This annotated bibliography is a compilation of selected materials that illustrate recent thinking about theory and practice in nonformal education in both developing and developed countries. The work is designed to enable professionals and nonspecialist educators to define the field, carry out research, and design strategies for maximizing nonformal education's contribution to individual and national development. The bibliography lists 875 books, articles, papers, reports, speeches, dissertations, and bibliographies published between 1910 and 1972, but the majority date from the 1960s and early 1970s. A preface examines nonformal education, as it relates to the entire educational sphere, and identifies research needs. Four chapters illustrate the aims, participants, and content of nonformal education activities. These include items which describe basic issues, types of organizations conducting programs, target learner populations, and content areas such as agriculture, homemaking, and industry. Two chapters list national and regional studies, directories, serials, and periodicals. Included in a seventh chapter are items describing instructional methodologies and materials such as media, workshops, demonstrations, and programmed materials. (AV)
edited by
Rolland G. Paulston
foreword by
Don Adams

Published in cooperation with the University Center for International Studies and the International and Development Education Program, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

The Praeger Special Studies program—utilizing the most modern and efficient book production techniques and a selective worldwide distribution network—makes available to the academic, government, and business communities significant, timely research in U.S. and international economic, social, and political development.
Non-Formal Education
An Annotated International Bibliography
To Christina
Having been publicized by the U.S. Agency for Economic Development (AED), certified as important by the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD), and anointed with research money by the Ford Foundation, non-formal education must be viewed as one of the new favored areas of inquiry in education. There are apparently several reasons for increased attention to non-formal education. Frustration with the expense, rigidity, and perceived low quality of the programs in the formal school system has perhaps been the greatest stimulus. Non-formal education is thus viewed as offering more flexibility in imparting skills and knowledge, more responsiveness in adjusting to changing needs or demands, and, hopefully, a more equitable distribution of educational opportunities.

Yet any observer of the seemingly ease with which priorities among national and international agencies come and go, of the ideology of currency governing the private foundations, and of the scandalous opportunism of educational researchers must feel uncomfortable. In international education, there has been a tradition of covering past failures with fanfare and promises of the great successes to come. Do we need to be reminded of the succulent fruits anticipated in the past from literacy programs, vocational schools, community education, and, more currently, comprehensive secondary schools? Will non-formal education become just one more social movement of the Don Quixote approach to development, just another ephemeral investment of the foundations to be forsaken when better or more prestigious entrepreneurs present them with alternatives? Is it just an adventitious foray of the faddist academic and professional world as simple solutions are sought for the immeasurably complicated problems of development and industrialization?

A major frustration with formal education lies in our ignorance as to which combination of factors generates a desired outcome. Will functional relationships existing in instructional arrangements outside the formal school system be better understood? The chances are that the incipient literature on non-formal education will become as replete with undemonstrated assertions as is that currently found in our professional literature on formal education. Some solace, however, may be found in the variety of academic and disciplinary backgrounds of the small group currently focusing on non-formal education. Ample representation of social scientists and "systems analysts" brings to
bear a number of analytic and conceptual tools in this problem area, thus ensuring scrutiny of a wide range of functional relationships and institutional levels. This situation at least avoids the traditional condition in most schools of education where psychologists, because of their monopoly in the examination of educational phenomena, have perpetrated a kind of intellectual castration.

Bibliographies are viewed by some as the end product of intellectual labor. To others, a bibliography is a necessary first step toward analysis of research. Professor Paulston belongs in the latter group, for he treats bibliographies not as collector's items but as preparations and fundamental experiences for further inquiry. He approaches non-formal education as a scholar, not as a salesman; that is, as an analyst and critic, not as an apologist. He does not assume it to be axiomatic that, since formal schools often fail, non-formal instruction will necessarily succeed. His introduction and his critical annotations also make clear his awareness that many of the same hard questions pertaining to efficiency, equity, and quality must be raised wherever learning takes place.

Through the efforts of Professor Paulston, study and research in non-formal education now represent one of the major concerns of the International and Development Education Program at the University of Pittsburgh. The results of this increased interest include attempts at conceptualization, field research, and experiments in intervention, as well as courses, seminars, and workshops. This bibliography represents an additional important output and should be of interest to all students of education and social change. It should be an especially vital reference for educational planners and administrators.

Don Adams  
Chairman, International  
Development Education Program  
School of Education  
University of Pittsburgh
As the world crisis in formal education intensifies, interest in non-formal, or nonschool, education has grown at a rapid pace. Educators, administrators, politicians, and the average citizen have all become more or less aware of the need for alternatives to schooling, for less-expensive and more-effective learning strategies to contribute better to both individual and national development. Because non-formal education is an exceedingly complex and elusive topic, it may be helpful at the outset to define operationally the concept, to present a rationale for its systematic study, and to compare some modal characteristics of formal and non-formal educational programs.

Although there is common agreement that the age-graded hierarchy of elementary, secondary, and higher education represents "formal education," there is as yet little agreement as to what constitutes non-formal education. It has been variously defined as the entire range of learning experiences outside of the regular, graded school system, as an educational "unsystem," and as out-of-school education and lifelong learning. In this work, it has been necessary to define the concept with somewhat greater precision so as to facilitate the identification, collection and presentation of appropriate items. Accordingly, non-formal education is here defined as structured, systematic, nonschool educational and training activities of relatively short duration in which sponsoring agencies seek concrete behavioral changes in fairly distinct target populations. It is, in sum, education that does not advance to a higher level of the hierarchical formal school system.

If one were to construct a model of any nation's total educational complex, as in Figure 1, the four major educational components or subsystems might be viewed as concentric circles. At the core would be formal educational system of schools, colleges, and universities. Next would come the non-formal component, or periphery, where structured nonschool educational programs entailing formal instruction are offered as, for example, adult education, management training, remedial training, and retraining youth activities. A third ring would include informal education in which people learn in a nonsystematic manner from generally unstructured exposure to cultural facilities, social institutions, political processes, personal media, and the mass media. A fourth ring, international education, would comprise knowledge inputs gained outside of national boundaries.
Of these four components, the non-formal education sector has been the least studied and understood. Because formal schooling is organized as a system of interrelated components and is fairly amenable to study, there is a considerable, albeit far from adequate, body of knowledge available concerning inputs, processes, and products. In contrast, until only recently, non-formal education has been viewed not as a separate developmental sector linked with other sectors but as a bewildering hodgepodge of education and training programs. It is now apparent that, as formal schooling is increasingly unable to meet many important needs of modernizing societies, attention and inputs are beginning to shift from the formal core to the non-formal periphery. There is, moreover, a growing expectation that systematic study of non-formal education as a discrete educational sector will facilitate this process.

A number of recent studies of policy, planning, and programs in the non-formal education sector have accordingly sought to understand better the interdependent relations between the educational core and periphery and their social, economic, and political implications for learning and development; the outputs or accomplishments of non-formal education activities in terms of new skills, attitudes, and behaviors learned; and the process and context variables associated with the most effective non-formal education programs in terms of
goal-setting and goal-attainment. A key assumption underlying these
general knowledge objectives is that the formulation and implementation
of directed-change efforts in the non-formal sector will be facilitated
by systematic study of the phenomena in a variety of configurations
and contexts. Moreover, because a considerable part but by no means
all non-formal educational programs arise as a result of inadequacies
in the formal school system, it is assumed that systematic study will
also further understanding of the directions that the formal system
might well take if it is to gain greater efficiency with regard to national
development goals.

A better comprehension of non-formal educational inputs, pro-
grams, processes, and outputs is, in addition, a critical need for
educational planners in both the developed and developing nations.
Unfortunately, educational planners have devoted their attention almost
exclusively to the formal education sector and have neglected the
admittedly difficult-to-study non-formal sector. What is now needed
is a widening of the scope of educational planning to include relevant
data from the non-formal education sector. There is also a critical
need to analyze the structural characteristics of the non-formal edu-
cation sector, to ascertain precisely how these condition its capabilities
to contribute in defined ways to particular kinds of development, and
to build programs that can utilize these strengths within more coherent
educational development policies that simultaneously view all four
sectors of any nation's educational complex. This approach would call
for great emphasis in future research on conceptualizing the non-formal
education sector, on delineating its structure and functions, and on the
systematic evaluation of its utility as a compliment, a supplement, or
an alternative to formal educational programs and to other educational
sectors as well. A stochastic model of this kind might also be used
to facilitate the comparison and cost/benefit analysis of specific
formal and non-formal education programs with regard to structure,
content, and process variables.

As a step toward the first research need, Figure 2 attempts to
distinguish between modal characteristics of formal and non-formal
education programs. Although this is an admittedly difficult task,
especially in industrialized societies where there is a growing func-
tional blur between the two components, it is possible to identify
salient characteristics and adumbrate a number of qualitative
differences.
FIGURE 2

Some Modal Defining Characteristics of Non-Formal and Formal Educational Programs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Non-Formal, Nonschool Programs</th>
<th>Formal School Programs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Structures</td>
<td>On a continuum from high to low degree of structure, but usually the latter; little interrelatedness of components</td>
<td>Relatively highly structured; functionally interrelated set of units hierarchically ordered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content</td>
<td>Usually task- or skill-centered; dictated by functional needs of participants; low verbal; may reflect values conflicting with status quo and elites; discreet content units</td>
<td>Generally academic, abstract, and often &quot;ethnocentric&quot;; highly verbal, reflects status quo values of elites; articulated content units</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>Short-term, present-time orientation; time and gain closely joined; often part-time study; flexible timing of activities</td>
<td>Future-time oriented; time and gain not joined; full-time attendance stressed; lock-step inflexible sequence of activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Controls</td>
<td>Uncoordinated, fragmented, diffuse; voluntary organizations predominate; greater degree of local control; decisions often made at program level</td>
<td>Coordinated control, national, regional, or religious bureaucracies predominate; centrifical tendency; elites influential, in higher control positions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Locales</td>
<td>Low visibility, may be on-the-job, at home; participants bear fairly low costs; high efficiency of locale utilization, i.e., functionally related to learning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functions</td>
<td>Great variation but stress on resocialization, acculturation, and learning of practical skills and knowledge to be used in work or community situations; terminal; seeks to supplement or complement formal schooling</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rewards</td>
<td>Payoffs tend to be tangible, immediate, or short-term gains related to work or daily life, i.e., increased material well-being, productivity, self-awareness, and/or power to control environment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Highly visible, expensive, fixed in place; often state-supported; urban preference; low efficiency of plant utilization; learning physically isolated from application</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stress on socialization, enculturation, and perpetuation of educational bureaucracies; legitimization of existing elites, their values and behaviors; conferring status, selection, and possible elite recruitment</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Payoffs tend to be deferred promise of long-term gains in sociocultural and economic status</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Non-Formal, Nonschool Programs</th>
<th>Formal School Programs</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Methods</td>
<td>Teacher helps student interact with and master the material to be learned and applied; content-centered; methods relatively flexible and related to application and performance-standard needs</td>
<td>Knowledge standardized, transmitted from teacher to pupil in classroom; teacher-centered; teaching methods dictated by policy, relatively inflexible and noninnovative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participants</td>
<td>Learners from all age groups, i.e., not age- or place-defined; job mobility concerns predominate; great variety of teacher qualifications and motivations</td>
<td>Students age-defined, predictable; usually urban in outlook and social-mobility conscious; teachers formally certified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costs</td>
<td>Great variation in costs per program and per student vis-à-vis costs for comparable educational programs in formal system; economies of size not often possible</td>
<td>Costs standardized by level and increase moving up the structural hierarchy; economies of size possible</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This annotated bibliography, within the parameters set above, seeks to present a critically annotated compilation of selected materials illustrative of current thinking about theory and practice in non-formal education. The work is international in scope and covers both underdeveloped and developed areas. In the former, non-formal programs in adult, health, and community-development education largely seek either to substitute for scarce formal schooling or to compensate for inadequacies of consumption-oriented rather than development-oriented school systems. In the latter, non-formal programs are even more numerous and more often seek to compliment and supplement widespread formal schooling with continuing education, leisure-time education, and so on.

It is hoped that this work will help to further current efforts being made among scholars and professionals to define the field, to carry out empirical and policy-oriented research, and to design strategies for maximizing non-formal education's contribution to individual and national development. Nonspecialist educators and the general reader as well may find the work useful as an introduction to non-formal education concepts and their application.

With these concerns in mind, the annotated material has been organized to illustrate something of the aims, participants, and content of non-formal education activities. Chapters 1, 3, 4, and 5 reflect this general orientation. In Chapters 2 and 7, in contrast, entries are organized more by the characteristics of the materials, i.e., inventories, reference works, and so on. Chapter 6 reflects both of these organizing points of view. This taxonomy is admittedly arbitrary and is concerned as much with illustration as with logic. Each of the 875 items included is identified by a four-digit number placed to the left of the citation. The first digit refers to the chapter, the second to the chapter subheading, and the third and fourth digits signify the item number beginning with 01 in each chapter.

The criteria used to select items were as follows: relevance for operationalizing the conception of a distinct non-formal education sector; ability to illustrate non-formal functions, processes, and outcomes; the recency of publication, although several older items have been included because of their appropriateness to the first criterion; and the need to limit the work, to be highly selective, and, at the same time, to include a variety of unpublished works, some of which are still in process. Items have been selected from a search of all reference sources at the Hillman Library, University of Pittsburgh, and include popular and scholarly publications, and fugitive unpublished materials, in English, Spanish, and French. Appropriate materials
already incorporated in existing bibliographies that treat aspects of non-formal education in part or in their entirety are not included. Readers are referred to these bibliographic materials listed in Chapter 7.

Readers having questions as to the location of any items should direct their inquiries to the International and Development Education Clearinghouse at the University of Pittsburgh. The Clearinghouse will be glad to receive any published or fugitive materials on the theme and will announce their acquisition in the bi-monthly Acquisitions List.
I should like to acknowledge with gratitude the assistance of others in the completion of this work. Drs. Carl Beck and Paul Watson of the University of Pittsburgh Center for International Studies provided the resources needed to complete the manuscript. A number of graduate students in the International and Development Education Program helped at an early stage in identifying, sorting, and annotating some items. The contribution of Thomas Croope and James Lyons should be especially noted in this regard. The manuscript was typed by Carol Jones, Geraldine Korb, and Margaret Harper. I thank them all.
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<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
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<tr>
<td>AID</td>
<td>Agency for International Development (Also known as USAID)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIDOG</td>
<td>Centro Intercultural de Documentacion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CREFAL</td>
<td>Centro Regional de Educacion Fundamental Para el Desarrollo de la Comunidad en Latina America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IBRD</td>
<td>International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, also known as World Bank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICED</td>
<td>International Council for Educational Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IIEP</td>
<td>International Institute for Educational Planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labor Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEA</td>
<td>National Education Association (U.S.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OAS</td>
<td>Organization of American States</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEAMEO</td>
<td>Southeast Asia Ministers of Education Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEDAG</td>
<td>Southeast Asia Development Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children's Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNIDO</td>
<td>United Nations Industrial Development Organization</td>
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Non-Formal Education
1100. CRITIQUES OF FORMAL SCHOOLING


This historical study examines formal schooling in the former eastern and western regions of southern Nigeria in the pre- and post-independence eras. The author concludes that rapid but uneven expansion of formal schooling has produced a number of politically disintegrative effects. It has intensified tensions between northern and southern regions of Nigeria, reduced political capacity by absorbing large amounts of scarce resources, and contributed powerfully to the creation of new class structures that are largely dysfunctional for national development.


Adams' concept of power domains, where a person, group, or institution controls the environment of others, provides a powerful theoretical frame to help explain why seemingly dysfunctional school systems resist change and why alternatives to schooling gain little support from either the masses or the elites.

This special issue presents a detailed preliminary schedule of a four-day program of events on educational alternatives. Allen describes the aims of this "marathon" in light of the massive failing of the formal educational system and the growing concern found in schools of education that the search for alternatives in educational practice and structure is a new priority for these institutions.


Bennett contends that formal education for literacy and numeracy is not the highest priority area of instruction for those destined to spend their lives in rural areas. He suggests that the sort of educational effort needed is not the traditional school, but a new system in which specialist demonstrators (i.e. extension agents) in agriculture, health, and marketing would replace teachers. Both youth and adults would participate in "the carrying out and discussion of various experiments."


The author presents evidence showing that "30 to 60 percent of the students in our better suburban schools read so poorly that they are able to learn little or none of the information contained in their textbooks." He is concerned with establishing a literacy criterion (a cloze score) to demonstrate the highest ratio of information gain per unit at the lowest cost (i.e., the level of reading ability required). He concludes that "the schools' instruction in comprehension
skills seems to produce no detectable increase in children's ability to use those skills" and that the problem is traceable to the fact that "traditional teaching methods fail to teach students to understand printed language."


This is a report by the Center's Program Reference Service on Lillian Weber's program (based on the English Infant School model) in two New York City public schools.


In this cogent discussion of educational problems and functions in a rapidly changing technological age, the author concludes that, inter alia, because U.S. society will become increasingly pluralistic, "we will see more different kinds of schools and colleges, with some remaining primarily the carriers of the older programs and styles while others will be the vehicles for the introduction of new combinations and radically new formulations. The substantial educational programs of industry and the military are cases in point. The total educational system will become more dispersed and disparate, resembling a crazy quilt patched with materials of varied hue and size."


