and to improve the efficiency of this strategy.

As a federal programme, PBA is financed by the central government in partnership with municipal and state governments who are responsible for its execution. State and municipal governments present projects which are the basis for the resources transferred from the central government. In addition, the ministry passes resources to their partners to cover the costs of initial and in-service training of literacy workers, literacy textbooks, reading material for newly-literates, stationery, meals and transport. The federal government pays a monthly grant directly to literacy workers (who are considered volunteers), to coordinators responsible for a fixed number of classes, and to sign language interpreters. In many cases state and municipal partners also invest local resources. From 2003 to 2009 SECAD invested the total amount of US$949,149,309 in PBA, intended to serve 26,049,180 learners (ibid., pp. 7–8).

MANAGEMENT OF PBA

In order to accompany and monitor PBA, SECAD has developed the online Literate Brazil System (Sistema Brasil Alfabetizado – SBA). This multi-use software, which involves the three levels of public administration (federal, state, and municipal), collects information on programme performance, accompanies the payment of grants, and conducts technical and pedagogical analysis of projects, as well as managing, implementing and supervising the programme in all of its phases. A service centre provides technical support to PBA partners for partner mobilization, for the rapid collection of specific information, and for the application of short questionnaires in support of management, monitoring and evaluation of the programme.

As partners, municipalities and states present their 'theoretical-methodological proposal', their budgetary proposal, and the goals to be accomplished. They further indicate which institution will carry out the training, which in turn provides its Training Plan to the system. It is the task of SECAD to verify the proposals and the consistency of the goals in order to formalize the partnership. SECAD has developed an operational manual for PBA, detailed guidelines for the training of coordinators and literacy teachers, and a resolution with instructions, criteria and procedures for the transfer of PBA's financial resources to the states and municipalities, as well as the payment of volunteer teachers.

SECAD has created differentiated grants for literacy trainers working with learners with special needs, such as disabled persons, prison inmates or young people carrying out socio-educational sentences, and Brazilian Sign Language interpreters. Teacher training is the responsibility of partners, who are required to offer both initial and

continued training. For each ten classes there is a coordinator who is responsible for accompanying and monitoring the group's pedagogical and administrative activities. In 2009 and 2010, the Ministry of Education reported that 18,291 literacy instructors, coordinators and managers were trained in youth and adult education.

On average, 1.3 million learners enrol in the programme each year. The Ministry of Education has developed a series of radio and television campaigns to raise public awareness about literacy and to encourage non-literates to take part in the Literate Brazil Programme (Ministry of Education of Brazil, 2010). Efforts are made to make the programme accessible to persons with special needs. For example, the government contracts Brazilian Sign Language (LIBRAS) interpreters and offers learning material in Braille. The territorial coverage (currently PBA is implemented in more than 3,500 municipalities) allows the programme to reach out to rural populations in remote areas with high illiteracy rates.[65] Concerted efforts are also made not only to ensure that learners remain on the programme, but also that they continue their studies over the longer term. The Ministry of Education caters for the provision of adequate teaching and learning materials, food and transport to literacy centres, in order to strengthen the learning environment and, by extension, motivate learners to persevere in their courses.

PROGRAMME DESIGN

Literacy classes lasting between six and eight months are attended by groups of eighteen to twenty-five learners under the guidance of trained teachers. Local partners (states and municipalities) are free to determine the content of both materials and teaching methodologies. However, content should include literacy and numeracy and be based on learners' interests and social-cultural context. SECAD has invested in the production of a collection of textbooks for youth and adult education, as well as previously unpublished works aimed at new readers through the Literature for All programme and an annual Literature for All Contest (since 2006). The Ministry of Education makes available to all literacy training students and teachers a list of manuals assessed and rated by a specialist team as appropriate for the youth and adult education public. Literacy classes and all materials are provided in Portuguese. Some materials are produced in Braille for blind learners.

Cognitive test resources are made available so that learning outcomes can be assessed. The results are used to improve teaching and learning activities. The Ministry

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[65] Data provided by António Lidio de Mattos Zambon, General Coordinator of Literacy, MEC/SECAD/DPAEJA, 17 April 2014. Priority is given to the 1,928 municipalities with an illiteracy rate of 25% or above, of which 90% are located in the North-East of Brazil. These municipalities receive technical support in programme implementation, particularly to ensure continuity of learning for the newly literate population (Mendonça et al., 2014).

of Education is responsible for providing the programme entry and exit (diagnostic) tests. These are produced by consultants from federal universities belonging to the Literacy Teacher Training Network and serve as the basis for official accreditation of learning outcomes.

RESULTS

Day-to-day monitoring is carried out using the online Literate Brazil System. All information related to local literacy plans, details of coordinators, literacy teachers, learners, classrooms, schedules of classes, and the results of pre- and post-cognitive assessment tests are recorded in the system. For each individual learner the system can provide information on his or her teacher and where he or she studies (including the address) using GPS services.

SECAD is implementing an Assessment Plan to monitor the performance of PBA, which is internally coordinated by the Department of Studies and Evaluation of Educational Vulnerabilities and externally supported by the University of Brasilia Literacy, Reading and Writing Centre, the Paulo Montenegro Institute and the Institute for Applied Economic Research. The methodologies and research instruments are the result of a collective process. The creation of a Reference Framework for the evaluation of PBA participants was a major step forward as it enabled the development of benchmarks and equivalencies between PBA graduates and learners from other educational programmes (Ribeiro, 2011).

The PBA Diagnostic Assessment assesses the reading, writing and numeracy competencies of learners when they enter and leave the programme. From 2003 to 2007 the total number of learners initially enrolled was 8,368,518 (Ribeiro, 2011).[66] From 2008 to 2012 the Brazilian Ministry of Education reported the following figures:

Table 6: Target population of national literacy campaigns and programmes as expressed explicitly in official documents

Year	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2008–2012
Initial enrolment	1,384,053	1,938,867	1,589,224	1,397,335	1,113,450	7,422,929
Final enrolment	883,583	1,318,599	1,339,085	1,098,595	(*)	4,640,434
No. of learners who passed the final evaluation test	424,222	598,794	632,255	513,147	(*)	2,168,714

(*) The cycle 2012 is still in execution and will be finalized in August 2014
Source: MEC/SECAD/DPAEJA [67]

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[66] From 2003 to 2006 PBA was also delivered through NGOs. The requirement to report on final enrolment was only established from 2008 onwards.

[67] Data provided by António Lidio de Mattos Zambon, General Coordinator of Literacy, MEC/SECAD/DPAEJA, 17 April 2014.

The results of a UIS survey on adult education and literacy programmes in Latin America and the Caribbean show that only 3.8% of adult illiterates in Brazil were participating in a literacy programme in 2009 (UIS, 2013b, p. 12). Even if it is not possible to establish how many PBA graduates continue their learning within the adult basic education system, the survey indicates that 3.1% of the target population had access to and participated in primary adult education programmes and 4.3% in secondary adult education programmes in 2010 (ibid., pp. 21-22). Altogether it can be concluded that PBA and adult education programmes reach only a modest segment of the target population. According to a national report on progress in the implementation of the recommendations adopted in the 6th International Conference on Adult Education (CONFINTEA VI), submitted by the Brazilian Government in 2012 to the UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, PBA reached only 14.74% of the potential target population in need of literacy instruction (14,104,984 people). The percentage of the potential target populations in need of adult primary and secondary education who were reached by the programme is even lower, at 6.09% and 7.45% respectively.[68]

LIFELONG LEARNING PERSPECTIVE

Despite its strong focus on literacy, the Brazilian government has attempted to establish a strategy that sees initial literacy only as a gateway to further learning. PBA started as a campaign that proposed to 'eradicate illiteracy' in Brazil in a short time.[69] Previous experiences with such campaigns in the country had revealed that the model was not effective for this purpose. Sustainable literacy is only guaranteed if the newly-literate continue their learning process by entering the adult basic education programmes (equivalent to formal education) that should follow basic literacy acquisition. Public provision of youth and adult basic education in the early grades is seen as essential. However, since the beginning of PBA this has been a major challenge (Ribeiro, 2011). Due to a lack of adult basic education schools, PBA graduates find it difficult to follow-up on their studies. They find themselves 'competing' with persons with low levels of schooling who have dropped out before completing grade 4. In order to ensure that PBA learners continue their studies, SECAD and the Ministry of Education maintain close relationships with state and municipal education authorities to strengthen their commitment to providing study places for first and second-level courses (equivalent to formal primary and secondary education) within the public youth and adult education system.

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[68] Sources: School Census 2010; PNAD 2009; SBA 2009. Available at:
http://uil.unesco.org/fileadmin/download/en/national-reports/latin-america-and-caribbean/Brazil.pdf
[69] Goal No.1 of the National Education Plan (2000) committed the Brazilian government to 'establish, through approval of the National Education Plan, programmes aimed at achieving literacy for 10 million young people and adults in five years, and by the end of the decade to eradicate illiteracy' (Ministry of Education of Brazil, 2010, p. 6).