Clark examines the inadequacies of public schooling and the problems of developing non-formal education and training programs in business and industry for ghetto youth. He sees in the impersonal discipline of American business a "fundamental morality" that may help black youth develop greater self-confidence and ability to meet white performance standards. Rejecting double standards, the author views job training, and work in business and industry, as offering opportunities for reshaping the character of ghetto youth. Clark suggests that American business take over the whole job of formal education from prekindergarten to the twelfth grade so that "the efficiency criteria which seem to work so effectively in business and industry can
and will, when applied to the business of education, produce a more effective product than now produced by the public schools." The author ignores, however, the more central need for basic reform of existing social institutions, the serious risks involved in giving U.S. industry carte blanche to take over public education, and how this change might be carried out given the existing patterns of control and funding in public schooling.


This work discusses conceptual styles as rule-sets for the selection and organization of sense data. Two mutually incompatible conceptual styles are identified—relational and analytic. Relational and analytic methods of conceptual organization appear to have been developed and reinforced in shared-function and formally organized primary groups, respectively, as socialization settings. Each style affects its carrier's ability to deal effectively with the alternate kind of group-process requirements. A distinction is drawn between culture conflict and related notions of deprivation and culture difference. When the conceptual styles used between individuals and groups are mutually incompatible, culture conflict may be said to exist, whether or not the other phenomena are also present. The author suggests that if such cognitive mechanisms as styles of cognitive control act reciprocally as mediating factors between social-system characteristics and individual-response characteristics then they may well be important keys in the process of creating both formal and non-formal educational alternatives.


The Commission analyzes a number of fundamental issues and seeks to stimulate public debate over change in post-secondary education. It examines the existing system and costs, the various arguments (i.e., economic, manpower, certification, social-justice, and so on) supporting the existing system, and the possibilities for educational alternatives both in and out of school. This is an exceedingly well-reasoned and presented public document.

The author examines problems of current state systems of taxing and spending for public elementary and secondary schools and the state's responsibility for "power equalizing." Coons Notes that most critics demanding alternatives to schooling decline to face seriously the question of economic support for their enterprises: "Their know-nothing attitude is, to an extent, pardonable, financial reform will not itself revitalize education, and its pursuit lacks the allure of public combat over more viable and glamorous objectives. Regrettably, it is a precondition to improvement of any sort whatsoever."


This report suggests some "fundamental improvements that are essential to meet the rapidly changing needs of society in regard to educational goals, priorities, innovation and evaluation." Education is largely equated with schooling and problems of schools are seen as basically administrative in nature. The authors do note in passing, however, that "in addition to the school, the environment in the home, in the community, in the state and in the nation exerts important influences upon young people. Undernourishment, poor health, inadequate clothing and discrimination, for example, work against the educational process. When conditions of this sort exist, educators and all citizens must be aware of them and must face up to them. Favorable learning environments are essential for a beneficial educational experience." They do not elaborate, however, exactly how merely "facing up" to problems of racism, exploitation, and sundry other social evils can help to create a more favorable learning situation in schools.


The effect that education has had on one type of social change is examined, i.e., the shift from pluralism to heterogeneity in several Caribbean societies. The author defines a "plural society as one in which there are two or more distinct sub-cultural groups that share no basic
institutions, and where the superordinate group is a distinct minority, preoccupied with problems of maintenance and control, that discourages acculturation of the subordinate majority." The functions of schooling in maintaining dominance of superordinate groups are examined. Farrell concludes that schools serve best as agents of occupational socialization, that they do not by themselves change society. He also emphasizes that available evidence indicates that schools by themselves are not likely to be able to initiate the difficult process of change from pluralism to heterogeneity.

In this book Freire elaborates his strategy and method for literacy education as a means to developing greater individual and social awareness. This process, according to the author, will logically culminate in a cultural revolution to remove class exploitation, often held to be justified by the length of time in formal schooling and by cultural differences. Ivan Illich, Freire's friend and pupil, approvingly says that "this is a truly revolutionary pedagogy. I do not believe that any government now in power can permit an educational process which follows his principles to be developed."
Thus, one might conclude that Freire has little of substance to offer those who seek qualitative educational change in the real world. Utopian speculations of the type presented here are essentially "gentlemanly" intellectual exercises in the European tradition of Aristotelian dualism and Platonic utopian idealism.

Goodman argues that the classical Greek concept of paideia, in which the entire network of institutions (i.e., the polis) was the principal, if incidental, educator, suits the nature of learning better than directed teaching in schools. "It is only in the last century in the industrialized countries that the majority of children have gotten much direct teaching at all, and it is only in the past few decades that formal schooling has been extended into adolescence and further." Goodman argues that school preemption of learning has created institutions that exist for their own sake, that the best alternative to schools is "incidental education"—i.e., on-the-job, in the physical environment, and in the social culture.

The author presents a cogent discussion of minority education problems within the present systems of schools and national-priorities. "If cultural and ethnic identification are important components of the learning experience, to ignore or demean them is poor education." Our society has alternatingly pushed ethnic separation or ethnic amalgamation but has never truly accepted cultural and ethnic pluralism as its model. Blacks, Chicanos, Puerto Ricans, and Indians are insisting that traditional public schooling is guilty not only of intellectual and social genocide but also of cultural genocide for their children. If curriculum and delivery systems do not take these factors into account, inefficient learning and school failure may be only the two most obvious results. "One would hope that black education by black educators is not the only solution, yet we are being pressed to no longer ignore it as a possible solution."

Gordon applies Anthony F. C. Wallace's views to cultural minorities' demands for accountability in formal schooling. He concludes that because minority groups are generally in a revolutionary phase their first interest is for education for morality, then for intellectual development, and then for skills and training in technique. As the United States has for more than a century been a conservative society, i.e., liberal in its traditions but essentially conservative and at times reactionary in its functions, the highest emphasis has generally been placed on training in techniques, with secondary attention to morality; the least attention is paid to the development of intellect. Thus, "schools, in their present form, are ill-prepared to educate minority youth whose ideals and goals are revolutionary, not conservative, and certainly not reactionary." Numerous implications for nonschool youth programs are clearly evident but not mentioned.


This volume presents a searing indictment of "the urban and suburban school nightmare" and a number of theoretical and practical alternatives to formal schooling. The concern is with "humanizing" and "freeing up" schooling, i.e., with making it more "informal." Several selections deal with attempts to create innovative private schools and with
efforts to find ways to reach ghetto children with a radically
different program. The concept of non-formal education
as an alternative to schooling, although implicit in many
of the studies, is not developed. Contributing authors
include J. Kozol, J. Holt, K. Clark, P. Goodman, E.
Friedenberg, H. Kohl, S. Ashton-Warner, A. S. Neill, and
others.

1120. HARRISON, Roger, and HOPKINS, Richard L. "The Design of
Cross-Cultural Training: An Alternative to the University
Model." *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, III, 4
(1967), 431-60.

Peace Corps dissatisfaction with the way subject matter
is taught by universities in cross-cultural training programs
has led to the creation of less-formal and less-theoretical
programs in nonacademic settings. The authors suggest
that the traditional methods of higher education are ill-
suited to "any application situation that requires the ability
to adapt or to act in unfamiliar and ambiguous social
situations. Included in this category would be all types of
community development or community action work, at
home or abroad, especially when such work is with the
disadvantaged, as well as work in institutional subcultures
that differ basically from the 'outside world.'" The authors
propose that the need for cross-cultural training is growing
and can be best met in more "integrated, experience-based"
programs giving ample opportunities for "doing things"
(such as "organizing and operating co-ops, raising chickens
and pigs, planting and tending gardens, approaching
'academic subjects' through research projects, and so on"),
for trainee activity, for informal instruction, and for
environmental emphasis and feedback. They further suggest
that these "design principles . . . might have validity in
preparing people for the ambiguities of life at home as well
as for life abroad."

1121. HERNDON, James. *How to Survive in Your Native Land.*

This speculative critique of schooling by the author of
*Way It Spozed to Be* examines why schools endure despite
growing evidence that they are detrimental to young people.
Despite the fact that the "best" schools attempt to treat
young people well and foster their growth, schools by
definition are unfavorably disposed to this end. Their basic
commitment is to teach rather than to help people learn, to
segregate their clientele by age in artificial situations rather than to help them relate to what is really going on in their peer group and community. The so-called free schools, it would seem, do this as well. Herndon concludes that the school will always reflect basic values of the larger society, that "you cannot use them as instruments of war, repression, and death to promote work, knowledge, and love. Fakery is fakery. Love is love. Small animals are small animals. Dead men are dead men. None of them can be turned into anything else. I agree that it is hard lines."


The author examines the development of his ideas about schools and the influence of Ivan Illich and Paul Goodman. He sees schooling as a "dying institution" and "free schools" only as a means of relieving the suffering until we have learned to do without schooling, not as desirable replacements for conventional schools. He is not saying that we must change society before we can change schools, but rather that society is the school, "that men learn best and most from what is closest to the center of their lives; that . . . what men need above all else is a society in which they are to the greatest possible degree free and encouraged to look, ask, think, choose and act; and that making this society is both the chief social or political and educational task of our time." Holt concludes that "there cannot be better worlds fit for children in a world not fit for anyone else."


Illich argues that "to reduce the present crisis in public education by simply doing away with schools and relying on alternative structures might lead to the subtle renewal of alienation, dependency, and social inequality." He contends that "the breakdown of schools must be understood as a symbol of crisis in the larger society--a political and cultural crisis the democratic resolution of which requires clear political objectives." Specific political goals for schools can, accordingly, be most sharply defined by distinguishing three general types of "intercourse" in which a person must engage if he would grow up: "get at the facts,
get access to the tools, and bear the responsibility for the limits within which either can be used."


In this impassioned essay Illich develops the concept of schools as false public utilities and proposes that the radical alternative to a consumer society and deschooling of education would be to develop a more limited range of more durable goods and of institutions that can increase the opportunity and desirability of human interaction and to do so in such a way that men are relieved by machines of the burden of making things. Goods would have to be such that they would provide the maximum opportunity to "do" something with them—items made for self-assembly, self-help, reuse, and repair. A "durable goods economy" would, in turn, provide an institutional framework seeking to educate for action, participation, and self-help. Illich concludes that the movement of our society from the present post-industrial bureaucracy phase to a future of post-industrial conviviality—in which the intensity of action would prevail over production—must begin with "a renewal of style in the service institutions—and, first of all, with a renewal of education." The burden for much vocationally oriented education should be assumed by the occupational groups, by farms, and by industries themselves. Each individual should share equally in funds spent on education and receive perhaps two months of organized non-formal education a year. These short periods of education would be spread over twenty or thirty years and not confined to childhood.


This work examines the implications of a recent U.S. Supreme Court case (Griggs et al. v. Duke Power Co., March 1971) in which the Court unanimously held that the requirement of either a high school diploma or of success at a standardized general education test as a condition of employment is prohibited by the 1964 Civil Rights Act. Illich suggests that "this case may set us on the road to the legal recognition that schooling requirements, in and of themselves, constitute a discrimination which hampers social advancement and so violates public policy."

The Project on the Social and Cultural Aspects of Economic Development at Harvard's Center for International Affairs interviewed 6,000 men from six developing countries to study the impact on the individual of exposure to and participation in the process of national and economic modernization. To a striking degree, the same syndrome of attitudes, values, and ways of acting--such as openness to new experience, independence from parental authority, and taking an active part in civic affairs--defines the modern man in each of the six countries and in all the occupational groups of cultivator, craftsman, and industrial worker. Formal education is seen as the most powerful factor in making men modern, but occupational experience in large-scale organizations, and especially in factory work, makes a significant contribution in "schooling" men in modern attitudes and in teaching them to act like modern men. Inkeles suggests that those who come from very traditional backgrounds and who receive little formal schooling, if given non-formal educational opportunities, may still become "modern" in adult life.


In this essay, the author evaluates and analyzes the implicit and explicit models that have guided past and current attempts at school reform and proposes a theory for attacking urban educational problems. He examines city schools as social systems with particular empirical realities, i.e., physical structure, community setting, people with persistent patterns of behavior, and others. The author is critical of current "specialization models in urban education which tend to limit the effectiveness and competence of the teacher through an excessively rigid division of labor." He further criticizes many segmental innovation efforts as being of limited relevance. Instead, he proposes an "aggregation" model that is concerned with increasing the scope of the individual classroom teacher and restructuring the organizational climate of urban schools.
1128. JESSUP, Frank W. "Preparation for Life-long Education." 

This is a cautionary essay on the economic, social, and political needs for lifelong education in technologically advanced nations and on the limitations of formal schooling as an educational foundation for "the good society, that is to say, the Educative Society."

1129. KOZOL, Jonathan. "Look, This System Is Not Working!"

In this broadside, Kozol admits to naivété in his earlier writings, which sought to inform the public that schools do not encourage children "to think freely and question bravely, to fight for justice and to cry for those in pain," but that, rather, "schools contained and silenced, muted and anesthetized our children." He acknowledges that the innocence of his approach now seems quite overwhelming: "Public school never was in business to produce Thoreau. It is in business to produce a man like Richard Nixon, even more, a population like the one who could elect him. It does not require the attribution of sinister motives, but only of the bare survival instincts, to know that an interlocking network of industrial, political and academic interests does not exist to subsidize the demolition of its methods." Given the indoctrinational emphasis in the public schools (i.e., "a twelve-yeas house arrest") and the powerful interests supporting this function, Kozol suggests that the school is yet a "mighty archway in this nation. It will not be taken out without grave consequences for the structure it supports, nor will it be taken away without the kind of struggle and the kind of sacrifice for which young people in this nation are only beginning to prepare themselves."

The author is currently involved in the creation of a network of student-operated free schools somewhere between the formal and non-formal sectors.


In this essay a set of strategies for moving toward practical, desirable futures is outlined, with particular reference to formal education. The author conjectures, for example, that, given his set of goal priorities, "formal education would expand its boundaries to include all sorts of non-school experiences and settings, while certification of learning would be totally abolished. Emphasis would be
on lifelong access to learning resources. There would be a resource center in each natural community devoted to information classification and retrieval. People could organize their learning activities as they wished. No compulsory courses would be given in the rudiments of reading and writing. Relational information in the retrieval system would be presented with an emphasis on alternative explanations and 'strong inference' much as it is today in molecular biology and high-energy physics. . . . Education would indeed become 'conflict-ridden,' but conflict sustained by genuine dialogue between contending interests."

The author's imagined desirable future is consciously normative. It follows from a quotation by Robert Chin (1967) that "the absence of ideology in current society has led to the presentation of future directions as 'technical' questions, not as matters of values and preferences."


This article discusses the inability of formal management education programs in universities to develop explicitly the traits, knowledge, and skills that are necessary for career success and leadership in any business organization. Livingston states that "the tasks that are most important in getting results usually are left to be learned on the job, where few managers ever master them simply because no one teaches them how." Formal education, in sum, "over-develops an individual's analytical ability, but leaves his ability to take action and to get things done underdeveloped."

The author suggests that "experience is the key to the practitioner's skill," that managers must learn on the job how to take action and how to gain the willing cooperation of others in achieving desired results. Although effective managers mostly share the common characteristics of the need to manage, the need for power, and the capacity for empathy, they must also learn how to observe their environment first-hand and to assess feedback from their actions.

Michelana proposes a model to evaluate the efficiency and the pace of change in formal educational systems. Using the results of previous investigations, the author states that about ten years ago the adoption of educational innovations generally took ten times longer than those in agriculture. Again, on the basis of previous investigation, he states that, whereas it now takes about thirty-five years between the recognition of a need in education and the introduction of the idea to meet it, it takes in technology just nine years between a technical discovery and recognition of its commercial use. One main reason for this lag is that educational systems have failed to develop a systematic means of self-appraisal and innovation.

Adopting Everett M. Roger's model of diffusion of innovations, Michelana illustrates the factors crucial to the diffusion process, viz., those emanating from the society and from the educational system itself---characteristics of the actors of the organization and characteristics of the innovation and the communication process. Next, he illustrates graphically the relation of socioeconomic status and innovativeness in some Venezuelan groups. He also illustrates tabularly the appraisal of the teaching profession by Chilean and Venezuelan educators and concludes that lack of economic incentive and competitiveness, as well as inadequate channels of communication, are major barriers to innovation by educators.

The author concludes that a sound strategy for making the educational organization self-innovative must have as its priorities the building of a capacity for self-appraisal at all levels of the organization and the involvement of teachers and the community. He also suggests that instruments for making simulations of strategies, i.e., alternatives to formal schooling, should be developed and explored.


In this first of a seven-volume study for the U.S. Office of Education, papers on possible future states of education and society are presented. The articles, mostly by U.S. public school administrators and professors of education, contain much of value but are generally characterized by ethnocentrism and myopia, by excessive concern with symptoms, by avoidance of power and conflict factors, and
by the equation of education and schooling. Written in the early 1960s and published in 1967, the series already seems dated.


This article presents a clear statement of principles for the reorganization of national education to serve better the creation of a new society, "to provide a different education—one realistically designed to fulfill the common purposes of education in the particular society of Tanzania."

Because Tanzania is rural, agricultural, and poor, Nyerere rejects the British elitist school model and calls instead for schooling that will provide "the knowledge, skills, and attitudes which will serve the student where he or she lives and works in a developing and changing socialist state; it must not be aimed at university entrance." To this end, schools must become economic, work-related, as well as social and educational communities. Every school should become a farm or workshop, a community of teachers, workers, farmers, and pupils—in short, "a new family social unit."

Nyerere suggests that by integrating the school and community in such a manner, education will become less elitist, oligarchic, and urban-oriented and less functional in perpetuating gross inequalities and special privileges. Education stressing socialist values will, he claims, "encourage the development of a proud, independent, and free citizenry which relies upon itself for its own development and which knows the advantages and problems of cooperation. It must insure that the educated know how to be an integral part of the nation and recognize their responsibility to give greater service, the greater the opportunities they have had. Let our students be educated to be members and servants of the just and egalitarian future to which this country aspires."


The author suggests that in highly pluralistic societies, such as Peru's, where formal schooling is largely pre-occupied with conferring sociocultural status, the non-formal educational sector, short of violent social and educational revolution, may offer the best opportunity to circumvent the elite-dominated and increasingly dysfunctional formal school system. Paulston concludes that "in this way, confrontation with superordinate groups might be avoided while new educational institutions and organizations better able to mobilize and prepare the human resources required for national development could be created and nurtured."


According to Reimer, "this report results from conversations with Ivan Illich going back over a period of almost 15 years." It focuses on what schools do wrong, the need for alternative institutions, the problem of educational resources and their allocation, and the need "to create new and revolutionary educational alternatives to existing formal schooling." The author unfortunately does not suggest how this might be done in nonrevolutionary societies where schooling serves powerfully to maintain status quo conditions. He claims, moreover, that "concrete alternatives to schools neither can nor should be specified," for to do so would "violate the most important principles... that control of educational resources should be in the hands of the person seeking to learn... that educational time and space and the objects and human resources required for education should be as broadly defined as possible, that public resources for education should be equally shared by and under the control of individual learners."

In conclusion, Reimer offers a somewhat naive and totally utopian "strategy for peaceful educational revolution" that will supposedly be possible when, out of deep disillusionment with existing institutions (i.e., formal schools) and a compelling formulation of alternatives, a substantial educated minority will create a majority in favor of revolutionary change. Reimer suggests that research has a crucial role in education and revolution and in the development of "concrete alternatives" in the nonschool sector.
and that "Paulo Freire provides the educational means by which the revolutionary rank and file can be assembled."


This article presents a brief overview of "alternative schools," also known as the "free school movement," in which over 700 independent schools have been founded, and many have collapsed, during the past few years. Ways by which "alternative schools" might relate to public schools are suggested, i.e., by providing community-resource specialists, by "giving creative parties", by supporting radical teachers and pupils, by organizing joint experimental projects, by offering student-teacher opportunities, and by exchanging teachers in after-hours activities.


Ruscoe's purpose is to investigate the relationships between education and development in Jamaica over time. He examines agricultural, technical, and general education in relation to economic development; primary and secondary education in relation to social development; and how education has related to political development. He suggests that formal education has not played as important a role in the development of Jamaica as many claims would indicate and that schooling is more often a function of, rather than a determinant of, economic growth. He claims that this dysfunctionality has been due largely to the failure of educators to formulate plans for making education a more vital part of Jamaican development.

The extent to which the "dysfunctional" public school system has in fact been functional in perpetuating the privileged status of educational policy-makers and other elite elements, if not for national development, is, of course, the other side of the coin and only lightly touched upon.


The author presents an anthropologically oriented analysis of U.S. school culture and of attempts to introduce change in university and school cultures. He suggests that
"it is characteristic of the modal process of change in the school culture that the intended outcome (i.e., the change in the regularity) is rarely stated clearly, and if it is stated clearly, by the end of the change process it has managed to get lost." The book, essentially, attempts to explain why this occurs and why the school culture will continue to resist change.


The author examines in-school and out-of-school factors limiting formal school programs in a relatively prosperous ladino town.


This study of the Underground College Press Services examines a variety of alternatives to existing institutions, including the public school and higher educational systems.


In this trenchant-critique of U.S. public schools, the author argues that our most pressing educational problem is not how to increase the efficiency of our schools and universities but the more difficult tasks of combating "mindlessness," of creating and maintaining a humane society. The book is Organized into four parts: "The Educating Society," "What's Wrong with the Schools," "How the Schools Should Be Changed," and "The Education of Educators." Chapter 2, "American Education: Success or Failure," discusses Margaret Mead's concept of lateral transmission of learning via the mass media to every sentient member of society, in contrast to earlier reliance on the vertical transmission of "the tried and true by the old, mature, and experienced teachers to the young, in-experienced, and immature pupil." Silberman assesses the role of the mass media (television, journalism), "neighborhood law firms," "environmental medicine," and other quasi-non-formal educational activities. He argues that doctors, lawyers, social workers, and all other professionals need to view themselves as educators. Silberman concludes that the schools are still salvageable, but only with major surgery.
ORIENTATION AND BASIC ISSUES


Stretch explains the rise of the "free-school" as a reaction to the authoritarianism, suppression, boredom, fear, and "grievous lack of learning" that too often characterize the institution of formal schooling. She contends that the revolt today is against the institution itself, against the implicit assumption that learning must be imposed on children by adults, that learning is not something one does by and for oneself but something designated by a teacher. Schools operating on this assumption tend to hold children in a prolonged state of dependency, to keep them from discovering their own capacities for learning, and to encourage a sense of impotence and lack of worth. The search should be, she concludes, for alternatives to this kind of institution.

The basic rationale underlying the new, or free, or community schools that have sprung up by the hundreds across the country is, simply put, that "freedom is a supreme good; that people, including young people, have a right to freedom, and that people who are free will be in general more open, human, intelligent than people who are not free, i.e., directed, manipulated, and ordered about." The study also describes how a number of representative free schools have sought relevance and viability in a generally hostile social environment.


This study argues that in order to specify the set of skills most suitable to the national development goals, the conversion of data on occupational needs into educational requirements is of great importance. In making that conversion, H. S. Parnes has noted such difficulties as educational structures that vary among countries, various methods of preparing for a given occupation, a variety in educational avenues to many occupations, and difficulty in placing occupations in a particular educated category. There is also the problem of coordinating economic plans and educational programs, as well as the problem of the chronic shortage of qualified teachers. The study critically concludes that "manpower planning tends to fail because of a heavy reliance on abstractions which break down at the point where specificity is required."
22 NON-FORMAL EDUCATION


In this provocative essay, Wallace develops a theory of education and social change that has direct relevance for the study of non-formal education. Human learning is arranged on a scale of generality in which each category is contained in, and implied by, its succeeding category. "If we take schooling as the initial category, it is followed by education, then enculturation, then learning itself."

Matter to be learned is trichotomized as technic, or reinforced "how-to" learning; morality, a particular kind of socially approved value exemplified by heroic actions, by a potentiality for sacrifice for the community's welfare; and intellect, the manipulation of cognitive forms, such as an aspect of culture in detachment from technics and morality.

Societies in a revolutionary stage undergoing a revitalization movement (such as China and Cuba) are seen as emphasizing morality, intellect, and technic in order of relative perceived importance. Conservative or post-revolutionary societies (such as the United States) tend to stress technic, while reactionary societies (such as Portugal and South Africa) are post-conservative societies undergoing challenges from budding revitalization movements. They seek to preserve the values of an earlier revolutionary phase and stress these values, which the conservative society cherished and elaborated. Thus, "with each of the major value orientations (i.e., revolutionary, conservative and reactionary) there is associated a philosophy of schooling which characteristically assigns priorities to the matters of learning in schools."


This work presents a good illustration of English experimental efforts to "free-up" formal primary schooling, to make it more informal. Less formal schools are, nevertheless, still schools.

Other items that deal with Critiques of Formal Schooling are

1206, 1210, 1211, 1212, 1221, 1222, 1223, 3303, 4301, 4509, 5841, 7104, 7145, 7157, 7229, 7237, 7305, 7308
1200. CONCEPTUALIZING NON-FORMAL EDUCATION


Anderson forcibly argues that "a proposal to plan non-formal education is arrogant toward the common man, unlearned about the nature of planning, and poorly read in the literature on social change." Instead, he claims that "the major topic is one of incentives: how to provide a system of incentives that will encourage the emergence and survival of viable forms of non-formal education--forms that are encouraged to grow out of the local culture and will maximize the potentials for modernization that may be latent in the local situation. The aim, in other words, is to encourage proliferation of diverse learning opportunities in the interstices of a country's structure for education-training and thereby to provide a more productive or effective and dynamically adaptive overall system of education for ongoing development."


The author argues that any educational system regardless of its degree of democratization will be controlled by an elite simply because it is a system. Elites may be based on merit or birth; they will in either case seek to perpetuate elite status for their children through education and through control of government. Bereday claims that in any trapezoid educational structure, real equality of access and opportunity is impossible because of environmental inequities and inherent imperfections in the selection process. As a partial solution, he proposes a non-formal educational "un-system" stressing lifelong learning, flexibility, and easy access to education for all. He concludes that such un-systems, if created, would not become widely used in the near future because of difficulties in assessing qualifications, because there appears to be no way to initiate un-systems without systematizing them to some extent, and because "most human systems are designed not to promote but to retard change."
It is well-known that America has an increasing shortage of skilled workers and a growing surplus of unskilled laborers. The conventional prescription for this imbalance is to try to educate more of the unemployed. Apart from its practical difficulties, this solution begs an important question: Are academic credentials important for doing the job or just for getting it? Is it true, as many business managers, government leaders, economists, and academics claim, that the worker's attitudes, trainability, capacity for adaptation, prospects for promotion, and job tenure improve with each increment of education? Or are the employers demanding too much education for the jobs they offer?

Berg's study, based on extensive data, demolishes eight conventional assumptions, point by point. He finds that, first, a growing number of workers have more education than they need to perform their jobs well—in some cases more than the employers themselves regard as desirable. Second, salaries are not necessarily closely related to education—many teachers and social workers, for example, earn less than plumbers and professional athletes. Third, an employee's productivity does not vary systematically with his years of formal education, particularly when experience is taken into account. Fourth, the rate of turnover is positively associated with higher education. Fifth, upper- and middle-level employees are not the only ones who are overqualified for their jobs—among workers in lower-skilled jobs dissatisfaction was found to increase as educational levels rose. Sixth, better-educated employees are often rated as less productive. Seventh, the practice of basing teachers' salaries on the credits they earn toward higher degrees actually encourages teachers not to teach since those who feel overtrained tend to seek administrative positions or better-paying jobs in industry. Finally, in the armed forces it was found that "high-school graduates were not uniformly and markedly superior to non-graduates" and that non-formal training on the job was more important than educational credentials earned in formal schooling. In sum, this well-written and well-argued study demonstrates that formal schooling has more to do with improving the life chances of the already prosperous than with meeting the requirements of most jobs.

Blaug questions whether educational planners in poor countries should devote a fraction of their scarce resources to non-formal adult literacy programs. And if so, what fraction should be given over? He examines the elementary economics and benefits of literacy and compares the merits of functional literacy vs. those of rudimentary literacy. He concludes the following: (a) the objective of the educational planner is to promote economic development, subject to the maintenance of national sovereignty and political stability; (b) the impatient planner will not neglect the quick payoff of adult literacy; (c) in the absence of reliable evidence, the economic benefits of school education probably exceed those of adult literacy; (d) the case for literacy rests mainly on the short period of production of a new literate; and (e) the development value of truly functional literacy is very likely to be greater than that of primary education.


In this special issue on "Social Goals and Indicators for American Society," Cohen examines emerging patterns in the U.S. educational complex and pays special attention to the size of the non-formal education learning force, which he describes as follows:

Vocational, Technical, and Professional Training Outside the Formal Educational Structure, United States, 1940-74

(millions)

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<td>Professional and technical training</td>
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<td>6.7</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>17.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>On-the-job training</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>6.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Correspondence schools</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>3.2</td>
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<td>Other</td>
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<td>Total</td>
<td>11.8</td>
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*Projected.
In Chapter 5, "Non-Formal Education: To Catch Up, Keep Up, and Get Ahead," Coombs develops the concept of a major "shadow school system," i.e., a non-formal educational "sector" that exists in all countries. In the case of industrialized nations, non-formal or "life-long education" is important to ensure employment mobility and make "unemployable dropouts" employable, to keep well-trained people abreast of new knowledge and technologies essential to continued high productivity, and to improve culturally enriching leisure-time experiences. Developing nations, because they lack a broad economic base and universal popular schooling, have different priority tasks for non-formal education, as follows: (a) to provide new skills and knowledge to unschooled farmers, workers, and small entrepreneurs; (b) to upgrade through in-service training the competence of partially qualified people such as school teachers and others holding jobs in private and public sectors; and (c) to salvage dropouts from public schools through appropriate forms of special training.

He strongly recommends that both industrialized and developing countries would benefit from acceptance of the non-formal education concept to better comprehend existing inputs, processes, and outputs in the non-school sector, to articulate more effectively formal and non-formal education, and to carry out the research studies of "this largely un-researched yet vitally important sector of education."

This study focuses on change processes in socio-rural systems, on power controls and their interrelationships with regional and national systems, and on the current situation in Peru regarding exogenous and endogenous
variables in power redistribution. Craig describes formal education as, until recently, "a mechanism used by those holding power to limit the mobility of the great majority who lack power. Mestizo dominance of social power was maintained." With current expanding tolerance parameters of the regional and national systems, the subordinate groups in rural and urban areas are beginning to probe these parameters for power adjustments. Thus, peasant and rural labor organizations, community-development programs, credit unions, consumer and producer cooperatives, and the non-formal educational activities that support and facilitate them are often manifestations of the possibilities for parametric change at the local level, as legitimized by the larger system. The author claims that "endogenous changes come about only as exogenous changes wrought by the larger national system create wider tolerance levels which in turn establish greater possibilities for change of an endogenous nature."

This scholarly, historical study examines the aims, programs, and outcomes of numerous earlier efforts, many in the non-formal educational sector, to apply technology in "backward areas" of Asia, Africa, and Latin America.

Foster shares Reimer's egalitarianism and concerns with his thesis that "educational systems help maintain class structures and that certain groups always benefit disproportionally from educational resources." He disdainfully rejects Reimer's undisciplined, utopian approach to the problem, however, and suggests that what is really needed is more data so that one can "come to grips with hard choices that must be made concerning resource allocation." Difficult questions concerning the relative productivity of educational investment in formal and non-formal sectors, Foster suggests, are best resolved with rate-of-return analysis. This approach, despite its limitations, is seen as the most useful "if economic growth is our primary aim."

Foster argues cogently that the formal school system might best contribute to the development of technical competence by giving pupils the verbal skills, knowledge, and behaviors that would enable them to absorb and to utilize effectively specific forms of on-the-job vocational training. This approach would require a more systematic development of alternatives to the traditional vocational school approach. The author concludes that "a great deal of training must be developed outside the schools through the use of auxiliary institutions with special vocational institutes being created in particular cases where their endeavors can be closely meshed with on-the-job training and with the actual manpower requirements indicated by the market for skills."


Writing from a third-world perspective, Freire advocates an adult-literacy theory and non-formal practice that seeks to build on a base of rapport and authentic dialogue between the learners and teachers. This dialogue centers upon codified representations of the learners' existential situations and supposedly leads not only to their acquisition of literacy skills but, hopefully, to increasing their awareness of their right and capacity as human beings to transform socioeconomic and political reality as well. Becoming literate thus would mean much more than simply learning to decode the written representation of a sound system. It would also become an act of knowing, of being able to critically assess one's cultural roots and to reflect on positive action in the social setting. The process of "conscientization thus becomes the means by which men can better be conscious of the oppressive reality in which they exist." Authentic (i.e., cultural) revolutions, according to Freire, will follow in order "to negate the dominating culture culturally, even before the new culture resulting from that negation has become a reality."

This is an important document, not so much for the unsubstantiated rationale and method proposed, but for the
example it provides of a Latin American revolutionary calling for "cultural revolution" in the speculative, utopian, and theoretical terms of the traditional culture under attack. Freire, as do most Latin American revolutionaries, continues to think of a "cultural revolution" as making European high culture available to the masses. The idea of a new proletarian culture, as created in China, seems to have as little appeal in Chile as in Cuba.


This is a good introduction to the background and concepts of futurism in education. Emphasis in the seven chapters is on "creative forecasting." Both the text and the long annotated bibliography contain much of interest to the student of non-formal education.

This study proposes a systems analysis approach to human resource development to facilitate identification of major problem areas in operational terms and the critical examination of interrelationships between various manpower, education, and economic-development programs. "In using this frame of reference, one can identify skill-generating centers, such as schools, universities, training institutes, and employing organizations which develop people on the job... It provides a logical starting point for building a strategy of human-resource development."