The sustainability of PBA is guaranteed by a legislative and policy framework at the federal level as well as by commitment from states and municipalities to actions that include setting up a professional team to oversee the programme in each location, providing the infrastructure needed for literacy courses to take place, and, in some cases, investing their own resources to fund additional provision. The existence of institutionalized forms of participation and dialogue with civil society (CNAEJA, forums) further contributes to the sustainability of the programme. CNAEJA advises the Ministry of Education in the formulation and implementation of national literacy and of youth and adult policies and actions. It is complemented by state- and district-level commissions of the 'Territorial Agenda of Integrated Development of Literacy and Youth and Adult Education', which allow for structured and institutionalized joint action on the part of public authorities and civil society in order to cover the programme's needs.[70] In addition, the State Forums of Adult and Youth Education have been responsible for generating a national movement capable of promoting dialogue between the government and civil society to negotiate opposing visions of adult and youth education in the last decade (Ireland, 2009).

5.2   India: Saakshar Bharat Mission[71]

CONTEXT AND BACKGROUND

India's population of 1,236,687 (2011, UIS) is multicultural and multilingual, with 300 to 400 languages and about ten major writing systems (Sridhar and Kachru, 2000). Twenty-two languages are recognized by the constitution (Ministry of Home Affairs). Hindi written in Devanagari script and English written in Latin script are the official languages of the country (Ministry of Human Resource Development of India 2010, Ministry of Home Affairs).

The literacy rate is based on the following definition: 'A person aged 7 and above who can both read and write with understanding in any language' (Population Census 2001, UIS). The latest figures from 2006 on literacy in India record a youth (15–24 years old) literacy rate of 81.13%, compared to 76.4% in 2001. For both statistics the literacy rate for women is lower than for men. India's adult (15–59 years old) literacy rate is lower, at 61.01% in 2001 and 62.75% in 2006, again with a lower rate for women. The age group 65+ has the lowest literacy rate, especially for women.[72] Illiteracy is highest in rural areas and among economically and educationally disadvantaged groups.

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[70] http://uil.unesco.org/fileadmin/download/en/national-reports/latin-america-and-caribbean/Brazil.pdf
[71] See LitBase http://www.unesco.org/uil/litbase/?menu=14&country=IN&programme=132
[72] UIS Data base, http://data.uis.unesco.org/

The Indian government would like to see that all people in India are literate as stipulated in the National Policy on Education of 1986 (Ministry of Human Resource Development, 2010). In 1988 it created the National Literacy Mission to address this task.[73] Inspired by the success of the 'area-specific, time-bound, voluntary-based campaign approach, first in Kottayam city and then in Ernakulum district in Kerala in 1990, the National Literacy Mission had accepted literacy campaigns as the dominant strategy for the eradication of illiteracy'.[74] The Mission began with the so called 'Total Literacy Campaigns', which were changed in 1999 to basic literacy campaigns and post-literacy programmes (the latter aiming to prepare learners for continuing education). The National Literacy Mission Authority was set up as an independent wing of the Department of School Education and Literacy. Its purpose is to coordinate adult literacy programmes at national level that are funded and managed by the government (Ministry of Human Resource Development, 2010).

Saakshar Bharat, a new variant of the National Literacy Mission, was launched by the Prime Minister, Manmohan Singh, on 8 September 2009. Initially the programme was planned to run until the end of 2012. However, it has now been included in the XII Five Year Plan (2012–17).

DEVELOPMENT OF SAAKSHAR BHARAT MISSION, INSTITUTIONAL SETTING AND MAIN FEATURES OF IMPLEMENTATION

Saakshar Bharat is the centrally sponsored nationwide literacy programme of the Indian Department for School Education and Literacy (DSEL) of the Ministry of Human Resources and Development. Public awareness and acceptance for the programme have been raised through extensive use of different forms of mass media (Ministry of Human Resource Development of India, 2010). The programme aims to significantly reduce the number of non-literate adults, particularly women, in India, and to foster an environment within communities that encourages lifelong learning. The programme´s focus is on reducing gender disparity and thereby achieving the government's target of an 80% national literacy rate. This was planned to be achieved through the provision of functional literacy to 70 million more people, of whom 60 million are women. The aim is not only to promote women's literacy skills but 'to link it with empowerment of women, and thereby achieve inclusive growth in the socio-cultural, economic and political spheres' (Ministry of Human Resource Development, 2010, p. 7). In addition, Saakshar Bharat aims to reach 1.5 million adults with its basic education programme and the same number with its vocational skills development

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[73] http://www.nlm.nic.in/
[74] www.nlm.nic.in/intro_nlm.htm

programme (Ministry of Human Resource Development of India, 2010). The scheme may be considered for extension during the XIII Five Year Plan, if the Government of India so decides.[75]

MANAGEMENT OF SAAKSHAR BHARAT

Saakshar Bharat is distinguished by collaboration all the way through from national to village level. Accountability, transparency and decentralization have been essential features of the planning and management process. The total budget for the programme between 2009 and 2012 was US$1.2bn, with the national government providing 75% of the costs and district governments covering the remaining 25%. The allocation of funds for basic literacy is based on the number of non-literate adults in each district. All districts with an adult literacy rate of 50% or lower (Census 2001) are covered under the programme.

The mission has devised a comprehensive, transparent financial management system which enhances accountability, ensures uninterrupted availability of funds, facilitates regulation and monitors the flow of resources. This is especially important in terms of accountability for public expenditure. To meet this requirement a customized Funds and Accounts Management System was constructed, featuring a Fund Flow System, Customized Banking System, Online Accounting System, and MIS. The Fund Flow System removes the requirement for submission of reports, as expenditure details are available online. It ensures real time monitoring and availability of adequate funds for every implementing agency. The system also allows identification of both good performers and laggards in terms of expenditure. The Online Accounting System ensures that the Mission's implementing agencies always receive grants when required, that funds are not left unused, and that the executing agencies maintain regular, trustworthy accounts.

Whilst funding is coordinated via a predominantly centralized model, implementation of the programme is decentralized. Each district is responsible for regional planning and for each local body (Gram Panchayat). The Panchayat Raj Institutions are the main implementing agency at the district, block and Gram Panchayat levels. They are responsible for the establishment and provision of facilities for the Adult Education Centres. All stakeholders, especially at community level, have a say in the planning and implementation of the programme. The village bodies are responsible for preparation of literacy financial planning at the village level. The plan entails conducting a household survey in every village, data collection, mass mobilization, training schedules,

[75] Information provided by Dr Nasim Ahmad, Assistant Educational Advisor, D/o School Education and Literacy, Ministry of Human Resource Development, India, 25 April 2014.

procurement and distribution of learning materials, evaluation of learning outcomes, budgetary requirements. Aggregation of village plans leads to State-level preparation and ultimately to the national plan.

Adult Education Centres (AEC) are responsible for the organization and delivery of classes. One AEC is set up in every village, manned by two paid coordinators, at least one of whom is a woman. This reflects the drive to encourage and reinforce gender equality throughout the programme, including its core implementation, planning and management structures. The centre offers various services, including registration, a venue for teaching, a library and reading rooms. It is also used as a centre for promoting and practising sports, adventure and cultural activities.

PROGRAMME DESIGN

The programme places emphasis on development of its human resources through ongoing training of teachers, literacy facilitators and supervisors. Key resource personnel at district level are provided with managerial training, whilst volunteer teachers are given in-service training in local languages and the methodology and practice of teaching adults. Saakshar Bharat employs a large number of Volunteer Literacy Educators to help reach the overall target of 70 million literates.

Where qualified volunteers are not resident within a particular village, instructors may be engaged from outside to live with the community and provide instructional teaching. On average, one resident instructor is required to teach thirty learners over a year. Through this approach the centre functions for seven to eight hours every day and groups of learners attend classes for a couple of hours or more, depending on their available free time. The curriculum includes Core Content (CC) based on the broad National Curricular Framework for Adult Education, and Locally Relevant Content (LRC), produced in the locally dominant language. For each group and area identified to benefit from the programme, there is a specific community-centred target, approach and strategy. Gender is considered in conjunction with caste, ethnicity, religion and disability.

Learning material is developed by identifying the needs and interests of learners to ensure relevance. Materials are developed by adult educators and subject experts based on the topics learners identify as being of interest to them. These are scrutinized at national level review meetings by the Quality Assurance Committee. After finalization the material is field-tested and revised for improvement before eventually becoming teaching material. Alongside literacy, the core content encourages awareness of values such as democracy and gender equality. The locally relevant content is linked to the learner's livelihood and socio-cultural realities, involving issues such as health and hygiene, agriculture, animal husbandry, local self-government, forest protection and other ecological themes.

Assessing and certifying the competency levels of neo-literates is a crucial feature of the Saakshar Bharat Mission. Learners typically undergo 300 hours of tuition to

reach basic literacy. The assessment aims to recognize achievements and enable learners to take part in further education opportunities. The tests are based on guidelines framed by the National Institute for Open Schooling (NIOS). Certificates are issued within 60 days and all results made available on the NIOS website.