This study proposes an "action program for non-formal education... as a tool for multisectoral development."
A three-page schematic is attached as a guide in the preparation of preliminary case studies to help fill the "knowledge gap," i.e., the serious lack of basic knowledge regarding the subject matter, effective means of delivery, and specific effects of many kinds of non-formal education.


The author discusses how most developing countries in Africa and Asia have faced the same hard educational choices following independence, although at markedly different stages. At first, elite secondary and university institutions closely modeled on those of the ex-colonial powers are expanded, then the pressure for more primary schooling intensifies, followed by a growing concern at the widening gap between the educated few in wage-employment and the rural, unschooled masses. This tends to coincide with growing unemployment and a swing back to a new stress on primary schooling and to arguments about the need for adult, literacy, and other forms of non-school education aimed at what is essentially an economic need for an educated farming population.

Hunter is not yet ready to junk the British grammar-school model. Rather, he calls for its "modernization," while quoting T. S. Eliot's caveat that "the attempt to spread elite learning to a growing mass of people will be to adulterate and cheapen what you give." But exactly how peasant societies might avoid the trap of "elite learning" by creating new, development-oriented educational institutions, as in Tanzania, China, and elsewhere, is ignored.


This work presents many of the author's previously published essays on the failure of institutions in general and schools in particular and on the critical need for alternatives in the nonschool educational sector. As "primitive monoliths" closed off from the rest of society, schools produce some learning but primarily function for certification, entitlement, and indoctrination. They create and maintain a body of elites based in large measure on the amount of teaching consumed and conversely screen out the nonelite while providing a scale to show where each
person drops out. Contradictions are institutionalized, i.e., the contradiction between democratic goals and elite products and the competition ethic of schools holding that people can become more equal by competing with each other.

Illich's alternative vision for non-formal learning places emphasis on the following: (a) individual choice and responsibility for actions; (b) education as personalized intercourse between people, as a process of peer matching according to common interests and free choice; (c) technological retrieval potential, i.e., the institutionalized availability of learning resources, whether human or information; and (d) personal freedom and civil rights, i.e., elimination of discrimination against people who have consumed less school ritual as well as of the virtual monopoly of public schooling with its cruel and unusual detention. Illich offers an articulate, passionate critique but provides no road maps out of the morass.


The author suggests that formal schooling must be abolished because "the pupil is... 'schooled' to confuse teaching with learning, grade advancement with education, a diploma with competence, and fluency with the ability to say something new. His imagination is 'schooled' to accept service in place of value. Medical treatment is mistaken for health care, social work for the improvement of community life, police protection for safety, military poise for national security, the rat race for productive work... Not only education but social reality itself has become 'schooled.'"

He calls for a "cultural revolution," for a radical examination of the social myths and institutions by which our lives are increasingly organized in an industrialized, mechanistic, and progressively less human world. More specifically, his reform suggestions call for the following: legal protection from the obligatory, graded curriculum; laws forbidding discrimination on the basis of prior schooling; the formation of skill centers where useful skills can be learned, taught by those best equipped to teach them; and peer-matching, by which the learned may share their knowledge with those seeking instruction. Illich feels such radical measures are necessary to turn civilization from its headlong rush toward the violence that frustrated expectations will certainly unleash as long as the school myth is allowed to persist.
Although Illich is a provocative critic, his diagnosis applies more to the impoverished third world than to the advanced industrial nations. What began as the "futility of schooling in Latin America" has become somewhat simplistically "the futility of schooling." More serious is his unwillingness to acknowledge the function of schools in legitimizing and perpetuating elites and their unwillingness to share power.


Ivan Illich, a Catholic educator-priest with experience in university teaching and educational planning in Puerto Rico, now directs the CIDOC Program in Mexico. His basic thesis elaborated in this important essay is that formal schooling, as now idealized and practiced, must be supplemented and, on occasion, substituted by out-of-school education. In the face of the current population explosion in Latin America, Illich claims that schooling acts as a narrow bridge over a widening gap between the underprivileged masses and the upper classes and that school systems built for modern industrial nations will not fit the developing nations.


This report presents a convincing plea for a more systematic approach to human resource development in schools and in non-formal out-of-school education and training programs. It notes that many countries have tended to overinvest in schooling without an overall view of the problem nor of the criteria that would enable the assessment of costs and benefits of such investment. The report proposes the systematic development of "an integrated system" of all available educational resources for the effective education and timely training of needed personnel.


This brochure describes how the Public Learning Corporation was founded in May 1970 to provide the prototype of a nonschool learning service system not merely responsive to but based on the needs of its clients as they
define them. It is claimed that such a non-formal learning-service system should be able to meet the particular requests of any client for assistance in cognitive, emotional, social, philosophical, physical, spiritual, or other development with that combination of information, skill training, facilitative support, and awareness that the client will find useful. Such a learning-service system should provide access to people who share the same questions, access to people with appropriate learning-service skill, access to facilities and equipment that are needed, and access to information-retrieval and media-display systems that, taken together, would provide clients with the opportunity to follow their individual lines of inquiry as they form the pattern of their personal growth. At present, the Interest Group Formation Service provides people with the opportunity to find others who share their interests. The proposed next step, if the Ingroup service grows, is to build public learning centers where people can meet to learn together.


This study develops basic guidelines for establishing systems of lifelong continuing education based on the concept that different cultures and subcultures make demands on their members and that these demands, or developmental tasks, change from time to time. This approach, the "inside-outside school," would promote self-directed intellectual activity and social progress, especially in developing nations, by incorporating the best features of the "outside school" (the social milieu plus the mass media) with discussion, lectures, and other elements of formal education. The pursuit of numerous philosophical, psychological, and sociological objectives would entail the following: liberating minds toward wisdom through certain attitude and behavior changes; enlarging knowledge and understanding by such means as problem solving, literacy, or basic general education and language study; and expanding communication skills through understanding, development of moral values, and constructive group, civic, and cultural participation.

The author presents a theoretical basis for life-long education and discusses a variety of requirements and problems involved in implementing his interpretation of the concept. He concludes that the logic of the development of life-long education in programs of adult education, in out-of-school training, in the mass media, and in universal instruction demands a basic transformation of social structures. Thus, its introduction will, to the extent that the totality of the structures of the polis are involved in its realization, be an essentially political undertaking. And, as with related concepts such as democracy, liberty, equality et al., "life-long education does not yet exist anywhere in the fullness of its aims."


The author examines why vocational schools in Latin America have generally failed to justify their relatively expensive existence and the case for non-formal training agencies as alternatives to the formal school system. Levine suggests that, even if an occasional vocational school has temporarily succeeded or if training agencies frequently have serious defects, the course for the development planner seems clear, i.e., "the formal school system to the task of general education; the quasi-autonomous training agency for specific occupational training. No other agency other than the school can take on the job of general education, but there are many other sources for skill development."


The author predicts that private institutions of higher learning, both within cities and in peripheral areas, will be called upon increasingly to help provide for growing and varying continuing education needs. He envisions the rise by 1980 of a new institutional form, the College of Continuing Education, that will combine continuing education and community service. He proposes the creation of four institutes--Occupational and Professional Development,
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Personal and Family Development, Civic and Social Development, and Humanistic and Liberal Development—served by three centers—Counseling and Community Referral, Research and Professional Development, Metropolitan Studies and Problem Solving. He also offers ideas on campus facilities for adults, faculty arrangements, administration and organization, financing, and community cooperation. An appendix lists 46 examples of existing programs and activities in continuing higher education.


Loye abstracts 104 ETS-sponsored, largely empirical research studies that aim "quite directly, to discover how to enhance the quality of man's life," how to "discover how we may more surely rekindle minds of all ages that have been turned off by life and circumstance, how to lessen hatred and hostility, and to increase love and respect—for others and for ourselves." This research rationale is well suited to investigations in both the formal and non-formal educational sectors, and numerous studies that have pertinence to the latter are described. See, for example, "Professional/Technical Assistance to the Head Start Research and Evaluation Demonstration Program," by Ruth B. Ekstrom, and "Bayesian Guidance Technology," by Melvin R. Novick and Paul H. Jackson. In their most provocative study, the latter authors discuss how Bayesian methods have led to a shift in thinking about testing. Traditional emphasis in testing has been on selection of the few out of many for special training on the basis of a few abilities out of many. Now a crucially important new development arising from the widening confrontation of education with social need seeks to apply Bayesian probability theory in testing to further a new emphasis on the use of testing for "guidance and placement of the many rather than selection of the few, and according to an evaluation of many rather than few abilities." Some Bayesian theorists see their methods as ideally suited to adapt testing methods and statistical thinking to serve broader social ends. The issues, theory, and range of applications for test developers and statisticians are examined in the context for formal schooling but obviously have significance for efforts to rationalize the non-formal educational sector as well.
Another study of interest to the student of non-formal education is "WGBH-TV Training Program for Law Enforcement Officials," by Roderick Ironside. In a pretest-posttest comparison, the author found no meaningful difference between those who had and those who had not seen the program. This study demonstrates how problems of random sampling, test development, and teaching must be systematically dealt with if results of non-formal education are to be objectively assessed.


This essay examines the state of the art concerning the economics of education, and especially the relation between formal and non-formal education and economic growth. Reviews productive and unproductive effects of schooling, attempts to calculate private and social returns from education, and examines demand and cost considerations in relation to alternatives to schooling. Machlup suggests that on-the-job training and adult-education programs have a faster pay-off than schooling, despite the latter's far-greater rate of return over a lifetime. He distinguishes three types of on-the-job "in-service" education as follows: company-sponsored training courses for employees using an instructional staff, worker training without special teachers, and non-formal learning by a worker seeking to improve his performance and skill in order to become eligible for advancement to higher pay or a better job.

The author concludes that such efforts should be linked with adult education sponsored by public or civic agencies even though the return of these programs will almost always be slower and less certain than for training on the job. Both will, however, be much faster than for formal primary schooling. Machlup concludes that non-formal education programs, usually held at night, in vocational training and in adult education programs will succeed only if popular enthusiasm for learning is aroused. "People do not learn against their will; it takes a degree of commitment and passion for people to make the required effort. If a mass movement for adult education can be stirred up, the rate of return on this investment may be much higher than that on other educational (i.e., formal schooling) outlays."
The purpose of this study is to investigate possible contributions of adult education to the nation-building process. Nation-building is defined as a process of building group cohesion and group loyalty for the purposes of domestic planning and international representation. Models are designed and applied for the purpose of analyzing the function of adult education in nation-building, and current examples of adult education and nation-building are included. The basic model of nation-building devised as a part of this study is divided into these three sequential categories: the antecedent, which consisted of the background factors and goals of nation-building; the concurrent, which included the actual process of adult education and existing conditions; and the consequent, which incorporates the outcome of the whole process of nation-building. It was found that "the outcome of the nation-building process appeared to be predicated upon the interaction between adult education and nation-building." Whereas the political dimensions vary greatly from nation to nation, the adult-education dimensions--intensity, effectiveness, and extension of adult education--were found to be present and significant in every process of nation-building.

The author argues that there is "a spectrum between closed and open systems, and extremely open systems tend to be 'unsystematic,' (i.e., loose, only partly knowable and subject to irreversible changes or high plasticity)." To support this view, he presents an outline of the "education complex," a system (i.e., a complex of interacting elements) so open that serious attention must be given to various boundaries. Educating institutions include all organizations and parts of organizations involved with the provision of formal instructional services that purportedly enhance the learning processes of students--i.e., core educating systems or formal degree-granting schooling, peripheral programs (non-formal activities in adult education, management
training, remedial training, retraining, and youth activities), and informal education, a residual category involving national medial and local cultural facilities, social institutions, and personal media. Marien further examines the functions of selected suppliers and organized beneficiaries in the education complex, problems of system and concept lag, and implications of the study for systems theory. This article also appears in Milton Rubin, ed., Man in Systems: Proceedings of the Fourteenth Annual Meeting of the Society of General Systems Research (New York: Gordon and Breach, 1971.)


McCall defines formal education as "the regular graded school system" and non-formal education as "the entire range of learning experiences outside of the regular, graded school system." He defends his exceedingly broad definitions as being most useful to an intense action orientation. "We desire to know as rapidly as possible which types of activity—anywhere within the spectrum of non-formal education—have the highest potential returns for development for the resources expended. Thus, while desiring to retain the breath of 'non-formal education' for conceptual purposes, our prime concern is to identify within this broad landscape certain of the categories of activities on which our action-oriented efforts should be concentrated."


The author develops concepts of vertical and lateral transmission of knowledge in stable and rapidly changing cultures, respectively. She argues that the "whole teaching-and-learning continuum, which was once tied in an orderly and productive way to the passing of generations and the growth of the child into a man—this whole process has exploded in our faces." Mead suggests possibilities for greater effectiveness in laterally transmitting agents in the mass media and indirectly in non-formal education programs.

In Chapter 1, "Educational Innovation: The Nature of the Problem," Miles compares costs and programs of the formal and non-formal "sub-systems" of the American educational establishment. Of the $40 billion spent on educational efforts in 1964, Miles estimates that $27 billion were spent in the formal subsystem and $13 billion in the non-formal area.

   Like many people seeking educational reform and non-school alternatives, the author visited Ivan Illich's CIDOC in Cuernavaca, Mexico, hoping "to learn more tactics and strategies for educational change." Once there, he was disappointed to find that CIDOC, which has been so closely identified with the deschooling movement, seemed to be more "schooled-up" than the people it challenges to leave the schools.

   The authors propose a systems approach to educational reform that includes a non-formal educational component.

   Discusses the need to determine the dimensions of the "learning force," a concept first developed by Bertram Gross, who defined it as "the total number of people developing their capacities through systematic education—that is, where learning is aided by teaching and where there are formal, organized efforts to impart knowledge through instruction." Moses argues that a central research task is to delineate the scope of activities and the extent of participation in the educational "periphery," or the non-formal educational sector, as a means of better understanding the size and impact of the learning force. He also contends that concern for "educational status has forced often-valuable 'peripheral' programs to suffer unnecessarily, when they should be allowed to take their place as needed educational alternatives in our society."
Arguing that manpower planning is at present excessively concerned with the urban sector, the author cites recent experience in Zambia, where some 82 percent of the total population is rural, to show how greater attention to rural manpower can contribute to rural development in newer countries. Rural development should not concern itself exclusively with maximizing production: other objectives, which though related will not automatically be attained by single-minded pursuit of higher output, include providing the rural population with opportunities for productive employment, education, health services, and other government aids and raising rural living standards. Myers suggests that, to achieve all this, it is essential to know first how many workers—and what kind—will be seeking employment, what place they and their families will occupy as consumers, to what extent education should serve to prepare young people to earn a living; how labor intensity and capital-intensive production should be balanced against each other, and so forth. Because the typical farmer in the year of independence was illiterate, manpower considerations also call for, besides suitable school education, an ambitious program of practical non-formal training courses for postschool youth and adult farmers and greatly expanded training facilities for agronomists, extension workers, and other key rural-development personnel.

The author discusses the emergent issues and research needed to advance the practice of educational planning and policy-making. Six research clusters or themes are presented as an organizing device, one of which is concerned with training and education institutions outside the formal school system and with their potential for meeting key development needs. Platt proposes, in a very general manner, research to "map" the scope, content, and function of non-formal or out-of-school education; research to understand better how formal and non-formal educational sectors might be more efficiently articulated; and studies of methods, financing, motivation, and planning used in non-formal education programs.
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The author claims, without presenting any evidence, that "futures literature may be valuable in helping us to review our preferences and directions more systematically." He strongly suggests that "it is time to think seriously as to whether we mean to look at continuing education as a complement to school education, as a replacement--or a substitute--for schooling, as an educative factor per se, as an alternative to schooling, or simply as a more efficient formula for education than the schools." The essay contains an appendix, "A Futures Scenario for the Field of Education with Emphasis on Out-of-School Educational Programs," forecasting and/or proposing a national Educational Placement Service (EPS) to direct youth and adults seeking post-secondary education into non-formal training programs in commerce, industry, and the military.


This tract develops a general planning model for occupational education and training (OET): "the preparation of persons in schools or elsewhere to perform well in occupational roles." Subsequent chapters discuss OET needs, curriculum design, and institutional-organizational choice possibilities. Relative advantages and disadvantages of OET in the formal school system in contrast to the non-formal sector and possibilities for trade-offs between the two are examined. Also described are structure, financing, and working methods of occupational training programs illustrating "the practices recommended" in Latin American national apprenticeship programs in Brazil, Colombia, Venezuela, Chile, Argentina, Peru, Costa Rica, and Ecuador; in Tunisia Centers for Accelerated Vocational Training; in the United Kingdom's Industrial Training Boards and the Central Training Council; and in a Nigerian proposal for vocational and technical training.

This comprehensive, systematic review of training programs and problems in representative less-developed countries demonstrates that many school and nonschool
in institutional programs and resources are available—at least potentially—to aid in the tasks of preparing qualified personnel for the occupational roles necessary in economic development. Staley emphasizes that this need "requires a thoughtful, comprehensive strategy—an 'orchestration' of all resources for coping with problems of manpower and human-resource development—not separate, uncoordinated efforts by the educational authorities, the labor ministry, the subject-matter agencies (agriculture, health, industry, etc.), the employing establishments, and voluntary groups." The uncoordinated approach, he suggests, usually means that developing countries pay a high price for meager results.


The author discusses in Chapter 4, "The Production of Human Capital," problems of complementarity between formal and non-formal education programs, between schooling and training. The form of the human capital production function is specified, and inputs related to each other and to the production of human capital in the various sectors of the total educational system are examined. Thurow notes that as formal education increases training costs are likely to fall, and the variety of training that can be offered in the nonschool sector can be expanded. Conversely, every job requires particular knowledge that either cannot be or is not acquired in formal education. Thus, without job-related training, education is likely to be of little practical value. "If education and training are complementary, benefits from both education and training will be larger than the sum of the benefits from formal education and experience taken separately." Thurow concludes that education may be a profitable investment with training but an unprofitable investment without training and that non-school training programs can distort the calculated returns to formal education, especially when training benefits have been included in returns to formal schooling and when training costs have not been included. "Thus raw observations of income flows cannot be used to determine the rate of return on education, since the human capital of any one individual is the product of many human capital assets which are not distributed independently of each other."
This monograph suggests that because formal schooling is becoming ever more expensive and dysfunctional vis-a-vis economic development needs in the less-developed countries, "the only opportunity for skill and knowledge development for the population as a whole is through some kind of non-formal education." No evidence is offered to support this assumption, however. In fact, it may well be that non-formal education has been relatively successful vis-a-vis formal education precisely because it is fairly unstructured, flexible, less colonizing, and relatively free from the dead-hand of government bureaucracy. If it were to be given more "attention and money" and more closely coordinated with the formal-school system, it might well lose much of its unique character and ability to motivate and instruct, especially in manual, low-prestige subjects.

A three-part non-formal education program is proposed to help define and develop the concept of a separate system; to study, document, and disseminate information on successful examples of non-formal education that appear suitable for experimentation and application in other less-developed countries; and to provide professional and financial support for research experimentation and implementation of those models that appear most promising or for new concepts that appear worthy of testing.

Also discussed are steps to implement the Action Program in collaboration with related activities of the IBRD, the IIEP, and others. Activities are scheduled according to short- and long-term work plans from December 1970 to July 1971 and from 1971 to 1975, respectively. This important proposal promises a variety of research activities to better illuminate the concept, role, and impact of non-formal education in the national educational enterprise of developing countries. The serious problems of U.S. foreign-aid agencies after October 1971, however, will quite likely shift the burden of implementation to the IBRD, UNICEF, and voluntary organizations.
This tract examines three so-called problem areas selected for "in-depth" attention by AID in the coming decade: (a) to explore the potential of educational technology; (b) to evaluate the experience of the less-developed countries (and the United States) with non-formal education programs and to foster experimentation and transfer of successful experiences between the less-developed countries; and (c) to foster evaluation, research, and experimentation with various modes of educational finance, educational planning, decision-making, and management. The study assumes that there is a "non-formal educational system" but then explains in detail that there is no functional interrelatedness among the various components of what is in fact a non-formal sector paralleling a formal-school system. Four major reasons for concentrating efforts on improvement of non-formal education at this time are examined. The study concludes that "a proper use of AID assistance in the non-formal educational system area can be highly productive. Equally it is hoped that our assistance would be designed to support a truly indigenous growth of non-formal education rooted in their needs and in accord with their resources." To a considerable extent, the interest of AID and other technical-assistance groups in non-formal education follows from lack of success in making less-developed countries formal-school systems more functional for national development and less functional for perpetuating and legitimizing dominant elites. Whether these superordinate groups will allow a threat to their power and privilege to arise in the non-formal sector is, however, not likely.


This tract states that "the need is urgent to ascertain ways by which non-formal education activities can be generated, adapted, and replicated to enhance national development. From an operational standpoint, the immediate tasks are: (1) to identify ongoing, effective non-formal educational activities, programs or processes; and (2) to analyze their respective components, determinants, and impacts." Non-formal education is defined as "a short-hand expression for the constellation of human skills and knowledge-development processes which for the most part are external to traditional formal school curricula" and as "the myriad of means and approaches other than those of the
formal-school structure (i.e., primary, secondary, tertiary, and vocational curricula) by which skills and work-related knowledge and attitudes are acquired, updated, and adapted."

A four-point rationale for concentrating effort in non-formal education at this time is presented as follows: (a) skyrocketing costs of formal education, (b) pressing need for skills, (c) lack of formal education, and (d) receptiveness to technical assistance. Also discussed is the need to focus on "productive educative services"; the report surveys a number of these in agricultural and rural development, in training, in youth programs, and in health education. It contends that "more attention to and more money invested in the most productive programs of non-formal education will undoubtedly increase its prestige and effective contribution to national development" and "that the highest payoffs for new investment in human-resource development are in the non-formal area." No evidence is offered to support these assumptions.


The Associate U.S. Commissioner for Educational Research and Development, Harry F. Silberman, is planning to redirect research priorities in the Office of Education's NCERD. In order to give the public more for its tax dollar, Silberman will stress projects that seek better ways to make people, young people especially, employable. He hopes to go far beyond "a retread on traditional research on vocational education" and instead to seek "alternatives, and perhaps quite radical alternatives," to the way this nation has tried to prepare people for careers and jobs.

The most challenging of these might establish non-formal learning settings quite apart from the schools in a type of employer-based education in which employers would form and operate learning centers, permitting students to opt for non-formal rather than formal schooling with opportunities to move back and forth between the school world and the job world. The second model aims at establishing what Silberman calls a "home-based support system" for better kinds of career education and job preparation. It
might include new kinds of television broadcasting—"something like a Sesame Street for career development"—or programs specially developed for adults seeking retraining. The third model would aim at a substantial upgrading of existing school-centered career development programs. Welsh notes that other governmental agencies, notably the policy-planning office of the Department of Labor, are also thinking hard about the employability problem of young people and that Silberman's strategy has the kind of "social immediacy which appeals to Congress."


This work briefly sketches an operational model for a training-within-industry program, the basic functions of which are to develop a local agency capability to operate an effective skills-training system for employed workers and to develop the capability for coordination of employing establishments, training requirements, and activities with local manpower development supporting institutions. It specifies program input and process requirements in the areas of staffing, facilities, funding, and so on; in training coordination linkages and articulation of training phases; and in the proposed self-study learning process utilizing programmed instruction.


This paper argues convincingly that in third-world countries "a reorientation of the education (i.e., formal schooling) and training systems, with greater emphasis on vocational education and on non-formal training for agriculture and industry, will be required to redress present imbalances." It explains why non-formal education and training is the current first priority area for lending and lists recent non-formal education projects in, for example, Tanzania, Congo, Somalia, and Uganda, which total some $23 million.

Other items that deal with Conceptualizing Non-Formal Education are

1102, 1110, 1117, 1130, 1137, 1301, 1304, 1305, 1308, 1311, 3401, 5212, 5811, 6729, 6730, 7101, 7139, 7153, 7158

In this "speculative essay," Brembeck probes ten working hypothesis concerning relations between formal and non-formal sectors of national educational systems. He suggests that the "structure of the learning environment which the delivery systems tend to create" is a key distinction between formal and non-formal education, the former frequently being outside the context of action, work, and use. Thus, the latter is a superior mode when the object is to change immediate action or to create new action. Formal schooling is superior when immediate action is subordinated to abstract learning or concept building. Brembeck suggests that future educational policy must provide for a mix of both types of education and that formal schooling is capable of producing "only a limited number of the wide range of behaviors required if modern society is to perpetuate itself and do its work."

1302. CANLAS, E. S. "From Theory to Practice: Adult Education and Rural Development." Social Action, XVII, 3 (May-June 1967), 204-10.


This catalog describes, first, the aims of the Center. "CIDOC is not a university but a meeting place for humanists whose common concern is the effect of social and ideological change in the minds and hearts of men. It is a setting for understanding the implications of social revolution, not an instrument for promoting particular theories of social action. It is an environment for learning, not a headquarters for activist planning." It then describes the archives, library, and publications; the Language School ("for highly motivated and disciplined students"); and a variety of courses, lectures, seminars, and study groups that meet to discuss the problem of institutional revolution and alternatives to schooling.
The conscious attempt to "deschool CIDOC" is symptomatic of the larger problem of deschooling society, a constant theme in the work of founder Ivan Illich. The Center, for example, keeps no records on former students and does not provide transcripts. The catalog does note, however, that "most U.S. colleges accept previously authorized independent study done at CIDOC or accreditation." Yet CIDOC, to some degree, remains a school with a good deal of internal structure, with a defined curriculum, and with teachers and students. Only because of the Language School is it an economically viable institution.


Coombs describes an independent study of the subject being conducted for the IBRD by the ICED. The rationale, scope, focus, and research framework are briefly discussed. The study's analytical framework is based on the concept of systems analysis and is defined by a series the following eight selected topics, or questions, of direct relevance to planners and decision-makers: development planning for specific rural areas, selection of priority educational clienteles, identification of priority learning objectives, alternative models of teaching-learning subsystems, causes of success and failure, finance and costs, appraising efficiency and productivity, and opportunities for radical innovation. Coombs notes that this topical framework will be used not as a matrix but as a screen "to sift data from a great number of case studies so as to draw some conclusions useful to practitioners." The project is scheduled to begin early in 1971 and to conclude in mid-1972. For a preliminary report on this project based on some twenty case studies in Africa, Asia, and Latin America see "ICED/IBRD Research Project on Non-Formal Education for Rural Development: Report of Activities During Phase Three (Sept./Dec. 1971)," December 31, 1972, in which potentials and problems of non-formal education are briefly discussed.

ORIENTATION AND BASIC ISSUES

The author seeks "to provoke discussion ... on a new set of perplexing questions." How should non-formal education be planned? Who should be responsible? How should the formal and non-formal sectors be interrelated and oriented toward development goals? How can the relation of costs to benefits be assessed? Can non-formal education make a major contribution to equalizing educational opportunities for seriously disadvantaged groups such as rural youngsters, girls, and young women? Coombs contends that the effective development of non-formal education will not depend on educational planning experts nor on ministries of education preoccupied with formal education. Rather, enlightened statesmanship at the highest levels in every nation is required to resolve problems of administrative structure, responsibility, and leadership. Only if these problems are resolved will non-formal education be able to push vigorously ahead in coming years instead of simply stagnating.


The author sees the major reasons why rural schools have failed to support agricultural development in poor countries as the lack of resources and motivation, the difficulty of transfer, and resulting from the problems of agricultural education not being primarily educational. Rather, they are intimately bound up with the solution of economic technical and social problems over which the Ministry of Education has no control--i.e., systems of land tenure, improved land use, finance and marketing, traditions and tribal customs, research and development, and others. He suggests that agricultural education at both the primary and secondary levels should be aimed at increasing motivation, tolerance for change, initiative, verbal and arithmetical skills, and basic knowledge of the social and physical sciences. Griffiths suggests that a less-expensive and quicker way of accomplishing many of these objectives is to bypass the school and have youth come into direct contact with work and with the mass media. He concludes with a description of such an "intermediate method of reform
of rural schools" currently being carried out under the
author's direction in the Sudan.


This publication seeks to present alternatives to the generally accepted university methods for cross-cultural training used in the early 1960s by presenting examples taken from the Arecibo Peace Corps training camp in Puerto Rico. The authors first outline the basic problem of divergent goals between university training and cross-cultural training. They then analyze why the Peace Corps is establishment oriented and why it should seek out those who are dissatisfied with the establishment and who have a good deal to offer. The third section of the paper deals with the training program at Arecibo--its design and function.

The authors conclude that "universities" tend to seek elegant, rational solutions to problems and that their approaches to problem solving are typically concerned with the learner seeking out the professor's previously established answer. In cross-cultural training, emotions and values are more likely to be considered. Here, the best solution is not the most elegant but the one that works. The authors argue that because the university is unable to make those adjustments necessary for effective cross-cultural training, such activities should be sited in isolated areas where time is not a great concern but total immersion in the culture is. They suggest that trainees, having been brought up in a formal education system, need to adjust to the fact that they are important in the learning process and claim that when this adjustment takes place--and it happens more readily in a non-formal education context--learning is very rapid and meaningful.


This proposal, invited by UNICEF, contends that the critical gap between educational services available and growing demand "can only be filled by well-conceived programs of non-formal education that supplement and
reinforced formal schooling and are supported wherever possible with supplemental resources not available to formal education." It notes the past absence of rational planning and development of non-formal education and proposes a study to help develop a relevant intellectual structure through which non-formal education activities can be viewed in their socioeconomic context. This data, in turn, will facilitate the rational planning, designing, advanced costing, assessing, and eventual evaluation and improvement of non-formal educational development projects.

The study proposes an analytical model by Eugene Staley to classify various educational activities, discusses objectives of the proposed project, and describes the main topics and questions to be examined. The latter include the following: (a) What main items of information and what area diagnoses are required as a basis for planning and designing appropriate non-formal education programs for young people? (b) Once the main learning subgroups and their respective critical learning needs and objectives are clearly identified, how does one then choose an appropriate and efficient instructional subsystem to serve them? (c) What main factors seem to explain the relative success or failure of certain types of non-formal educational programs in some situations and their lack of success in other situations? What specific guidance might knowledge of this experience provide to planners in designing future projects and to potential external supporters of such projects? (d) What are some of the most promising innovative ideas with potential for prompt and massive impact? (e) What economic factors should be taken into account when planning non-formal education? (f) What are the most appropriate methods, criteria, and evidence for evaluating the efficiency, effectiveness, and productivity of non-formal educational programs? (g) What are some practical ways whereby formal and non-formal education for rural youth could work together, share resources, and be mutually reinforcing?

The study concludes with sections on the "Plan of Work" and "The Capacity of the ICED to Conduct the Study."


This report describes in detail AID's technical-assistance efforts seeking to help establish a National Employment
Service and to strengthen and institutionalize national man-
power-planning services. Non-formal educational projects
aimed at in-service training for Ministry of Labor personnel,
as well as cooperatives and Ministry-offered training
programs in labor administration, labor statistics, indus-
trial safety, and labor medicine, are also briefly reported.

1311. McGINN, Noel F., and DAVIS, Russel G. Build a Mill, Build
a City, Build a School: Industrialization, Urbanization and
Education in Ciudad Guayana, Venezuela. Joint Center for
Urban Studies of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology
for Harvard University. Cambridge, Mass.: The M.I.T.

In this excellent case study of induced change in rural
Venezuela, the authors examine problems and possible
strategies for both formal and "informal" (i.e., non-formal)
educational development. Changes in non-formal educational
programs for low-income parents, for illiterates, for the
industrial training of workers, and for others are suggested.
The authors Note that literacy programs to date have low
unit costs per student but high per graduate costs because
of high wastage rates. They conclude that neither literacy
nor industrial training programs are of sufficient quality:
"the low quality of informal education reflects a history of
frustrated demand and very rapid expansion without plan
or control." They propose an end to "crash" programs,
the decentralization of educational planning and decision-
making from the capital to the region, and the concentration
of local efforts into a "Guayana Center for Educational
Research, Planning and Services."

1312. MULLER, Mary C. "A Study of Four Programs in Non-Formal
Education: An Exercise in Field Research." Pittsburgh:
International and Development Education Program, School
(Mimeographed.)

This paper reports on an empirical study of four non-
formal education programs in the general area of social
service. Two of these are concerned with nutrition and
family welfare and two are concerned with tutoring; two
are offered under governmental auspices and two are in
the private sector. Programs studied were the Bidwell
Training and Cultural Center, the Associated Tutorial
Programs Council, and the Urban 4-H, all located in
Pittsburgh, and the Centros de Nutrición de Incaparina in
Guatemala. The report concludes on the basis of the cases examined that non-formal education programs will be most effective when planned in conjunction with the communities involved and when autonomy and control are balanced to permit flexibility and growth. Because each case is unique, it concludes that attempts to transfer an organizational model to a new context, as in the Urban 4-H program, will most likely produce more frustration than success.


How can Church education programs in the third world become less costly and more relevant, i.e., shift from a formal to a non-formal education emphasis? How might the Church best contribute to a worldwide development of non-formal alternatives? In search of answers to these questions, the Conference report suggests a meeting of non-formal educational workers, both within and without the Church, with Church decision-makers. The Conference's four goals should be to provide and develop a theoretical framework for understanding non-formal education, to provide numerous models and exemplars of these models of non-formal education (i.e., information and examples), to provide for active orientation as outcome and thus avoid "paper planning," and to motivate for attitude and behavior change regarding the function of the Church in less-developed countries, especially with regard to non-formal education for both policy decision-makers and practitioner-users. The conference took place in New York in October 1971.


In this planning session, representatives from universities, religious groups, and foundations sought to assist the National Council of Churches of Christ in its concern to begin to shift the emphasis in its overseas educational programs from the school to the nonschool sector.