RESULTS

The efficient management of the Mission is dependent on robust real-time monitoring. Each level of governance is responsible for the monitoring and evaluation of all units beneath it. Saakshar Bharat involves about 200,000 implementing agencies. In order to reach out to them, the National Informatics Centre (NIC) has developed a Web Based Planning and Monitoring Information System (WePMIS), a customized web-based system for planning, monitoring and impact analysis. This system allows Adult Education Centres to update information about the progress of each of the courses, tutors and learners online, improving efficiency in evaluations of the programme's impact. From 2011 onwards all of the online data has been accessible to the public, encouraging engagement and an understanding of progress within a given area. It facilitates citizen feedback by providing information about the enrolled learners, including assessment and certification. Using the online feedback system, the ground situation can be appropriately evaluated and corrective interventions made by programme managers at the appropriate levels. WePMIS Training has been provided to users at all levels. E-infrastructure such as computer and broadband connectivity has been provided up to block level. These facilities need to be extended to the village level.

In its Annual Report 2012–13 (pp. 81–83), the Department of School Education and Literacy reports the following achievements since 2009:

> the programme was expanded to 372 districts in 25 states
> 1,05,054 Adult Education Centres have been set up
> about 9000 resource persons have been trained
> about 25 million basic literacy primers have been distributed for use by the literacy learners
> total enrolment in basic literacy was around 11.7 million by December 2012

According to the latest data provided by the Ministry of Human Resource Development for the period of August 2010 to August 2013 (seven batches of learners), a total number of 33,921,633 Basic Literacy Programme learners appeared at the National Institute of Open Schooling (NIOS) to take the final exam.[76] Of these, 24,734,705 (73%) passed.

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[76] Information provided by Dr Nasim Ahmad, Assistant Educational Advisor, D/o School Education and Literacy, Ministry of Human Resource Development, India, 25 April 2014.

However, there are no data on how many of the total participants in the literacy programme presented for the final exam (or on how many of those who did not should be considered 'drop-outs').

The 2011 census shows an increase in the literacy rate in India from 64.84% in 2001 to 74.04% in 2011 and a reduction in the male-female literacy gap from 21.59% to 16.68%. Virtually all areas of India have reported a rise in literacy rates from 2001–11. The number of illiterates has decreased from 304.15 million to 272.95 million.

LIFELONG LEARNING PERSPECTIVE

The Annual Report 2012–13 of the Department of School Education and Literacy announces that Saakshar Bharat will be included in the national twelfth Five Year Plan (2012 to 2017). The aim is to achieve a 'paradigm shift from basic literacy to lifelong learning with the aim of improving knowledge, skills and competence within personal, civic social and for employment selected perspective (sic). The focus is not only on non-formal education but on establishing strong linkages with the formal system with mechanisms for recognizing prior learning and accreditation' (Department of School Education and Literacy, Department of Higher Education, Ministry of Human Resource Development, n.d. p. 167). The literacy programmes of the ninth and tenth Five Year Plans targeted the age group 15–35 years. This was extended during the eleventh Plan to all age groups (Ministry of Human Resource Development, 2010). Literacy and vocational programmes are also linked to the wider national development frameworks and the National Vocational Qualifications Framework as part of equivalency programmes (Singh, 2013).

5.3 South Africa: Kha Ri Gude Adult Literacy Programme[77]

CONTEXT AND BACKGROUND

According to data submitted by the Ministry of Education to UIS, a total of 89% of adults (aged 15 and over) were estimated to be literate in 2005–2008 (90% of men and 88% of women). In absolute numbers, this means that 3,790,000 adults had not mastered reading and writing skills during the same period. For the youth age group (15–24) a total of 97% were literate (96% of men and 98% of women). 322,000 people in this age group were affected by illiteracy. Three years later (2005–2011), a total of 93% of South African adults were reported to be literate: 94% of men and 92% of women. In absolute numbers, 2,474,000 adults were still illiterate during the period 2005–2011,

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[77] See LitBase: http://www.unesco.org/uil/litbase/?menu=13&country=ZA&programme=69

while the youth literacy rate increased to 99% (98% of men and 99% of women). In absolute numbers, 122,000 young people remained illiterate in 2005–2011 (UNESCO, 2011 and 2014).

Since its democratization in 1994 South Africa has implemented several literacy and adult education programmes, including the South African National Literacy Initiative (SANLI), launched by the national Education Department in 2000, and the Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) programme, which was introduced into the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) in 2000 via the Adult Basic Education and Training Act. The ABET programme consists of a variety of outcomes-based, basic educational programmes and courses that specifically target adult learners. These programmes were intended to empower socially disadvantaged groups who had been excluded by the Apartheid system. A study by the Ministerial Committee on Literacy (June 2006) established that about 9.6 million adults (24%) were still functionally illiterate. Of these, 4.7 million had never attended school and could not read and write at all. The study also revealed that the illiteracy rate was significantly higher in non-white communities and among women. The recommendations of the Ministerial Committee on Literacy prompted the government of South Africa to institute the Kha Ri Gude (Let Us Learn – KRG) mass literacy campaign, which was launched by the Education Minister in April 2008.

DEVELOPMENT OF KRG, INSTITUTIONAL SETTING AND MAIN FEATURES OF IMPLEMENTATION

KRG is an integrated and multilingual mass adult literacy campaign which is being implemented across the entire country by the South African government through the Department of Basic Education. The target was to enable 4.7 million illiterate and semi-literate adults to become literate and numerate in one of the 11 official languages by 2012. This was intended to reduce the national illiteracy rate by 50% by 2015. These objectives were presented by the Department of (Basic) Education in a Cabinet meeting in July 2007 as part of a Strategic Plan and an Operational Plan for the Mass Literacy Campaign (Department of Education, 2007a and 2007b) prepared by the Ministerial Advisory Committee. The Plan established three phases for the 'eradication of illiteracy':

Phase 1 (2007): Organizational set-up, materials development, campaign announcements
Phase 2 (2008–2010): Intensive implementation of literacy campaign to reach 3.22 million
Phase 3 (2011–2012): Reach another 1.48 million ('mop up'), UNESCO review, continuing programmes for newly literates

The Plan includes a rationale, operational principles, learning outcomes, structures and processes for governance, organizational coordination, curriculum, materials and training, monitoring, evaluation and research, as well as the requirements for Phase 1 and budget estimates. The organizational structure is divided into five levels (national, provincial,

district, local and site). Governance is overseen by an Inter-Ministerial Committee which governs the campaign organization through the legal constitution of a 'section company'. While the latter is firmly located within public service as defined in the Public Service Act, it should be sufficiently autonomous from departmental line functions and should focus exclusively on the campaign. The National Literacy Secretariat at national level is composed of four committees (curriculum committee, training committee, materials development committee and research committee), and complemented at the decentralized levels by Provincial Literacy Secretariats and District Literacy Coordination Units. Key staff include monitors (district level), coordinators (local level) and facilitators (site level) (Department of Education 2007a and 2007b).

KRG has built strategic partnerships which involve sharing government resources to improve outreach to specially challenged learners such as blind people. A member of the South African Council for the Blind has been employed as a coordinator who can feed back what he has learned to the Council (Hanemann, 2011). As an inclusive campaign, KRG targets every adult person with little or no formal education. However, special efforts are made to target marginalized social groups such as women, young people and people with disabilities . Of the 620,000 learners enrolled in KRG in 2009, about 80% were women, 25% were young people and 8% had disabilities. In addition, a majority of learners came from poor urban informal settlements and rural areas. Almost all were unemployed or self-employed.

The government has committed six billion Rand (about US$780 million) to fund the campaign over a period of five years (2008–2012). In the Operational Plan the budget estimate was Rands 5,295,000,000 (about US$537 million) for five years and Rands 1,165 per learner (about US$118) (Department of Education, 2007b).

MANAGEMENT OF KRG

For the effective implementation of KRG campaign, the Department of Basic Education has recruited and trained about 75,000 community-based volunteer coordinators, supervisors and educators or literacy training facilitators, including 100 blind and 150 deaf educators who provide specialized instruction to illiterates with disabilities. Of these, about two-thirds are under 35, 80% are women, and 85% were previously unemployed. All were recruited from the same communities as the learners they serve. Only candidates with a minimum of Grade 12 education and qualified professionals are recruited and trained to serve as programme facilitators. About half of the volunteers (coordinators, supervisors and educators) have one or more tertiary educational qualifications (university degree/diploma in ABET) and many years of field experience. The campaign is building on the professional capacity in adult literacy and education which has been developed country-wide over almost two decades (through, for example, distance courses at the University of South Africa specifically developed to train

adult educators for the ABET Programme). KRG is therefore harvesting the fruits of a long-term investment in developing human resources in adult education.

As KRG has created more than 40,000 short-term jobs, mainly in rural areas with high unemployment rates, it has been awarded an additional R45 million for 2011 from the Expanded Public Works Programme run by the Department of Labour. The campaign has therefore stimulated other government sectors to invest in literacy (Hanemann, 2011).

Facilitators are provided with basic initial training in various aspects of adult education, including adult-appropriate teaching/learning methods, classroom management, how to use learning material and moderate the learning process, and how to conduct assessment activities. In addition, they receive ongoing training, mentoring and support from supervisors and coordinators, all of whom have post-graduate qualifications and experience in community development work. Facilitators are provided with a desk calendar which includes lesson plans and teaching modules for the thirty-five mother tongue literacy lessons, thirty-five numeracy lessons, and ten English for Everyone lessons.

Each trained educator/facilitator is responsible for a group of fifteen to eighteen learners. Volunteers are paid a monthly stipend which is contingent on their meeting a number of requirements, such as submitting monthly reports and Learner Assessment Portfolios. This 'outcome-based' payment is necessary for reasons of accountability and motivation, and to ensure that learners are not compromised. It is also essential in ensuring the integrity of the campaign's payment system.