In general terms, this report discusses the development of human resources in the Latin American rural sector, the distribution and educational level of the population engaged in agriculture, and the occupational categories covered. Part III describes systems and methods of rural training in Costa Rica, Colombia, Ecuador, Chile, and Venezuela in both formal schooling and in the non-formal sector. This distinction is not, however, clearly made in the report. It notes that "some countries have school or training centers for young rural workers that function under the direction of the ministries of education. Because these centers have become secondary-level technical agricultural schools, the formal education systems do not now have establishments for the training of rural workers. It would seem imperative, therefore, that other institutions undertake this task." The report suggests how this might be done through the participation of public and private agencies in coordinated, nonschool training efforts.


The author describes the rise of a grass-roots social and community development in Nova Scotia during the past half-century and attempts to transplant the model in a number of developing countries--Korea, Venezuela, and Lesotho. With strong leadership from St. Francis Xavier University, the Antigonish movement has sought to assist poor farmers and fishermen to help themselves overcome their problems and improve their standard of living. Self-help techniques are based on principles of group action and mutual aid featured by the Rochdale type of cooperatives, plus a systematic program of adult education. This formula stresses small-group discussion and study that ultimately culminates in economic action. Members, for example, have studied methods of farming and fishing, food processing, and collective buying and selling. They then established credit unions, consumer stores, and producer plants. In so doing, they have "gained confidence in themselves and in each other and greater control over their economic life."

The Antigonish movement is based on the following six fundamental principles: (a) the primacy of the individual
based on human dignity; (b) social reform must come through education (i.e., social progress in a democracy "must come through the action of citizens and it can come only if there is an improvement in the quality of the people themselves. That improvement can only come through education."); (c) education must begin with the economic aspect; (d) education must be through group action (i.e., man is a social being and has group problems that require group learning and problem resolution); (e) effective social reform involves change in social and economic institutions that is not always welcomed by all; and (f) the ultimate objective is a full, abundant life for all. Economic cooperation is merely the first step to self-realization and social justice.

The movement provides an excellent, if somewhat unique, example of how non-formal education can "help people learn how to analyze their problems, how to work together effectively, and how to organize sound, business-like structures to meet their needs." For an earlier and more complete account, see M. M. Coady, Masters of Their Own Destiny: The Story of the Antigonish Movement of Adult Education Through Economic Cooperation (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1939), pp. 170.

In a section entitled "Books in Informal and Adult Education," the authors survey publications and the need for books in a number of non-formal educational activities, i.e., in the Acción Andina and the National Council for Community Development, in the National Planning Institute, in the Agricultural Extension Service, in the National Apprenticeship and Industrial Labor Service (SENATI) in-service program, in the military, and in the Ministry of Education. They note that "educational activity which does not fall into the formal school structure in Peru, as in most countries, is difficult to assess in its entirety simply because such forms of education do not fall into relatively simple and discreet institutional molds as do formal educational programs. There are ways, however, of achieving a degree of joint coordination and planning among adults and continuing education efforts through inter-governmental councils, adult-education professional associations, and so on. The team recommends
expansion of such activities. There is a great deal of fragmented activity in the various ministries that could be much more productive and efficient if undertaken collaboratively with other ministries and departments.


This study seeks to determine appropriate educational policies and programs in the industrial sector to achieve the Peruvian national goals of raising per capita income and of distributing income more equitably. The following programs and their policies (concentrated mostly within the Lima-Callao area) were studied: the formal secondary technical schools for men, the army's industrial training program, the National Apprenticeship and Industrial Labor Service (SENATI), the School of Technology, and the Graduate School of Business Administration. Available data were supplemented by gathering some primary statistics from the following sample groups: the largest industrial employers, technical school directors in the formal and non-formal education sectors, and educational experts.

White found that formal schooling is not having the desired effects on the Peruvian economy for at least three reasons. First, there simply are not enough positions available in existing firms. Second, the level and type of training offered by most of the formal educational institutions is inappropriate for employment in these firms. Third, the attitudes of many formal-school teachers and students appear to be either ambivalent or unfavorable toward industrial employment. He concludes that the educational policies and programs most appropriate to achieve both an increase and a more equitable distribution of income in Peru are those that increase job opportunities while at the same time increasing occupational competence. To this end, an integrated program is recommended to tie together a balanced mix of formal and non-formal educational programs.

Other items related to Planning Non-Formal Education are

1102, 1104, 1109, 1112, 1132, 1145, 1201, 1202, 1204, 1213,
1229, 1231, 1237, 1239, 1240, 1241, 1242, 2127, 2131, 2220, 3202,
4128, 4201, 4402, 4403, 4404, 4409, 4538, 5515, 5701, 5806, 5808,
5812, 6703, 6720, 6730, 7109, 7113, 7115, 7126, 7139, 7153.
2100. NATIONAL STUDIES


The author examines the functions and costs of secondary industrial schools, the industrial-school curriculum and the employment system, and the role of the employment system in Jordan in the training of formal-school graduates. He then presents a cost/benefit analysis of these training programs in the formal and non-formal sectors. He suggests that findings indicate the need to give less specific training in vocational schools. Rather, the secondary industrial schools should be incorporated into the general secondary-school system and converted into "pre-occupational training centers ... seeking to raise the human potential of students in order to produce readily trainable, rather than specifically trained, persons. The specific training required should be provided in employment, either on-the-job or in job-related outside instruction in close cooperation with the employing establishments."


The author analyzes and compares the roles played by Tunisia's three parallel training systems preparing middle-level skilled manpower--i.e., programs of the Ministry of Education, programs of the governmental Office of Training and Employment, and programs of employing establishments
in the public and private sectors. He concludes that vocational school training is generally ineffective, more than twice as expensive as general formal schooling, and low in internal efficiency. He suggests that schools should, accordingly, attempt to enhance trainability by raising the students' educational attainment and leaving specific training to programs in the non-formal sector. These main conclusions are similar to those of the author's similar study on Jordan.


Chapter 17, "Education Out of School," describes Soviet non-formal educational activities in youth organizations, in cultural centers and activities, and in related programs.


In this reinterpretation of colonial socialization processes, Cremin attempts to operationalize Bernard Bailyn's objurgation to educational historians to become less exclusively concerned with what occurred in schools and to stop equating education with formal pedagogy. Rather, he would have them view education as the "entire process by which a culture transmits itself across the generations." In this first of a three-volume study, Cremin presents a detailed examination of the educational roles and contributions of the household, the Church, the school, and the college, the four principal non-formal and formal educational institutions of the seventeenth century. The household is viewed as an important educational agency for deliberate cultural transmission. Considerable systematic instruction in reading and in a variety of orally transmitted responses to the New World took place on a sustained basis in the colonial family. The preaching and catechizing in churches are also viewed as deliberate forms of nonschool education.

This report presents a general overview of the formal school system--administration, curricula, methods, texts, teachers, auxiliary services, and audio-visual aids--and of plans for the decade 1970-80. There is also a detailed section on what the Cubans call "the parallel system of education"--the separate yet structured and articulated system of worker-farmer education that has gradually taken shape since 1965. Aimed for the most part at youth from 15 to 21 years of age who are greatly overage in their school level, parallel programs are offered in integral youth centers and shop schools by political and mass organizations to assure "that young people with a low educational level do not turn into mere unskilled and menial workers nor delinquent elements." Adult-education programs for those over 21 years of age include the Worker-Farmer Preparatory Faculties that prepare for entry into universities, adult evening schools, special schools and courses offered by the mass organizations, language schools, reading circles, permanent in-service seminars, and other continuing-education courses.

This large nonschool-education sector is viewed as only a temporary stage on the way to the goals of the universalization of schooling and higher education, of converting the entire country into a university where, according to Fidel Castro, "the contradiction between work and study will be resolved in a higher synthesis of economic and social development."


These volumes contain all the Cuban papers presented at the 1970 Havana Conference on Lifelong Education. Volume titles are "La Alfabetización y los sistemas educacionales en función de la Educación Permanente," "La Acción de las instituciones, organizaciones sociales y agencias culturales de la comunidad dentro de la Educación Permanente," and "La Educación Permanente y los Medios Masivos de Comunicación." The 36 lengthy articles in these three volumes provide a highly detailed account of the rationale, programs, and problems of the
total Cuban effort in the non-formal sector. This effort consists in large part of non-formal educational programs offered by the mass organizations--the Committees for the Defence of the Revolution, the youth organizations, the Association of Small Farmers, the trade unions, the national women's association, the popular militia, the Communist Party, and others.

2109. FOUGEYROLLAS, P., SOW, F., and VALLADON, F. L'Educa-

This is a companion piece to Janet King's inventory of non-formal education programs in Tanzania. It describes a variety of adult-education programs offered by govern-
mental and international agencies. Both of these "inven-
tories" are largely limited to highly structured non-formal education programs offered by official agencies. Less-
structured programs carried out by voluntary organizations, religious groups, commercial firms, and the like are, unfortunately, not covered. A truly comprehensive national inventory of non-formal education programs has yet to be compiled anywhere.


As Japan moves toward a "post-industrial society," non-formal education programs are beginning to shift from a skills-training focus to one on social adjustment and lifelong education.


Non-formal educational programs in the Republic of China follow two guiding principles: to provide universal educational opportunity for "self-actualization" and to restore and enhance the essence of Chinese culture. "In Taiwan today, the important role of non-formal educational programs in the development of social and moral standards has been fully-recognized."


This article examines the education programs carried out in West Germany by the German Confederation of Trade Unions, which have some 6.5 million members. It describes educational programs at the local level, the confederation level, and the higher (university) level as to curricula offered, worker eligibility for courses, and factors influencing attendance. German labor-union education programs are suggested as a model for the labor-union movement in the less-developed countries.


King asks how a country might begin comprehensive and integrated planning of non-formal education and proposes that the first step should be a national inventory of the more highly structured activities sponsored by governmental agencies--in this case, non-formal educational programs for community development, for literacy education, and for agricultural extension. She also describes in-service training programs in the private sector and in the civil service, as well as other types of non-formal education.

King suggests, first, that "substantial advantages might well be obtained through closer cooperation where different programs operate in related fields." Second, she suggests that non-formal "programs and individual projects are most successful when interest to learn is combined with opportunities to use the fruits of learning for concrete ends, such as improvement in the yield of crops or the increase of earnings in town employment through further education including literacy--or, in other words, when non-formal education is seen as a means to economic rather than purely cultural or social ends."
Third, King suggests that the planning contacts between the Ministry of Education and those responsible for different types of in-service training must be strengthened. Finally, she observes that "a characteristic of non-formal training is that it can often produce skilled personnel more quickly and at lower cost than formal institutions." She concludes that 'Tanzania's achievements point the way towards a new and valuable approach to the use of non-formal education in economic and social progress.'


This tract reviews the current status of non-formal education in Korea and its contribution to human resource development. It calls for greater governmental coordination of manpower programs conducted by different agencies.


This volume presents a thorough summary of rural community-development activities, training programs, and related activities in Mexico since the cultural missions of President Obregon's regime. It notes that these largely self-help efforts have been supported by both governmental and private agencies and that the current trend is toward the awakening or "concientizacion" of Mexico's marginal, largely Indian, masses.


This report describes the levels of the Swedish educational system as it now exists and discusses the directions that changes in educational policy may take. A principal consideration is the policy of changing the allocation of resources to non-formal education to provide greater support for adult-education programs. The report raises the question of whether the continued expansion of youth education is the wisest expenditure of resources, since it increases the "educational gap" between the generations. Most of the present labor force has had only six or seven
years of "old-fashioned" primary education, but 80 to 85 percent of the younger generation receive an education lasting eleven or twelve years. A system of "recurrent education"—education that could occur at periodic intervals after the individual has completed his compulsory intermediate schooling and begun work—is suggested as a possible addition to the youth-oriented formal educational system.


The author presents fifteen popular and critical articles from the Norwegian press and professional publications on recent attempts of Norwegian folk high schools to better adapt their aims and non-formal, adult-education programs to the demands arising from rapidly changing sociocultural, economic, and community contexts. Two basic positions are argued. One calls for greater informality and updating of the traditional "self-realization" goal; the other calls for an increased emphasis on structured skills training.


This report describes the contribution of non-formal education programs offered in the public and private sectors in efforts to achieve national unity and a reconstructed economy and to implant the government's philosophy of "active participation, not disruptive redistribution."


This article analyzes the contributions and functions of unpaid, voluntary labor as an educational tool in the construction of a socialist society in Cuba. It describes the characteristics of five types of unpaid labor in 1967—employed workers, non-employed women, students, military recruits, and prisoners—and notes that non-formal education activities often combined with agricultural and industrial activities. The author tentatively concludes that "the total product created by all kinds of unpaid labor is greater than its operational or alternative costs; therefore resulting in net product."


This report examines functions of non-formal education at the governmental, quasi-governmental, and non-governmental levels; specific programs (i.e., the Mobil Trade Training units and the Youth Leaders Training Program); and evaluation and research efforts, problems, and trends.


The author concludes that "the evidence that we have in Korea suggests that non-formal programs are no less effective than formal educational programs in training personnel in the acquisition of certain skills and knowledge and that non-formal educational programs may, indeed, have, because of their greater flexibility, much greater potential to introduce experimental instructional methods. He suggests that before it is too late we need to initiate a number of studies of non-formal education to further a more intelligent allocation of limited resources.


This study presents a detailed, first-hand report of the local and national role of Norwegian folk high schools, programs, and a comparison with cognate institutions in other Scandinavian countries. It concludes that, despite efforts to open up public secondary schooling to all youth, "there will probably continue to be a place for a free-will institution, offering full-time but non-rigorous study opportunities to non-scholarly in their late teens and early twenties." The possibilities for transfer of the folk high school model to the United States are also briefly discussed.

Relates Malaysia's long-standing efforts to link non-formal education to national-development goals.


The editor contends that "Tanzania, like all underdeveloped countries, is educationally hungry and limited resources (i.e., 96% of the population is agricultural) prevent the caviar of formal education for all." The nineteen articles by "scholars, teachers, politicians, laymen, civil servants, private citizens, nationals and expatriates, all of whom are deeply involved and interested in Tanzania's revolution" are addressed to the role of formal and non-formal education in producing the skills, attitudes, and understanding necessary for development. See especially "Socialism in a Poor, Peasant Economy," by Knud Erik Svendsen, "Education for Rural Development," by G. L. Cunningham, and "Worker's Education," by Viçtor Kimesera.


One of the series of IIEP African case studies of educational planning in developing countries, this monograph examines a "manpower approach" to planning in Tanzania. In Part II, the author analyzes manpower requirements vis-à-vis the formal education system, as well as the contribution of various forms of non-formal training (i.e., skills upgrading) in both the public and private sectors. He observes that educational planning in Tanzania is, in practice, concerned only with formal education and does not extend to the various upgrading schemes, except that for upgrading teachers, described in his study. He suggests that the role of public-sector institutions in meeting manpower needs could be much greater if their programs were more closely related to formal education curricula and led to recognized certificates or diplomas rather than imparting knowledge of a general kind. Private-sector programs in local industry are severely limited because employers are reluctant to offer training courses, due to their high costs, the high turnover of skilled manpower, and because the training of skilled
workers in the past was the sole responsibility of the colonial administration.

   This is the first article in a series of eyewitness reports by an "old China hand" sympathetic to the Chinese revolution. The author describes the new educational system where middle-school graduates must spend three years at manual labor before they go on, if they are selected by their squads and companies, to higher education. Extensive non-formal educational activities of the Army Construction Corps, the Peoples Liberation Army, and other mass organizations are also described and related to the regime's basic aims. These aims are as follows: to speed up the erasure of differences between town and countryside; to equalize the material and cultural standards and opportunities of the worker, the peasant, the soldier, the cadre, and the technician-expert; to integrate shop and farm work in everyone's education and life experience; to smash all bourgeois thought, especially its remnants among intellectuals and officials; to proletarianize higher learning by integrating students and workers and combining labor practice with classroom theory; to train everyone to bear arms and learn from the Army, and to bring forth a one-class generation of many-sided, well-educated youth inspired by ideals of service to the people, at home and abroad, contemptuous of personal wealth, and dedicated to a world outlook anticipating the final liberation of man and the elimination of hunger, war, greed, ignorance, and capitalism. China clearly represents the most massive and conscious use of non-formal education to be found in any country to date.

   For countless reasons having to do with how each individual views his or her own life and needs, the adult demand for education has stimulated the growth of a "great populist university" in evening and extension programs across the United States. The U.S. Office of Education estimates that about 8 million people were enrolled in all categories of the U.S. adult-education programs in 1957 and over 13 million in 1970. Other
estimates made elsewhere in the Office and by independent groups have placed the total of adults in non-formal activities at about 30 million, as compared with about 55 million students in formal elementary, secondary, and full-time college degree programs. Stevens notes that, while schools "are still the major agency of education in the U.S.," there is, however, a "greater investment in the education of adults than in the education of children and youth."


This paper presents an overview of policies, programs, and problems faced by non-formal education in Indonesia. Major problems noted cover the lack of cooperation and coordination of programs, the difficulty of recruiting voluntary workers at the local level, the scarcity of funds, the general inability of programs to meet specific needs in a particular place at a particular time, and "the low level of program participation by potential recipients, often due to their failure to recognize the programs offered as means for the gratification of felt needs."