Educators/facilitators also play a critical role in the recruitment of new learners via advocacy campaigns which are intended to make KRG a visible part of community life. Various strategies are used to encourage potential learners to enrol in KRG, including public announcements and advertisements in community newspapers and over the radio, production and distribution of posters and pamphlets, word-of-mouth promotion through meetings with women and youth groups, taxi organizations, trade unions, traditional leaders and door-to-door visits, public announcements in church, at funerals, and in schools, and advocacy in communities by KRG graduates.

The Department of Basic Education has established about 35,000 community-based learning centres across the country. Learning centres range from basic venues such as participant's homes, backyards or bus shelters to more established institutions such as local churches, community centres or prisons.

For procurement and human resource management, including registering and paying the monthly salaries of up to 40,000 volunteers, the Department of Basic Education has contracted a private agent, the Business Innovations Group. This organization also carries out the financial accounting, reporting and updating of all the learner and educator databases in a professional information management system. At peak times it hires up to 60 people to capture the data from reports coming from all over the country. It oversees the logistics company which is responsible for the picking and packing of all learning materials and their distribution to some 37,000 learning sites. This company has

been sub-contracted by the Business Innovations Group to ensure the safe collection and storage of all materials, reports and Learner Assessment Portfolios. In addition, it collects monthly reports from the coordinators from all provinces and completed Learner Assessment Portfolios from approximately 40,000 classes. The company has 80 permanent employees, but in the period before the start of classes every year it hires 1,000 extra packers, drivers and off-loaders to make sure that the correct material arrives in the correct quantities at the correct sites at the correct time in the correct languages. A large warehouse is used to store all reports, Learner Assessment Portfolios and other documents (after they have been scanned): these records are required to be kept as evidence for a number of years by the national treasury (Hanemann, 2011).

The campaign runs smoothly thanks to highly professional management and logistics and a very efficient data collection and information management system. This all comes at a cost, of course; but it is one which seems to pay off, because good performance in the frequent audits to which KRG is subject for transparency and accountability in the use of public funds has ensured government willingness to continue investing in the campaign (around €30m last year) (Hanemann, 2011).

PROGRAMME DESIGN

In order to address the particular and diverse needs of different groups of learners, KRG uses an integrated and multilingual approach to literacy skills training. Accordingly, the curriculum integrates basic literacy skills training in learners' mother tongue with life skills training. The life skills component of the curriculum places emphasis on themes that are relevant to learners' socio-economic context and everyday experience, such as health (particularly HIV and AIDS awareness and prevention), civic education, environmental issues and income generation or livelihood development. In addition, KRG also provides instruction in English as a second language.

The Department of Basic Education has developed various teaching/learning materials in all eleven official languages, which have been professionally adapted for use by deaf and blind learners. KRG provides participants with free learning material and basic stationery and requires them to attend classes three times a week over a period of six months. Blind and deaf learners receive specialized instruction in Braille and sign language. The strategy of engaging educators with disabilities is not only beneficial to the educators, but also ensures that learners with special needs receive effective instruction and assistance from persons who understand their challenges and needs.

Learning materials follow an integrated approach to literacy acquisition, drawing on the language experience and whole word approaches while taking on board the findings of recent neuro cognitive research. Materials are highly structured with in-built sequenced activities including learning games that help learners read faster and acquire sustainable literacy skills levels. The curriculum is organized around eight themes which are relevant to learners' motivation.

Instead of a final exam, assessment within KRG is based on internal evidence which is assessed using a standardized tool (all learners perform the same tasks and are marked against the same criteria). KRG learners are tested continuously through a Learner Assessment Portfolio (LAP) containing ten literacy assessment activities and ten numeracy activities in their mother tongue. The assessment activities are competency-based and time-linked to the various stages of the learning process. The LAPs are marked by the facilitator, moderated by supervisors and controlled by coordinators. They are then returned to the campaign head office where the site-based and moderated marking is verified by the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA). The moderation system is not only a sophisticated verification of the integrity of LAP marking, but also constitutes an important component of the quality assurance process. The involvement of the campaign's moderators and coordinators ensures that it is a learning experience and capacity development exercise for everybody.

The return rate of more than 80% of LAPs is an indicator of KRG's high learner retention rate. On the basis of this quality assured and interconnected assessment process, successful learners (who have performed over 39% of the tasks correctly) are issued with certificates at Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) Level 1 by the Department of Basic Education's Examinations Directorate. At the end of the assessment process, the learners' biographical details and marks per activity are captured in an assessment database to allow for statistical analysis, which in turn informs the strategies employed to improve programme delivery.

In an annual moderation workshop attended by around 220 monitors and coordinators of the campaign and led by senior verifiers hired by SAQA, a sample of approximately 50,000 Learner Assessment Portfolios (representing around 10% of the total) are rigorously reviewed to verify the quality and authenticity of internal marking and moderation. This is a comprehensive and complex process which contributes to a final report and to the recording of successful learners' achievements on the National Learners' Records Database. Following the annual moderation workshop, the same participants attend a training, monitoring and planning workshop to jointly analyse good practice, review factors that need improvement, and plan programme activities for the following year. This participatory system of training, monitoring and strategic planning strengthens the capacities of all campaign staff and contributes to their sense of ownership (Hanemann, 2011).

RESULTS

KRG has instituted an extensive action-oriented monitoring and evaluation system which is implemented by supervisors who each monitor 10 educators/facilitators, and coordinators who each monitor 20 supervisors. This ongoing internal monitoring and evaluation process includes monthly class visits by supervisors and spot checks carried out by a team of external monitors and 'line' coordinators. The system enables

supervisors to provide pedagogical support to facilitators and, together with coordinators, to solve many of the problems that arise onsite.

KRG's data management system provides timely information on registrations (volunteers and learners), attendance, stipends, learner assessments, remuneration, procurement, document library, import/export, and administration. It enables reporting for purposes such as management, planning, monitoring, accountability and public relations work. A sophisticated data management system is an indispensable investment to run a campaign of this size successfully.

KRG has evolved into South Africa's biggest adult literacy campaign to date, as manifested by the number of graduates shown in the table below.

Approximately 680,000 further learners enrolled in 2013, and a similar number in 2014. The campaign therefore achieved 51% of its goal to make 4.7 million people literate by the end of 2012.

KRG has unusually high retention and completion rates. This is due to: a) classes located close to where learners live and scheduled at times which are convenient for learners to attend; b) good relationships with educators who 'care' about their learners; c) attractive learning materials that are 'chunked' and paced to enable curriculum coverage; d) the programme being offered simultaneously in the eleven official languages and Braille; e) a non-threatening portfolio approach to assessing learning achievements; and f) widespread motivation to

Table 7: Numbers of learners who enrolled in and completed KRG 2008–2012

YEAR	ENROLLED	LEARNER AS-SESSMENT PORTFOLIOS SUBMITTED	LEARNERS COMPLETED (ACHIEVED) %	LEARNERS PASSED (> 39% as the minimum of the combined mark of 100% required to pass)	ACTUAL NUMBER OF LEARNERS PASSED
2008	381,862	254,085	67%	93.3%	237,128
2009	634,003	593,051	94%	98.2%	582,489
2010	611,281	491,280	80%	99.7%	489,988
2011	639,449	520,252	81%	99.7%	518,669
2012	600,164	554,397	92%	91.7%	508,123
Totals	**2,866,759**	**2,413,065**	**84%**	**96.8%**	**2,336,397**

Source: Department of Basic Education, South Africa [78]

[78] Data provided by Prof. Veronica McKay, advisor to KRG and former CEO of KRG, on 30 March 2014.

obtain the recognized certificate, which opens opportunities for further learning within the non-formal ABET system. In addition, every aspect of data collection (registers, monthly reports, LAPs) is linked to the data required to enable payments to be authorized. In other words: no data, no money. This policy of payment against results has contributed to high levels of achievement and accountability (Hanemann, 2011).

LIFELONG LEARNING PERSPECTIVE

Efforts are currently being undertaken by facilitators and coordinators to refer KRG graduates to the ABET system to continue their studies. In some cases the capacity of ABET to absorb all KRG graduates was limited due to constraints within the ABET system itself. Some provinces have ensured that KRG educators are taken over into the provincial ABET system together with their learners. This provides an opportunity for learners to enter further learning and to stay with a teacher whom they know and trust. Where whole classes are absorbed into the ABET system, there has been some success. However, certain problems have restricted the flow of learners to ABET. For example, where the ABET system requires learners to join classes – usually in schools, at night and in venues some distance from where they live – there is considerable resistance (Hanemann, 2011).

Enrolment data from 2013 and 2014 show that demand from potential learners to enrol in KRG seems to be continuing. The programme has also secured government funding for the next five years. It is therefore assumed that KRG will continue sustainably in the coming years. KRG's design as a new and independent system, which has to some extent contributed to its success, involves a level of risk. The campaign currently operates as a stand-alone system which is not fully part of the non-formal education (ABET) system or of the lifelong learning system. KRG's benefits to the ABET system are therefore at risk of being lost once the campaign is over. There is still a need to design an exit strategy to allow smooth transfer from KRG into the longer-term adult education and lifelong learning system.

5.4   Indonesia: The national educational movement AKRAB![79]

CONTEXT AND BACKGROUND

Indonesia has a population of over 234 million people, distributed between roughly 6,000 inhabited islands. The population is multi-ethnic and multilingual with over 300 distinct ethnic groups and an estimated 680 languages and dialects (most of them in Papua). Indonesia's official language is Bahasa Indonesia (Yulaelawati, 2012a).

The Indonesian Government has identified adult illiteracy as one of the major causes of poverty. Accordingly, the Government invests heavily in adult literacy education and has considerable experience in the area. Between 1970 and 2000 the illiteracy rate was halved (from approximately 21% to 11%) and literacy was found to have a positive

effect on cross-sector productivity. [80] This observation led to an increased interest in literacy across sectors and government ministries. Indonesia's educational targets have therefore been set in consultation with several government ministries and various stakeholders. Since the year 2000, emphasis has been placed on literacy education and literacy targets have been a primary focus of national strategic planning. As a result, literacy rates have increased (Yulaelawati, 2012a).

The latest figures from 2011 on literacy in Indonesia record a youth (15–24 years old) literacy rate of 98.78% (2011, UIS Database) with very little gender disparity. Indonesia's adult (15–59 years old) literacy rate is lower, at 92.81%, and the gender disparity is wider, with a gender parity index of 0.94. Rates refer to the literacy in the national language Bahasa Indonesia in Latin script; the Arabic writing system is also in use. The highest illiteracy rates are recorded in rural and remote areas and among adults aged 40+. The highest numbers of illiterate adults are recorded in more densely populated areas. The economically poorest provinces have higher illiteracy rates (Yulaelawati, 2012a).

The Indonesian constitution of 1945 stipulates that every citizen has the right to education. Moreover, Law 20 of 2003 states that the National Education System is to provide equal educational opportunities to all citizens (MoE, 2010, p. 3). Coordinated efforts to address illiteracy in Indonesia began as far back as 1945–1965. These efforts were built on in 1970 with the introduction of the Package A programme, which was divided into 100 modules. Modules A1–A10 concerned basic literacy, whilst A11–A100 focused on literacy in the context of life skills. During the three decades following the introduction of Package A, the illiteracy rate was almost halved.

DEVELOPMENT, INSTITUTIONAL SETTING AND MAIN FEATURES OF IMPLEMENTATION

In 2006, Presidential Instruction No. 5 created the National Movement to Hasten Compulsory Nine-Year Basic Education and the Fight against Illiteracy (NMHFAI), with inclusion as a central concern. In NMHFAI, adult literacy is perceived as an investment in the learning society. Quality, equity and efficiency are the guiding principles.

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[79] The information on this case is based on the description in UIL's LitBase if not otherwise indicated, http://www.unesco.org/uil/litbase/?menu=14&country=ID&programme=121, accessed April 2014.

[80] According to Jalal and Sardjunani (2007), the rise in literacy rates was also due to schooling programmes, such as the Presidential Assistance Programme for Elementary School in 1974 and the Six-Year Compulsory Education Programme in 1984. This went along with an increased participation of girls and women in the education system. However, the authors also provide a long list of literacy programmes and initiatives which started even before Independence in 1945, as well as several notable later efforts. For example, in 1970–1990 Indonesia implemented the 'Package A Programme' which decreased the illiteracy rate significantly. From 1990 to 2000 the government focused on achieving the goal of nine years' compulsory basic education for all. This led to a slight neglect of adult literacy, causing a decrease in the numbers of adult literacy learners.

Six ministries, the Bureau of Statistics and local governments collaborated in the creation of the movement. The adult literacy component is called Aksara Agar Berdaya (AKRAB!), which translates to 'Literacy Creates Power' in allusion to UNESCO's Literacy Initiative for Empowerment (LIFE). AKRAB! comprises both basic and advanced literacy training in local languages and Bahasa Indonesia. The criterion for a good literacy programme is that it leads to the reduction of poverty among learners, who are usually disadvantaged, vulnerable and marginalized people (MOE, 2010). The target groups of AKRAB! are illiterate youth (15–24 years old), adults (15–59 years old), and, upon request, older adults (60 years and above), with particular attention paid to poor women, indigenous people and minority groups in slum and remote areas. An integrated women's empowerment programme promotes gender equality. Community reading centres are established in public spaces so that learners have easy access to reading materials, helping them to sustain their reading skills.

MANAGEMENT OF AKRAB!

One of the strengths of the AKRAB! programme is that it is coordinated and implemented through a holistic, integrated approach which involves various stakeholders. The programme benefits greatly from the resulting diversity of ideas and funding sources and the wide range of efforts from various sectors. For example, in order to mobilize women as learners and as partners to implement the programme, successful partnerships have been created with women's religious and welfare organizations, including a partnership with one of the largest Muslim women's organizations in Indonesia (MoE, 2012). This integrated approach, however, also presents challenges, especially with regard to identifying and agreeing upon common objectives.

The design and coordination of the AKRAB! programme is the responsibility of the Ministry of Education and Culture. Other government ministries play the following roles:

> The National Bureau of Statistics provides the Ministry of Education and Culture with updated statistical data (Ministry of Education of Indonesia, 2010).
> The Ministry of Public Welfare defines the roles of individual ministries in the movement and assists with programme coordination.
> The Ministry of Internal Affairs encourages participation in the movement by provincial, city and district administrators, as well as stakeholders in the private sector such as women's organizations, youth organizations, NGOs and community organizations.
> The Ministry of Religious Affairs identifies religious facilities for participation and helps to implement AKRAB! in religious institutions.
> The Ministry of Finance plans the AKRAB! budget in accordance with the Ministry of Education's proposals.
> The Ministry of Women's Empowerment creates social networks and advocates on behalf of the institutions and NGOs under their guidance.

AKRAB! uses a decentralized approach: the governors of each of the 33 provinces and the heads of each municipality have teams that coordinate the programme's local implementation (MoE, 2010). Memorandums of Understanding (MoU) with the Ministry of Education and Culture formalize the collaboration.

The implementation of the programme is carried out by a wide range of different organizations. These include:

> NGOs, particularly women's groups
> Community Learning Centres (CLCs)
> Religious institutions
> Environmental groups
> Universities (through an MoU between the Director General of Early Childhood, Non-Formal and Informal Education and 87 universities)

The implementing organizations send their proposals to the designated coordinator at the local level. Depending on the specific agreement between the central and local authorities, the municipal coordinator can then either approve the proposal and budget directly, or recommend the proposal to the provincial authorities. The budget is awarded based on the proposed number of learners. In general, the budget for each implementing organization is paid for by the central government at national level (50%), the provincial government (30%), and the municipal government (20%). The cost of the programme is approximately US$62 per learner.

PROGRAMME DESIGN

Each year, one person is selected from each municipality for training to become a tutor. Candidates must have at least Senior High School education, reside in the local area, demonstrate high levels of commitment, be able to master the teaching and learning materials, and to develop participatory learning methods. Tutors are paid a basic wage of Rp10.500 (US$1.20) per hour.

Each literacy programme integrates literacy with life skills. Instruction begins in the learners' mother tongue and develops into a mixture of mother tongue and Bahasa Indonesia in Latin script as the learners' skills develop. Learners who can read and write in the Arabic script become literate in the Latin script. In general, teaching is conducted in groups of ten learners per tutor, and programmes last for six to ten months. AKRAB! consists of several types of services that run in parallel in order to create a teaching and learning environment to which the different target groups can relate:

> Basic literacy training for individuals and families combined with culture-specific input in local languages, such as non-confrontational, non-formal learning with the Baduy people (Yulaelawati, 2012b)
> Literacy is learned or improved alongside entrepreneurial skills in a scheme involving five competency stages for individuals and community groups, named 'train to gain'

> Community reading gardens and ICT facilities in public areas provide access to post-literacy materials with the aim of improving reading and writing culture.

The curriculum is responsive to learners' culture and learning needs. Although the educational programmes have a fixed structure, tutors are trained to identify and respond to the learning needs of each individual student through observation and interview. The teaching and learning materials developed by the tutor and non-formal education experts are supplemented by materials developed by learners themselves during writing classes, such as booklets and newspapers, which are then used as learning materials by other participants.

RESULTS

All institutions and organizations involved in the delivery of AKRAB! are assessed by the independent National Accreditation Board for Non-Formal and Informal Education for their eligibility to participate in the programme and issue literacy certificates. Assessment is based on the quality and standards of the curriculum, teaching and learning process, graduate competence, personnel, facilities, governance and finance. The accreditation process is a fundamental part of the organization's proposal and application for funding from the municipal authorities. The Ministry of Education and Culture collaborates closely with the National Statistics Bureau to monitor and evaluate the wider impact of the programme.

Between 2008 and 2012, the following goals were achieved:
> More than 4 million people have participated in the literacy programme.
> More than 3 million people have been awarded the government literacy certificate (SUKMA).
> More than 1 million people have participated in the entrepreneurship programme.
> More than 3,500 tutors have been trained or increased their capacity to teach adult literacy.
> More than 6,179 community reading gardens have been made available in public areas.
> More than 1,350 community learning centres have been created.
> The number of illiterate people has decreased from 11.2 million in 2007 to 6.73 million in 2011.
> The number of Community Learning Centres has increased by 30 per cent between 2007 and 2012.
> Gender disparity has decreased from 4.32 in 2007 to 2.7 in 2011.