This report discusses literacy-development problems and progress during the nineteenth century, during the period of Japanese occupation (1910-45), and following World War II. The author notes that the adult illiteracy rate has been lowered from 78 percent in 1948 to some 22 percent today and that voluntary teaching by school-teachers, students, and certified adults has been a key factor in this gain. At one time or another, the U.S. military, AID, UNESCO, and private agencies have all contributed to the ongoing mass adult literacy campaign. The author observes that the most critical problem today is teacher in-service and preservice upgrading as adult education shifts to adult liberal studies and vocational training, as well as continuing literacy programs.
This report describes the wide variety of non-formal adult-education programs offered by the Ministry of Education, government agencies, the public and private industrial sectors, folk organizations, and others.

This detailed study presents a national inventory of non-formal educational programs, their objectives, scope, and administration. A cooperative national approach is used where the Ministries of Education, Agriculture, and Public Health and the Department of Social Affairs all offer skills and knowledge programs in the non-formal sector. Try concludes that, although the war has ended a number of non-formal programs in agriculture, it has also served as an impulse to reexamine the system of non-formal education in the Khmer Republic so that it might better serve "the general policy of our nation and satisfy new social requirements."

Thirty million American adults participate in a vast enterprise of uncoordinated instructional programs in the non-formal sector. Welden suggests that the system of continuing education has its roots in the basic notion that knowledge and skill are the means for self-improvement and an aid to the solution of societal or community problems. He notes that "perhaps continuing education can best be described through its five areas of general purpose: i.e., (1) literacy education, (2) education for vocational, technical and professional competence, (3) education for health, welfare, and family living, (4) education for civic, political, and community competence, and (5) education for self-development where people pursue individual interests or improve their skills." He notes that participation in continuing education in the U.S., as elsewhere, is still sporadic and unsystematic. The need for new information, knowledge, and skills, however, is so pressing that the number of students in continuing education, according to Welden, is far greater than the
total number of students in all three levels of the formal school system.


This evaluative national survey begins with a brief historical review of Australian adult education, followed by its current (1968) profile and features of the overall educational system. The next six chapters consider the role played by universities, federal and state governments, the Workers' Educational Association and other voluntary organizations, educational radio and television, rural extension, and the nation's emerging residential adult-education movement. Professional refresher courses, aboriginal adult education, and other provisions for special groups are noted, as well as adult educator training and research, educational implications of the book publishing and mass media industries, educational opportunities in the Australian Army, university-level external (off-campus) study, and the 1966-67 crisis caused by the Australian Universities Commission's recommendation that universities abandon participation in adult education. The last five chapters present comparisons with adult education in New Zealand and overseas, issues in science education, and an assessment of future trends and opportunities.

Other items related to National Studies are

1101, 1102, 1134, 1139, 1141, 1147, 1238, 1318, 1319, 3103, 3202, 3204, 3205, 3206, 3209, 3210, 3212, 3215, 3218, 3308, 3315, 3409, 3501, 3507, 3513, 3611, 3612, 4105, 4109, 4113, 4115, 4117, 4125, 4126, 4209, 4227, 4302, 4308, 4412, 4415, 4525, 4527, 4525, 4512, 5215, 5216, 5401, 5406, 5411, 5602, 5823, 5827, 5831, 6111, 6117

2200. REGIONAL STUDIES


The author surveys the field of journalism training in both formal and non-formal settings in Latin America. He describes university programs as well as short-term seminars sponsored by non-academic groups. He concludes that formal or academic journalism education programs
have often provided needed theory of mass communications but have lacked practical implications. Short-term, non-formal seminars have provided helpful solutions but are so compressed that they often lack the time and depth for providing a needed perspective. Academic or formal and non-formal programs, however, are often found to complement each other, but they need much closer coordination.


The author describes educational programs in South-east Asia outside the formal school system that actively seek to accelerate social and economic development. He attempts to identify common problems so that some common strategies may be formulated. The paper covers policies and objectives, administrative structure and finance, recruitment and training of personnel, program planning, and evaluation and research. The countries providing data are Malaysia, Indonesia, Singapore, Hong Kong, Thailand, Khmer Republic, Laos, and the Philippines.


This is a report on a short course organized by the Swiss government in collaboration with the Council for Cultural Cooperation of the Council of Europe.


The author assesses the part that formal and non-formal sectors of the educational system in sixteen Western European countries have played in the development
of technical skills and the subsequent acceptance of apprenticeship as the normal form of industrial training. He focuses on the different forms of post-primary education in Austria, Germany, and Denmark, among others, to show that a great number of students who graduate after their basic compulsory education in these countries seek a post-primary education that is geared toward vocational industrial training. In conclusion, he suggests that by weaving vocational education into the general educational system the Western European countries have developed a generally favorable attitude toward industrial training. Youths who graduate from the formal educational system acquire basic technical skills, and many of them subsequently seek jobs as apprentices or on-the-job trainees in industries. Non-formal training programs are, in sum, generally viewed as logical extensions of formal schooling.


This document provides a discussion outline for the Seminar on Workers' Education held in Mexico City on November 21-30, 1960, and examines recent workers' education programs at the regional and at the national level in Latin America and the Caribbean. It also presents a general treatment of the problems involved in worker-education program planning, study materials and methodology, and teacher training. The report concludes with a summary of ILO contributions to the development of workers' education in Latin America. It suggests that non-formal trade-union education programs should simultaneously seek two tasks: the training of trade-union leaders from the rank-and-file membership, and the promotion of educational activities for all union members. The low level of general education in Latin America requires that the unions stress the second of these goals, but the goal of leadership training cannot be overlooked because it is in strong leaders that the labor-union movement and the social and economic principles for which
it stands will find its strength. The need for educators in the movement is also stressed in order to be able to carry out "the tremendous tasks of the unions in the years to come in the field of education."


The author explains why he believes that continuing education in Western Europe will require constant renewal, democratic feedback, and personal flexibility. In its future form, it might begin with basic education as a foundation for vocational education, which in turn could evolve into forms of further training, refresher training, and retraining in keeping with the ideal of a dynamic, free society. A comprehensive system is needed that gives each individual opportunities for lifelong education suited to his talents, wants, and needs. Guidance and evaluation must also be improved. Finally, Europe will need an integrated, non-formal, continuing education system based on advanced technology.


Comparing folk high schools in the United States and Scandinavia, this study investigates the philosophical and historical development of the movement, the relationship of folk high schools to other institutions in each nation studied, and conditions that have contributed to successful implementation of the idea. Data came from a literature survey of N. S. F. Grundtvig's educational thought, from other facets of the movement, as well as from the author's participation in programs in Norway and Denmark. He concludes the following: (a) the folk high schools in
Scandinavian countries, but not in the United States, have prospered and remain significant non-formal adult-education institutions; (b) the movement has been and remains quite flexible and the idea has been adapted to the needs of each nation; (c) the Scandinavian movements were closely associated with nationalism and the revival of culture in rural areas but reflected the convergence of several factors rather than being a response to a single situation; and (d) the establishment of a basic, largely terminal system of elementary education favored the early success of Scandinavian folk schools.


The authors examine "what is speculated, what is known, what is being investigated and what we need to know most in order to establish contact with that vast terra incognita in Latin America. comprising the illiterate and the unlearned." They conclude that "we need first to increase greatly the rigor and number of research studies" and that "we have greater capacity to design plans for action than to carry them out." The authors make no mention of significant developments in literacy and adult education made by Paulo Freire in Brazil and Chile or by the Castro Government in Cuba, among others.


Meyers compares the preparation of workers for, employment in private and public institutions in France, Great Britain, Italy, and West Germany and concludes that non-formal, on-the-job training is still predominant in European industry, that France and West Germany (especially the former) have well-developed systems of terminal vocational secondary education and post-secondary engineering and scientific training, and that Great Britain seems most in need of changes in basic training patterns.

In this article, Myrdal discusses key factors in South Asia influencing the processes of informal education via the mass media, non-formal functional education for adults, and formal schooling for children and youth. A fourth avenue—"the non-directed and non-formalized transmission of knowledge, skills and attitudes... in the family, on the job, or through religious institutions"—is noted but not analyzed because of "an almost total absence of specific research." Myrdal observes that scarcity of foreign exchange to pay for imports of paper is the most serious deficiency hampering literacy education efforts. He also contends that people have to be conditioned to welcome educational opportunities, and that many people in South Asia are not interested in raising their living levels. The reputed "hunger for knowledge" in the villages is thus largely an upper-class myth. He notes that "education even when directed toward practical problems of development does not provide an immediate response among the people, least of all in the villages." Thus, propaganda and local example are required in the beginning of any educational activity. People have to be conditioned to welcome educational opportunities, and this means changing their value system and their attitudes toward life and work.


This report discusses in general terms the development of human resources in the Latin American rural sector, the educational level of the population engaged in agriculture, and occupational categories covered. Part III describes systems and methods of rural training in Costa Rica, Colombia, Ecuador, Chile, and Venezuela in both formal schools and in the non-formal sector. This distinction is not, however, clearly made in the report. It notes that "some countries have schools or training centers for young rural workers that function under the direction of the ministries of education. Because these centers have become secondary-level technical agricultural..."
schools, the formal educational systems do not now have establishments for the training of rural workers." It would seem imperative, therefore, that a variety of other non-formal educational institutions undertake this task. The report suggests how this might be done through the participation of public and private agencies in coordinated nonschool training efforts.


The author warns that despite hard-won gains in putting more children into school African nations are losing the literacy battle. Neither the schools nor the present activities in adult literacy education come close to reducing the ever-growing total number of illiterates.


The author attempts to demonstrate how the increased participation of governments in the activities of cooperatives has had both beneficial and adverse outcomes. Data from India, Ceylon, and the Philippines is used to examine types of cooperatives, participation, problems of credit, problems of rural vs. industrial cooperatives, and the aims of cooperatives. He suggests that in Asian countries cooperation is the best means of improving the economic and social conditions of the masses. But, because success depends largely on efficiency and honesty, good men should be found as leaders in the villages. Their initiative should be encouraged, their organizing ability should be supported, and financial and other aids should be given by the government on their request and not thrust upon them.


The author reports on a regional questionnaire survey that attempted to characterize perceptions of adult-education
personnel in respect to their orientations toward continuing education and to gauge their attitudinal priorities vis-à-vis the relative merits of formal and non-formal education. He suggests that apparent consistencies as well as differences among the personnel of the various countries involved imply that programs that succeed in one country may not work in another unless they are directed toward different subgroups—the central problem is "how to adapt programmes to suit individuals and vice versa."


The objectives of this report are as follows: (a) to review the in-service programs in the countries of the region; (b) in the light of this review, to prepare a basic statement of principles for the organization and conduct of in-service training programs; and (c) to identify the areas where further research is needed and to develop research designs for such studies of formal and non-formal teacher education programs in various countries of Asia.


This report characterizes planning in Latin America as "over-formalized, unimplemented, hesitant, and improvised, and showing signs of the temptation to exaggerate its technical complexity." Planning for youth and children is described as uncoordinated and generally unconcerned with the needs of children and young people in the process of seeking economic development. It suggests methods for improving such planning efforts and for creating a national youth policy stressing "protection" and "preparation for life." Activities in this category, such as vocational and skills training, national service, and others fall largely into the non-formal educational sector. Implications for future study or development of the sector, however, are not mentioned.
This study is based on the main ideas and conclusions of reports of the Economic Commission for Latin America (ECLA). These studies have given considerable attention to educational and manpower training programs and problems in the area. The study contains a section on "non-formal instruction" and documents how these activities are playing an increasingly important part in manpower training at various levels and in different economic sectors: these include industrial, business, and agricultural enterprises, banks, public services, the armed forces, trade unions, entrepreneurs' associations, cultural associations productivity centers, certain private schools which by the very nature of the instruction they impart are outside the formal education system, and specialized professional or vocational training institutions." The study notes that these programs have developed in a modern form in Latin America only since World War II, that with industrial development they have spread rapidly, and that comparable data on national experiences to accurately measure the scale of non-formal education is not available. It suggests that we do know, however, that "at a conservative estimate, about 250,000 workers could be trained under present conditions through either intensive courses or relatively long courses at the known specialized institutions alone. In all probability, several times that number receive some type of training in the enterprises and services in which they are employed, though the procedures and methods may vary widely."

The report concludes that even the existing scanty data makes it quite clear that "services of this kind are helping significantly to meet Latin America's development needs in terms of human resource training. It seems undesirable, therefore, that so slight a link should persist between these training services and the formal education system, or that the former continue to be disregarded in the formulation of educational policy and plans." The report includes in Table 9 a listing of nine major Latin American non-formal training programs in Brazil, Colombia, Chile, Peru, Argentina, Uruguay, and Venezuela, their year of founding, sectors using their services, and information on organization, finance, and programs.


Other items related to Regional Studies are

1115, 1218, 1221, 1226, 1316, 2128, 2302, 4111, 4112, 4223, 4407, 4504, 4537, 4542, 4711, 5108, 5111, 5115, 5402, 5405, 5413, 5506, 6402, 6602, 6602, 6717, 7104, 7106, 7110, 7127, 7143, 7146, 7153, 7231

2300. OTHERS


The author presents "scientifically validated" information for evaluating training programs in developing countries in medium-level vocational skills such as carpentry or masonry.  "The overall purpose of the study was to develop a way of determining which one of the various forms and systems of training would be most effective under any given set of circumstances."  He concludes that lack of knowledge limits the possibility for rational decision-making on skills training in less-developed countries, that much research on skill and acquisition is difficult and costly because it is longitudinal, and that, because a crucial prerequisite for research on skills training is "a global design for manpower research," a worldwide data gathering system is necessary to collect information on the variables in conditions and circumstances that may affect the outcome of training.  Abramowitz suggests that the data "cells" should be based on a "classification of training variables" taxonomy included in the report.
A centralized Training Variables Data Bank could then be established within AID. "Potentials" of the Bank are examined in detail. Problems involved in attempting to study amorphous, semistructured training activities in out-of-school contexts are indicated.


This volume contains some twelve speeches and papers presented at the conference, the majority being on out-of-school and adult education. Problems of developing effective non-formal educational programs in poor, rural areas are examined in the African context.


Although considerably dated and somewhat disorganized, this compilation of questionnaire replies from some 100 experts provides much useful information on non-formal youth programs, problems, and trends in Africa, Asia, Europe, and the United States.

2305. UNITED TOWNS ORGANIZATION. World Consultation of 30,000 Towns and Villages on Municipal Action in the Field of Life-Long Education. Paris: United Towns Organization.

This consultation is considered the first state of the United Towns Organization's international year activities. Its goals follow the suggestions of UNESCO Director-General Rene Maheu to gather from varied socioprofessional and cultural environments opinions on the value of the education received by the subjects questioned, to define the concept that the average individual has of the role of education in his personal life and in society, and to gather, at the basic level, the practical suggestions of the average individual regarding the possibilities of introducing "a new educational order." This consultation attempts to transcribe all the most recent efforts and events to obtain "a more global concept of education, one that relates to man in his entirety." The consultation
emphasizes "linguistic education in non-school settings with international understanding as its primary goal."
The survey would seem to offer the possibility of producing yet another large body of unfocused data with little, if any, utility for specific developmental change efforts.
CHAPTER 3
ORGANIZATIONS CONDUCTING PROGRAMS

3100. INTERNATIONAL


Chu discusses the necessity of finding a balance between capital investment and investment in human resources in the form of education and training in the developing countries moving toward industrialization.


This report on the activities of an ILO consultant in Trinidad and Tobago describes the establishment of a permanent labor-education program at the Cipriena Labor College. The study provides a short history of the establishment of the college after 1966, its governance, its aims, and the work of the ILO consultants during 1966 and 1967. In the appendix, there is an outline of the curricular offerings during this period.

The assumptions under which the college operates might be noted, as they indicate something of the ILO orientation. The assumptions are as follows: (a) trade unions constitute an integral part of a democratic society and their existence and development are socially desirable; (b) industry, both public and private, must operate efficiently and profitably; (c) conflicts of interests can be harmonized by well-informed union leadership, particularly where they are assisted by
enlightened labor legislation; (d) collective bargaining is a logical and effective process in a free democracy; and (e) the interests of management and labor must be compatible with the interests of all--both have responsibilities to the nation. These principles outline clearly the meaning of the labor-union movement and its functions with regard to industry and the society at large. Labor-union education programs, as supported by the ILO and others, therefore are essential if labor unions are to be effective partners in the democratic process.


The need for an apprenticeship-training system in Ghana is reviewed and recommendations regarding entry qualifications, standards, training, and administration are considered. In addition, an examination is made of the linkage between the school system and trade and technical schools in the formal and non-formal sectors. A preliminary survey of available training facilities and their operation in Ghana is used as a basis for the review of the system.