To conclude, the AKRAB! programme is an example of successful implementation of a multi-stakeholder approach that mobilized several ministries and administrative units at all levels to collaborate with non-governmental organizations. In four years it has made a considerable contribution to enhancing literacy skills in both the official language and local languages for a variety of purposes, such as entrepreneurship. The AKRAB! programme's culturally sensitive approaches to teaching and learning is another feature of good practice.

LIFELONG LEARNING PERSPECTIVE

Through its integrated components including entrepreneurship skills, ICT skills, language skills and gender mainstreaming, AKRAB! strives to enhance the literate environment of communities. Community reading centres in public spaces such as markets and worship areas help learners to sustain and further develop their newly acquired skills. However, there is no information available on how graduates of the five competency stages of AKRAB! are encouraged and guided to enrol in the next levels in order to prepare for primary and secondary education certificates.

Literacy as a national movement has been extremely successful in reaching many people. However, at a certain point, the national movement became at risk of relinquishing these gains. Current efforts are therefore geared towards strengthening movements at the community level in order to address remaining literacy needs, particularly for linguistic and ethnic minorities and in provinces where illiteracy rates remain high. In order to reduce disparities among provinces and focus on areas with high adult illiteracy rates, the creation of Local Movements of Literacy Improvement is planned. However, it is quite challenging to reach out to marginalized populations who live below the poverty line and experience a range of disadvantages in their lives.

Moreover, literacy policy itself has changed in recent years. Literacy is now seen as going beyond the ability to read, write and do simple arithmetic: the focus is increasingly on sustaining literacy skills and empowering learners to face rapid changes in their lives.[81] While the development of a National Qualifications Framework is still underway, non-formal and informal learning are recognized by national examinations within an equivalency programme, running since 1990, which provides certificates equal to primary, junior secondary and senior secondary education ('Packages A, B and C'). Accreditation of non-formal learning institutions (community learning centres or training institutions) started in 2008. It is foreseen that non-formal education institutions will play a major role in human capital development in the future.

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[81] National Report Indonesia 2012 for GRALE 2.

6. CONCLUSIONS

The 'small is beautiful and safe' argument put forward by intellectuals, NGOs and some powerful international actors against large-scale adult literacy programmes or campaigns, which was still identified by Agneta Lind at the end of the last century (Lind, 1997), seems to have vanished during the past decade.[82] While many small-scale literacy programmes and projects are still being implemented around the globe – many of them well-established and quite successful in engaging learners on a fairly long-term basis – a number of governments in UNESCO Member States have taken the decision to accelerate literacy efforts in their countries through large-scale initiatives (UNESCO, 2013; Hanemann, 2012).

None of these major literacy campaigns or programmes is appearing out of the blue. Most if not all of them emerge from or build on prior campaigns or programmes that had been going on for some time. Many of these prior programmes were either discontinued due to political change (i.e. elections), or continued on a lower profile with reduced budgets because they no longer benefitted from (major) public funds. In the meantime, new campaigns or programmes were launched to create fresh momentum or to use a particular historic moment to mobilize society for literacy.

There are also examples of major government-led programmes which show continuity through different phases, such as the National Functional Literacy Programme in Ghana. The first phase of this programme started in 1992 and was completed in 1997; the second phase was implemented from 2000–2006. Subsequent governments have continued to support the programme until today, even when the IDA credit came to a close in 2006. Domestic political commitment and democratic governance towards the fulfilment of the right to equal educational opportunities enshrined in the 1992 Constitution has contributed to the success of Ghana's national literacy programme. Similarly long-lived government literacy programmes can be found in other countries, such as Namibia.

We can also observe that many campaigns are launched by politicians or decision-makers with very ambitious, if not downright unrealistic, targets. Over time they realize that they are dealing with a highly complex task and that it will take more time either to reach the illiterate population on a large scale or to reach smaller but more diverse and vulnerable population groups with special needs. They also realize that, once

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[82] The arguments against campaigns included that literacy is instrumentalized for economic development; literacy is an imposition of the modern world which damages traditional (oral) culture; and centrally designed programmes and materials are inefficient and irrelevant (Lind, 1997).

people have achieved basic literacy, they will need to continue their learning pathways in order to sustain and further develop their skills levels. Together with newly literates, many low-skilled people are waiting for opportunities to continue their studies in order to reach education levels that provide them with recognized certificates and real opportunities to progress in their lives and in society.

While in some countries non-formal education sub-systems have been well established for some time (going back to the 90s), some of which even incorporate equivalency programmes and competency-based programmes within National Qualifications Systems, in other countries such institutionalized approaches have only recently emerged or are yet to be developed. The community learning centre approach as the main delivery strategy for adult literacy and non-formal education, found mainly in some Asian countries (e.g. Bangladesh, Nepal), has yet to be articulated within more formalized lifelong learning systems. Particularly the E-9 countries face major challenges in their attempts to make progress with adult literacy, due to population growth and to the high number of young people passing into adulthood without having gone to school (long enough) to become literate.

In a few countries there are indications of a broadened understanding of literacy as a continuum. However, this has yet to be reflected in official measurements. Only in the analysed case of the UK Skills for Life surveys were literacy and numeracy skills assessed according to graded and differentiated competency levels, and only in this case was it possible to contrast baseline data on the distribution of skills levels with another survey nine years later to determine progress achieved. This information needs to be complemented by longitudinal surveys tracking specific adult learners over a longer period of time in order to determine progress and skills retention levels. This kind of research is rather the exception in the adult literacy landscape (see Metcalf et al., 2009). Standardized tests to determine learning achievement at the end of a literacy course are not the rule among analysed country cases either. Many questions therefore arise when analysing available data on people 'made literate'. Existing evidence (e.g. in the case of Venezuela) suggests interpreting statistics about the numbers of newly literate people with caution. More reliable (test-based) data from Skills for Life suggest that it is easier to motivate people to lift their skills one level higher if they started at a higher level. It will probably require tailor-made rather than mass-scale approaches to engage those who are most in need of literacy training – usually people living in difficult circumstances and requiring support in multiple ways.

In the light of the above as well as that of the analysed case studies, the following **advantages** of the campaign approach to literacy can be identified:

> Literacy campaigns have helped to create or use momentum for general mobilization in the countries where they have been launched. They have placed literacy high on national agendas and helped to create a social environment that encourages motivation, participation and retention among learners.

> Campaigns have shown a strong potential for mobilizing different stakeholders for partnerships and strengthening commitment to contribute to national literacy efforts.
> Increased public (e.g. media) interest in governmental literacy efforts has created pressure to make the results accountable.
> If teachers and students from the formal education sector are mobilized as volunteers, the benefit and impact can be mutual, helping to energize the formal education system.
> In some countries (e.g. Cuba, Bolivia and to some extent in Mozambique), literacy campaigns have been linked to or led to the creation of an institutionalized adult education system. [83]

On the other hand, the analysed examples of literacy campaigns also indicate some **disadvantages** that the campaign approach entails:
> Major campaigns entail the risk of raising overly high expectations due to very ambitious and often unrealistic targets. This is then potentially linked with manipulation of data and loss of credibility.
> Centrally designed 'one-size-fits-all' approaches with a prescribed curriculum, objectives and materials are not always able to cater to a diversity of learner profiles featuring different abilities, ages, prior experience, geographic location, gender, life circumstances, interests and expectations. The top-down manner in which many literacy campaigns are designed runs the risk that they will become inefficient and even irrelevant in specific local contexts and for particular groups of learners.
> The promotional language of campaigns often portrays illiteracy as a 'social illness' which can be permanently 'eradicated' with the right intervention. This stigmatizes illiteracy and potentially demotivates people with low literacy skills. It may even induce people to hide their problems, particularly after a city, region or country is declared 'illiteracy-free'. It may be also be harmful to long-term learning efforts, because some people need longer than the duration of a campaign to develop their literacy skills.
> Instead of developing human resource capacity with a longer-term perspective, campaigns rely greatly on voluntary work. This usually involves high staff turnover, 'take it or leave it' attitudes, and lower investment in training, resulting in lower teaching quality and instability.
> The magnitude of the campaign or programme poses challenges as regards monitoring and evaluation. This often affects the reliability and credibility of internal assessments and reported data. There is often a lack of two-way flow of monitoring and feedback. In order to achieve quantitative results, functionality is a priority, resulting in inadequate input and less attention to qualitative outcomes (little or no training of personnel, weak supervision, etc.).

Oxenham believes that neither the campaign nor the programme approach has an empirically verified advantage over the other. Both approaches have had successful as well as

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[83] Lind, 2008, p. 102.

disappointing experiences. Both have to follow the same learning continuum by starting with basic literacy skills and then progressing to the development of advanced skills through other learning opportunities. He arrives at the conclusion that 'the crucial factors for success in both approaches seem to have been the commitment, energy, effectiveness and consistency of the organizers and supporters of a campaign or programme, and the resources that they could mobilize locally and internationally' (Oxenham, 2008, p. 61).

In addition to the already stated impossibility of clearly distinguishing the features of a literacy campaign, programme, movement, or mission approach (see Chapter 3), it is not easy to attribute the above-mentioned advantages and disadvantages exclusively to a campaign approach. Most of them also apply to programmes, movements or other approaches to literacy. Even the distinction of politically 'hot' or 'cool' approaches which are more or less 'urgent' and 'massive' (Bhola, 1999) is probably subject to specific contexts and moments, and certainly needs to be assessed on a continuum. Therefore, the guiding question should rather be: what are the enabling processes, structures and environments (see Framework of Figure 1 in Chapter 3) that need to be in place to allow the largest possible numbers of non-literate young people and adults to develop and improve their literacy and basic skills levels?

Some **key messages** resulting from the analysis of some major literacy campaigns and programmes from around the world which may also inform further discussion of the post-2015 education agenda are the following:

> Successful large-scale literacy campaigns and programmes are linked to processes of social change and development. A multi-pronged strategy is required to address the literacy challenge simultaneously from different angles and across the life span on at least five complementary fronts: 1) Laying strong foundations for later learning and addressing disadvantage through good-quality early childhood care and education programmes; 2) ensuring universal good-quality basic education for all children (in formal or non-formal settings); 3) scaling up and reaching out with relevant literacy provision to all young people and adults; 4) developing literacy-rich environments and a literate culture at the local and national levels; and 5) dealing with the root causes of illiteracy (mainly poverty, societal injustice and all kinds of disadvantages) in a deep structural manner. It is necessary to work with a vision to develop the literacy skills not only of individuals but of whole communities. The ultimate goal is to build literate societies.

> Sustainable and sufficient funding is crucial for large-scale literacy interventions. Without substantial increases in funding literacy programmes and sustained investment in human resources to build professional capacity in adult literacy and education, it will not be possible to address the literacy challenge seriously and achieve progress at the necessary pace. The backbone of an effective campaign structure is a pool of professional managers, trainers, monitors, coordinators, educators and facilitators who are available country-wide. Therefore it is necessary to invest more in quality teaching and learning. Facilitators and educators need a solid professional basis complemented by in-service training, monitoring,

and pedagogical support structures. This also requires partnership with universities and training centres, the development of quality criteria and quality assurance strategies, and the strengthening of research into and use of good practice.

> The profile of literacy has to be raised, in particular in countries with significant numbers of non-literates; literacy has to be made more visible in society. Good communication and advocacy work is required to confront decision-makers with the fact that masses of people are excluded from participating in activities that are text-based, and are struggling with competencies too low to allow them to progress with their aspirations or have their rights fulfilled.

> Participation in adult literacy programmes is increasingly perceived as one step on a longer road to developing sustainable skills levels in reading and writing. This needs to be supported by literate environments and opportunities for further learning to obtain recognized qualifications. The provision of literacy as a continuum, featuring programmes that are structured into levels of graded progression and different pathways that meet a diversity of (evolving) learning needs, remains a major challenge for most of the large-scale literacy campaigns and programmes currently running. This is why short-duration campaign approaches need to be firmly embedded into national learning systems while dealing with literacy as a continuum and as part of lifelong learning. Literacy should be integrated in national development strategies and provided in different settings to enable all to acquire basic skills and qualifications. More needs to be done to establish systems of counselling and coaching to assist learners throughout their learning careers.

> In the context of accelerated technological developments, it is indispensable to broaden the concept of literacy skills to include the basic problem-solving skills required in technology-rich environments. A more systematic use of ICT is also important to expand the coverage of literacy programmes by reaching both learners and teachers with relevant training opportunities.

> Although most countries have records of the number of learners enrolled in literacy campaigns and programmes, they do not have accurate information on successful completion rates (UIS, 2013b). The databasing of campaign participants with unique identity numbers (the only way to establish reliable tracking of individual learning careers) remains the exception rather than the rule. Even though literacy campaigns and programmes are implemented by Ministries of Education, related databases are not necessarily part of the broader EMIS systems. It is rare that learners in literacy programmes are tested using standards that are able to generate comparable statistics on learning achievement. Comprehensive and in-depth research, involving longitudinal studies, evaluations of impact and test-based pre- and post-intervention surveys, is still very rare. Therefore, special efforts are necessary to improve the availability, reliability and comparability of literacy data for better planning and targeting. This includes more complex studies to assess levels of literacy and numeracy skills, such as UNESCO's Literacy Assessment and Monitoring Programme (LAMP).

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APPENDICES

**Table 8: Progress in adult literacy in countries with major campaigns, 2000–2011
(available data closest to 2000 and 2011)**

Country	Reported adult literacy rate (%)				Reported illiterate population (in 1,000) [round numbers]		
	2000 [A] (1994–2004)	2011 [B] (2005–2011)	Progress [B–A]		2000 [A] (1994–2004)	2011 [B] (2005–2011)	Progress [B–A]
Africa							
Angola	67.40*	70.40 (2011)	3.00		2,388 (2001)	3,126 (2011)	0,738 increase
Burkina Faso	21.80 (2003)	28.70 (2007)	6.90		5,401	5,646 5,806 *	0,245 increase
Ethiopia	29.82 (2005) 35.90	39.00 (2007) 29.80*	9.18 -6.10		25,485	28,929 26,847 *	3,444 increase
Equatorial Guinea	88.31 (2000)	94.20 (2011)	5.89		34 (2000)	25 (2011)	-0,090 decrease
Guinea	20.60 (1996) 29.70 (2003)	25.31 (2010) 39.50*	4.71[9.80]		3,466 3,400 (2003)	3,487 * 4,300 (2010)	0,021 0,900 increase
Nigeria	54.77 (=)(=)	61.30* [60.8*] [51.08 (2008)] (=)	6.53[6.03] -3.69		34,272 34,078 (2003)	34,842 * 41,845 (2008)	0,570 7,767 increase
South Africa	82.40 (1996) 88.72 (2007)	92.98 (2011)	10.58 4.26		4,766 (1996) 3,754 (2007)	2,474 (2011)	-2,292 -1,280 decrease
Arab States							
Egypt	55.60 (=) 71.41 (2005)	72* [66.4*] 73.87 (2012)	16.40[10.8] 2.46		17,620 14,326 (2005)	17,816 * 15,234 (2012) 15,631 *	0,196 0,908 increase

Figures marked with an asterisk do not correspond to the years indicated in the header of this column, but are from years that are as close to those in the header as possible.

Sources: UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, 2012 (data from UIS 2005–2009); Ninth E-9 Ministerial Review Meeting, 2012 (data from 2010); UIS (various years); UNESCO EFA GMR 2013/4 (data from 2005–2011); UIS INFORMATION PAPER JUNE 2013, ADULT AND YOUTH LITERACY National, regional and global trends, 1985–2015; OEI, 2014 (PIA documento base)

Country	Reported adult literacy rate (%)				Reported illiterate population (in 1,000) [round numbers]		
	2000 [A] (1994–2004)	2011 [B] (2005–2011)	Progress [B–A]		2000 [A] (1994–2004)	2011 [B] (2005–2011)	Progress [B–A]
Asia & the Pacific							
Afghanistan	No data	No data	No data		No data	No data	No data
Bangladesh	47.50 (=) (=)	59.80* [55.9*] 57.70 (2011)	12.30 [8.40] 10.20		43,809 (2001)	44,137 (2011)	0,328 increase
China	90.92 (=) (=)	95.12 [94.3*] [94.00*]	4.20		85,307 85,688 (2000)	64,604 * 52,347 (2010)	-20,703 -33,341 decrease
India	61.01 (=) (=)	74.00* [62.80*] [62.75 (2006)] (=)	13.00 [1.70]		269,823 274,053 (2001)	283,105 * 287,355 (2006)	13,282 13,302 increase
Indonesia	90.38 (=)(=)	92.60* [92.20*] 92.80 (2011)	2.22 [1.82] 2.42		14,824 15,303 (2004)	12,858 * 12,793 (2011)	-1,966 -2,510 decrease
Nepal	48.61 (2001)	57.37 (2011)	8.76		7,627 (2001)	8,150 (2011)	0,523 increase
Pakistan	58,00* [55.0*] 54.89 (2009)	58.00* [55.50*] 54.89 (2009)	15.30 [12.80] 5.02 12.20		45,610 (1998) 49,117 (2005)	49,507 (2009)	3,897 0,390 increase
Timor-Leste	58.30 (2010)	58.30 (2010)	20.70		271 (2001)	252 (2010)	-19 decrease
Europe & North America							
Turkey	87.37 (2004)	94.11 (2011)	6.74		6,055 (2004)	3,224 (2011)	-2,831 decrease
UK	No data	No data	No data		No data	No data	No data

Figures marked with an asterisk do not correspond to the years indicated in the header of this column, but are from years that are as close to those in the header as possible.

Sources: UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, 2012 (data from UIS 2005–2009); Ninth E-9 Ministerial Review Meeting, 2012 (data from 2010); UIS (various years); UNESCO EFA GMR 2013/4 (data from 2005–2011); UIS INFORMATION PAPER JUNE 2013, ADULT AND YOUTH LITERACY National, regional and global trends, 1985–2015; OEI, 2014 (PIA documento base)

Country	Reported adult literacy rate (%)				Reported illiterate population (in 1,000) [round numbers]		
	2000 [A] (1994–2004)	2011 [B] (2005–2011)	Progress [B–A]		2000 [A] (1994–2004)	2011 [B] (2005–2011)	Progress [B–A]
Latin America & the Caribbean							
Argentina	97.19 (2001)	98.00*	0.81		758 (2001)	658 (2011)	-100 decrease
Bolivia	86.72 (2001)	91.17 (2009) 94.90 (2012)	4.45 8.18		681 (2001)	543 (2009)	-138 decrease
Brazil	86.37 [88.6 (=)]	90.38**[90.0*] 91.30 (2012)	1.78 [1.4] [4.01] 2.70		16,759 (2000)	13,984 (2010)	-2,775 decrease
Chile	95.72 (2002)	99.00	3.28		496 (2002)	191 (2009)	-305 decrease
Colombia	92.80 (2004)	93.58 (2011)	2.22 [1.82] 2.42		2,098 (2004)	2,157 (2011)	0,059 increase
Dominican Republic	87.00 (2002)	90.11 (2011) 87.30 (2012)	3.11 0.30		761 (2002)	690 (2011)	-71 decrease
Ecuador	90.98 (2001)	91.59 (2011)	0.61		746 (2001)	860 (2011) 818*	114 increase
El Salvador	83.56 (2006)	84.49 (2010)	0.93		776 (2004)	653 (2010)	-123 decrease
Guatemala	69.10 (2002)	75.90 (2011) 84.62 (2013)	6.80 15.52		2,055 (2002)	2,098 (2011)	0,043 increase
Mexico	91.00 [90.54 (2000)]	93.10* [93.52 (2011)]	2.1 [2.98]		6,295 (2000)	5,300 (2011)	-0,995 decrease
Nicaragua	76.68 (2001)	78.00 (2005) 96.70 (2009)	1.32 20.02		719 (2001)	743 (2005)	24 increase

Figures marked with an asterisk do not correspond to the years indicated in the header of this column, but are from years that are as close to those in the header as possible.

Sources: UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, 2012 (data from UIS 2005–2009); Ninth E-9 Ministerial Review Meeting, 2012 (data from 2010); UIS (various years); UNESCO EFA GMR 2013/4 (data from 2005–2011); UIS INFORMATION PAPER JUNE 2013, ADULT AND YOUTH LITERACY National, regional and global trends, 1985–2015; OEI, 2014 (PIA documento base)

Country	Reported adult literacy rate (%)				Reported illiterate population (in 1,000) [round numbers]		
	2000 [A] (1994–2004)	2011 [B] (2005–2011)	Progress [B–A]		2000 [A] (1994–2004)	2011 [B] (2005–2011)	Progress [B–A]
Latin America & the Caribbean							
Panama	91.90 (2000)	94.09 (2010)	2.19		163 (2000)	147 (2010)	-16 decrease
Peru	87.67 (2004)	89.59 (2007) 92.90 (2011)	1.92 5.23		2,258 (2004)	1,991	-0,267 decrease
Venezuela	92.98 (2001)	95.51 (2009) 95.10 (2011)	2.53 2.12		1,162 (2001)	898 (2009)	-0,264 decrease

Sources: UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, 2012 (data from UIS 2005–2009); Ninth E-9 Ministerial Review Meeting, 2012 (data from 2010); UIS (various years); UNESCO EFA GMR 2013/4 (data from 2005–2011); UIS INFORMATION PAPER JUNE 2013, ADULT AND YOUTH LITERACY National, regional and global trends, 1985–2015; OEI, 2014 (PIA documento base)

Table 9: Progress in terms of gender equity in adult literacy

Country	Reported adult literacy rate / GPI				No. of non-literate women (in 1,000)		
	2000 [A]	2011 [B]	Progress [B–A]		2000 [A]	2011 [B]	Changes [B–A]
Afghanistan	n/a	n/a	n/a		n/a	n/a	n/a
Argentina	1.00 (2001)	1.00 (2007)	0.00		392 (2001)	335 (2011)	-57 decrease
Bangladesh	0.76* (2001)	0.89 [0.84*] 0.86 (2011)	0.13 [0.08] 0.10		24,055 (2001)	24,151 (2011)	0,096 increase
Bolivia	0.87 (2001)	0.91 (2009)	0.04		507 (2001)	415 (2009)	-92 decrease
Brazil	1.00 (2000)	1.01 (2010) [1.00]	0.00		8,491 (2001)	6, 959 (2010)	-1,532 decrease
Burkina Faso	0.52 (2003)	0.59 (2007)	0.07		55,8	56,2	-0,4 decrease
Chile	1.00 (2002)	1.00 (2009)	0.00		746 (2001)	860 (2011) 818 *	114 increase
China	0.91* (2000)	0.95 (2010) [0.94*]	0.04 [0.03]		258 (2002)	101 (2009)	-23,714 decrease
Colombia	1.00 (2004)	1.00 (2011)	0.00		1,095 (2004)	1,097 (2011)	0,002 increase
Dominican Republic	1.00 (2002)	1.00 (2011)	0.00		375 (2002)	342 (2011)	-33 decrease
Ecuador	0.97 (2001)	0.97 (2011)	0.00		429 (2001)	506 (2011)	77 increase
Egypt	0.65* 0.71 (2005)	0.79 [0.77*] 0.81 (2012)	0.14 [0.12] 0.10		2,806 (2000)	2,565 (2010)	-0,241 decrease

Figures marked with an asterisk do not correspond to the years indicated in the header of this column, but are from years that are as close to those in the header as possible.

Sources: UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, 2012; UNESCO, 2014; and UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2013a

Country	Reported adult literacy rate / GPI				No. of non-literate women (in 1,000)		
	2000 [A]	2011 [B]	Progress [B–A]		2000 [A]	2011 [B]	Changes [B–A]
El Salvador	0.93 (2006)	0.94 (2010)	0.01		449 (2004)	404 (2010)	-45 decrease
Ghana	0.75 (2000)	0.83 (2010)	0.08		2,806 (2000)	2,565 (2010)	-0,241 decrease
Guatemala	0.84 (2002)	0.88 (2011)	0.04		1,275 (2002)	1,323 (2011)	0,048 increase
India	0.65* (2001)	0.68* (=) (2006)	0.03		177,334 (2001)	187,034 (2006)	9,7 increase
Indonesia	0.92* (2004)	0.94 (2011) [0.93*]	0.02 [0.01]		10,597 (2004)	8,918 (2011)	-1,679 decrease
Mexico	0.96 (2000)	0.97 (2011)	0.01		3,868 (2000)	3,221 (2011)	-0,647 decrease
Namibia	0.96 (2001)	1.05 (2007)	0.09		98 (2001)	148 (2007)	50 increase
Nepal	0.56* (2001)	0.66 (2011) [0.65*]	0.10 [0.09]		4,945 (2001)	5,383 (2011)	0,438 increase
Nicaragua	1.00 (2001)	1.00 (2005)	0.00		368 (2001)	381 (2005)	13 increase
Pakistan	0.55 (2005) [0.53*]	0.59 (2009) [0.58*]	0.04 [0.05]		31,101 (2005)	32,107 (2009)	1,006 increase
Panama	0.99 (2000)	0.99 (2010)	0.00		88 (2000)	81 (2010)	-7 decrease
Paraguay	0.98 (2007)	0.98 (2010)	0.00		130 (2007)	151 (2010)	21 increase

Figures marked with an asterisk do not correspond to the years indicated in the header of this column, but are from years that are as close to those in the header as possible.

Sources: UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, 2012; UNESCO, 2014; and UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2013a

Country	Reported adult literacy rate / GPI				No. of non-literate women (in 1,000)		
	2000 [A]	2011 [B]	Progress [B–A]		2000 [A]	2011 [B]	Changes [B–A]
Peru	0.88 (2004)	0.89 (2007)	0.01		1,658 (2004)	1,485 (2007)	-0,173 decrease
South Africa	0.96 (2007)	0.98 (2011)	0.02		2,223 (2007)	1,404 (2011)	-0,819 decrease
Timor-Leste	0.66 (2001)	0.83 (2010)	0.17		149 (2001)	140 (2010)	-9 decrease
UK	n/a	n/a	n/a		n/a	n/a	n/a
Venezuela	0.99 (2001)	1.00 (2009)	0.01		604 (2001)	467 (2009)	137 decrease

The past decade has seen a resurgence in the popularity of literacy campaigns as a means of mobilizing political will, resources and people. This analysis of adult literacy campaigns and programmes around the world from 2000 to 2014 finds that most large-scale campaigns have failed to achieve their overly ambitious targets, however. Focusing on four case studies of major literacy campaigns – in Brazil, India, South Africa and Indonesia – this research paper paints a nuanced picture of global trends as well as specific features, challenges, success factors and results. It shows that the continuity of learning processes for newly literates and the integration of short-duration campaigns into national learning systems remain major concerns. The paper concludes with several recommendations for policymakers.

The *Evolution and Impact of Literacy Campaigns and Programmes, 2000–2014* is the first in a new UIL publication series comprising extended peer-reviewed research papers. The UIL Research Series aims to provide an additional platform for research that supports UNESCO's education goals and more specifically the mandate of UIL: lifelong learning with a focus on adult and continuing education, literacy and non-formal basic education.