This article delineates the role of the ILO in workers' education since activities began in 1956. It presents a broad rationale for workers' education and illustrates how the ILO cooperates with trade unions in carrying out their non-formal education programs. It stresses that the primary aim of workers' education is to enable the worker to identify the problems facing his social group and to participate actively and knowledgeably in their solution; to help him locate his place in his trade, his enterprise, his community, and his nation; to relate his work with overall community and national social and economic aims; and to acquaint him with his rights and obligations. ILO's contribution to workers' education is especially significant in developing countries where local unions do not have the resources nor personnel to carry out educational programs and where formal schooling is greatly restricted.

The object of this pamphlet is to broadly acquaint the reader with the manner in which this institute was founded, the type of program it carries out, and the support it receives from international trade unionism. The college moved into its present quarters in Cuernavaca in 1966 after four years of operation in Mexico City. It is essentially devoted to the non-formal training of labor leaders as teachers in trade-union education. Educational materials are also prepared at the Institute, and its facilities are used to hold various meetings of the trade-union movement of the Americas. Trade-union education is looked on as a basic requirement in achieving integration in the developing countries. Integration, in turn, is seen as necessary to guarantee both economic development and social progress. The college was set up to expand trade-union education through courses for teachers selected from the leadership of local unions all over Latin America. The course consists of 240 hours broken into the following eight areas: trade-union organization, international trade-union organization, methods and techniques in labor education, labor legislation, economic and social development, international agencies, political doctrines, and communications.

Ambitious future plans call for the transformation of the college into the first Inter-American Labor University. This university would prepare experts in labor legislation and jurisprudence, labor economists and sociologists, cooperativists trained in the organization and operation of cooperatives, technicians in social-security programs, and specialists at the service of the trade-union movement so that "it will better serve the interests of the working class, the community, the country, and the whole continent."

Most of the goals seem to be in the interest of institutionalizing the labor movement as it is presently constituted, i.e., oriented toward the U.S. type of industrialized economy, instead of reorienting goals to meet better the challenges of underdevelopment that are much more common in Latin America.


UNESCO is currently adapting the "Sesame Street" television program for preschool education. The program has successfully utilized techniques of commercial advertising, such as jingles, to teach letters and numbers. It has, however, been an exceedingly expensive undertaking.
and has survived only because of large grants from U.S. foundations. There is, accordingly, some question about the suitability of this U.S. non-formal educational program for poor, preindustrial countries.


This report reviews UNESCO's work in the field of out-of-school education, a subject viewed essentially as providing facilities, technical training, and literacy education for productively engaged adults. Lip service is paid to the central task of the 1970s, i.e., "to bring about behavioral changes," and it was agreed that the Third World Conference on Adult Education in 1972 should supply new answers to the questions that were discussed at the Second World Conference." And so it goes.


This series is made up of twelve essays, or position papers, on priority themes identified by UNESCO. Some papers are merely exhortations or undocumented speeches, while a few offer serious thought on persistent educational problems. The papers most directly related to nonschool education are "Youth and Education for International Understanding," which covers "the role of out-of-school education and activities in promoting international understanding," "Functional Literacy as a Factor in Development," "Life-Long Education," and "Education for Development."


3111. UNITED NATIONS. "Resources Available to Member States for the Advancement of Women Through Technical Cooperation Programs of the UN System and Through

This comprehensive inventory describes programs offered by numerous U.N. agencies and includes examples of non-formal training programs, conferences, international, and regional action on the theme.


This terse report describes Cinterfor, the ILO Inter-American Research and Documentation Center for Vocational Training in Montevideo, Uruguay. The Center's basic objectives are to stimulate and coordinate organizations concerned with non-school vocational training in Latin America and to cooperate in international training system efforts in seeking to increase their efficiency. It outlines Cinterfor organization and activities and suggests principles for an AID policy position to facilitate collaboration between the two agencies interested in improving manpower development in Latin America through non-formal programs.

Other items related to the International area are 1242, 1249, 1312, 2365, 3416, 5308, 5834, 6110, 7241, 7242

3200. GOVERNMENTAL AND QUASI-GOVERNMENTAL


This in-house statistical and analytical report calls for increased efficiency in AID non-formal training programs. It is based on standardized U.S. exit interviews of trainees from developing countries. Participants' responses are analyzed in three parts in relation to specific training objectives of each non-school program. The major complaints of the participants centered on irrelevance and duplication of previous study, lack of individual needs information, lack of on-the-job training experiences, need for more laboratory work and field trips, and lack of time for contact with U.S. cultural, social, and recreational activities. Other serious problems noted are the participants' deficient language skills, insufficient orientation, housing, and, among nonwhite participants, social and...
racial discrimination. In commenting on racism in the United States, AID suggests that "this effect can be partially countered by giving them specific information of the types of discrimination they may meet and illustrating this information by citing critical incidents which have occurred."


This study presents a cogent, critical analysis of the implications for public policy of the primary-school leaver problem in Zambia. It pays special attention to the lack of training and employment opportunities, the role of youth in rural development, activities of unemployed youth in urban areas, and the largely unsuccessful development of a national non-formal education youth program. It observes that, despite the Zambia youth services motto of "Back to the Land" and training programs ostensibly to encourage self-reliance, youth are reluctant to return to the land and continue to rely on the government to provide employment opportunities. The agricultural training program has suffered from lack of qualified staff, lack of youth interest, and lack of adequate follow-up through settlement and cooperative schemes. Academic instruction offered by the National Service, in contrast, has been highly popular with recruits. Per capita training costs of youth service programs have been approximately three times those for secondary school boarding students in the formal system.

The report concludes that both primary schooling and the youth program are based largely on fallacious assumptions, that they both are irrelevant to the needs of the majority of young people they attempt to serve, and that more-effective planning and coordination between the governmental ministries active in the youth field, i.e., Labor and Social Services, Rural Development, Technical Education and Vocational Training, Home Affairs, Defense, and the Ministry of Education itself, must take place if the government’s youth program is to be made more realistic, effective, and useful.


Proposes a number of evaluation strategies for the U.S. government Job Corps and related non-formal training activities.
3204. CAMBODIAN COMMISSION TO UNESCO. "The National Literacy Campaign in the Khmer Republic." Bulletin of the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia, V, 2 (March 1971), 41-45.

This report describes achievements of the government-run national literacy campaign of 1965-68 when 1,176,446 Cambodians participated and 387,000 obtained the Literacy Certificate. The campaign sought to eliminate illiteracy, to develop special functional literacy programs around particular development projects, such as the hydroelectric dam at Prek Thvot and industrial farming sites, and to seek the Khmerization of ethnic minorities such as the Loeu, Lao, and Burmese Khmers in the frontier and highland regions.


This study examines the prerequisites necessary before an organization can become institutionalized. These prerequisites have both organizational and programmatic aspects, they include the definition of objectives, program implementation, securing resources, and the establishment of enabling and functional linkages. The author concludes that the Kenya National Youth Service proved to be of immediate value to Kenya in the contribution it made in helping to alleviate a potentially serious social and political problem in the immediate postindependence period. It has been able to perform a number of work-project and service activities, as well as perform a valued service as a human resource development organization integrating previously unemployed youth into the national effort of nation-building. Kenya's governing elite, however, has asked the National Youth Service to do more than time, financial, and staff resources allow. Whether they succeed in attaining the objectives of the programs depends in part on the ease and speed with which necessary resources become available both from national sources and from foreign donors such as AID and UNESCO.


This article presents the objectives, organization, and methods of the Australian government agricultural extension
service operated in Papua and New Guinea. It provides a history of policy-making and its present state, reviews work of the head office and field organization of the services, and gives a brief idea of the types of people employed by the service. The working methods and a survey of the agricultural extension stations are also discussed, as is the need to achieve a general expansion and commercialization of indigenous agriculture in the post-World War II period. The basic technique used by the service is the application to the farming community of closely integrated programs of contact demonstration and training that will, it is claimed; effect desirable modification of the subsistence form of agriculture currently being practiced.


This report contains much data on U.S. government-supported, non-formal educational and training programs for workers, the unemployed, the underprivileged, migratory workers, and others. Unfortunately, no clear distinction is made between formal and non-formal programs.


Since its creation in 1961, the Peace Corps, a U.S. government agency, has had extensive experience with non-formal educational programs both in preparing volunteers for overseas service and in volunteer-assisted training projects in the third world. The authors examine both types of activities and offer a number of insightful and useful generalizations on Peace Corps interventions in rural and community development, public health and birth control, cooperatives, and in other areas. They conclude that, although the Corps can make no great claims to accomplishing development in the third world, it has nevertheless, through its training contracts and indirectly through returning volunteers and staff members, made a significant contribution to the movement for a new philosophy of education in the United States.

This study reports on government-supported adult literacy programs in Israel. It notes that efforts are being made to teach both Israeliites in Hebrew and Muslims, Christians, and Druzes in Arabic. The use of volunteer teachers has been an important means of cutting expenses. The author summarizes the basic motives of adults as the desire to read and write letters, to help sons and daughters in school, and to increase chances for economic betterment.

   Chapters 2 and 3 on innovative governmental programs in formal and non-formal education and in health, respectively, explain governmental attempts to diversify and decentralize social services so as to make them more responsive to local needs and control through local branches of national mass movements. Achievements following from a decade of efforts to implement this new development strategy and continuing problems of bureaucracy among others, are also analyzed.

   In an introductory article to a special issue, "The Quest for Equity: National Service Options," the author reviews problems and strategies discussed at the Conference on Youth and National Service held in New York in spring 1971. Proposed national youth service programs would have a substantial non-formal education component where volunteers, working through government agencies, would teach new skills and behaviors to economically disadvantaged groups.

   In 1962, the Cuban government launched a nationwide literacy campaign "to make Cuba the first American state free of illiteracy." The author describes this impressive national non-formal educational undertaking in detail.

   Newhouse, Chairman of the Board of Trustees of the
Boise, Idaho, Board of Education, looks at an example of urban decay and asks, "What if we built a whole new school designed for the use of that entire community? Think what it would do for the whole area in terms of uplift!" He discusses principles of the new community school movement and proposes programs in which schools will offer non-formal education "to any person, in any skill or subject, at any time of day."


Two major federally conceived, administered, and financed educational programs to aid unemployed youth have been the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) of the 1930s and the Job Corps of the 1960s. Both have sought to supplement public schooling and to offer out-of-school, jobless youth from low-income families new skills via non-formal educational programs. This article favorably describes Job Corps programs, costs, and achievements and notes continuing problems. Parker contends that Job Corps efforts "to make a taxpayer out of a public charge" cost less than welfare dependency, juvenile courts and correctional institutions, prisons, mental hospitals ... and guerrilla warfare in our cities." Although costs per trainee in 1968 (i.e., $6,700) were considerably higher than the cost of sending a student to Harvard University (i.e., $2,890 for nine months of tuition and room and board), the author argues that "the Job Corps, like the CCC before it, is a practical program and a bargain for America."


This study examines the response of the Thai government through the División of Adult Education to political and administrative pressures on its goals for national literacy. For many years after the 1932 revolution, the government stressed basic literacy as a means of uniting diverse ethnic groups. Later, with experts from international agencies and foreign governments involved in modernization efforts, the Thai government has shifted its emphasis toward developing human resources for economic and social growth. The study concludes that such factors as the interpenetration of politics and bureaucracy, high regard for hierarchical
status, personal relations, and security, a lack of effectively delegated authority, and relative disregard for efficiency, legality, or secular rationality have been critical negative factors in government-sponsored efforts to eradicate illiteracy.

3216. RAWLING, V. Lane. "Job Corps: The Urban Center as a Training Facility." Journal of Human Resources, VI, 2 (Spring 1971), 221-35.

This article evaluates the U.S. government's urban Job Corps centers as non-formal training programs. The unique features of this training approach are described, costs of operation are estimated, and a multiple regression analysis of a sample of 239 trainees is applied to estimate the impact of training on earnings and employment. Rawling concludes that, despite very high costs and other problems, the program has "a positive impact on earnings" and that "this type of training appears to have an important place in the nation's mix of manpower programs."


This report includes a discussion of how an all-volunteer army might be most effectively used to offer non-formal job training to members of economically disadvantaged groups.


The basic aim of this governmental non-formal program is to offer preemployment semiskilled training (not to exceed three months and at no cost to the trainee) to serve the needs of new entrants to the labor force. Unemployed adults and seasonal workers comprise the majority of trainees in this "crash manpower training program." The per capita cost of training is claimed to be low because existing vocational training faculties and personnel in formal schools are used. In 1969-70, nearly 100,000 unemployed adults and out-of-school youth attended some 174 training centers and studied 49 different courses. Over three fourths of this group "graduated." The author notes that the manpower training program was chiefly a "governmental
endeavor. The private sector was slow to come in." No information on the placement of "graduates" is given, although it is noted that courses programmed for self-employment enjoyed the greatest popularity.


Using U.S. government reports and case-study materials, the author describes the community development activities of AID and its predecessor agencies. Part I deals with the philosophy, the functions, and the operation of the U.S. community development staff overseas. Part II is an analysis of community development as an educational process, a description of the various, mostly non-formal, training programs offered either locally or abroad, and a discussion of the educational aspects of advisory assistance. Shields observes that a U.S. intergovernmental approach to community development has created a much-broader role for education. Traditionally, nonschool education has been thought of in terms of literacy training, fundamental education, and so on. U.S. community development staff members operate on a broader cross-cultural canvas, as evidenced by the work of community development advisers, national training programs for community development personnel, and participant training in the United States.

A second area of major education activities carried out by U.S. community development staff overseas is systematic career development training programs for community development workers. These include preservice, in-service, orientation, and refresher courses for administrators, technicians, multipurpose village-level workers, and local leaders. The author suggests that the four most common failings of U.S.-supported community development training programs have been "the neglect of sound education principles, the limited amount of research and evaluation, the gap between the theories taught in the training centers and the realities of village life, and the indifference to in-service training."

Contains extensive information on non-formal education offered by the U.S. government for children, youth, and adults through the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, the Department of the Interior, the Department of Defense, and so on. The report criticizes the lack of coordination, the lack of planning, and the lack of effective reporting procedures, which it sees as a major weakness in government-sponsored programs. "One of the reasons for a good deal of confusion in all debate on the government's role in education is the inadequacy nature of education statistics. In the first-place, they are far from current. A second problem with education statistics is that they include what each agency determines to be applicable. In many of the larger agencies there is not even, at a central point, complete knowledge of all the education programs they administer."

Other items related to the Governmental and Quasi-Governmental areas are

1238, 1243, 1310, 1311, 1316, 2108, 2116, 2118, 2121, 2124, 4134, 4307, 4536, 5223, 5813, 5904, 6308

3300. VOLUNTARY ORGANIZATIONS


This brief but fascinating account examines the need for voluntary youth organizations to complement the overly scholastic influence of schools, the military origins of the Boy Scouts, the aims and training of the Boy Scout movement, and its potential for helping to produce "happy, healthy, helpful citizens."


The author argues that the number of apprentices trained in the non-formal educational sector is less a function of economic forces in the labor market than a result of attempts by craft unions to maintain wage standards and employment opportunities and to conserve the union's power as an institution.
The author claims that the schools have shamefully failed the ordinary worker in preparing him for the work that he performs and for his life as a responsible citizen, that vocational school graduates have learned obsolete skills and are unable to be retrained, and that many school graduates are almost functional illiterates. Moreover, adult education is equally ineffective. Boyle argues that labor unions must, accordingly, develop their own non-formal education programs stressing the "selection, interpretation and expression of the meaningful aspects of the social and physical sciences closest to the worker's immediate needs and interests."


Carlson explicitly defines the educational practices of labor unions as nonschool, or non-formal--i.e., the goals, methodology, and content of these activities markedly differ from those of the formal school system. He critically discusses, via a review of the literature, labor education's three basic goals of leadership training, loyalty building, and political education, as well as problems of the initiation and control of programs. He concludes that labor education reflects American trade unionism, which in turn reflects American culture, and that the pragmatic, materialistic, selfish, anti-intellectual, anti-aesthetic, and anti-humanitarian nature of American culture pervades organized labor and its educational programs.

Labor education, then, is not ideological. Rather, what Eby said of American trade unionism is also true of labor education: "It was born out of Gomperism and pragmatism, not Marxism and Fabianism. The social unionism of the thirties... was only an interlude in the business unionism dominant throughout most of U.S. history. As the syllabus of a summer workshop for unionists indicates, capitalism is a subject for endorsement in labor education programs, not a subject for discussion." Carlson also notes that the
public-relations purpose that labor education serves is largely a result of the esteem that American culture confers upon education, the goals of the elected union leaders become the functions of labor education (i.e., "The leaders determine the education program by the use of the powers which have accrued to them through union centralization."). And skilled trade unions, if not industrial unions, have long engaged in apprenticeship training and skills-upgrading programs.

This is a highly critical, perceptive analysis of the functions of U.S. labor education. It has much to say concerning the degree to which the goals of leaders become the functions of educational programs, be they formal or non-formal. An extensive bibliography on the topic is included.


"This account offers an interpretation of the motives, methods, and general achievements of American voluntarism in its overseas errands of mercy, rehabilitation, and technical aid." American sectarian and nonsectarian contributions to overseas philanthropy during the period 1919-59 are analyzed in detail. Many non-formal education programs in health, agriculture, medicine, small industry, and so on are described.


This study describes the conference on church-related, non-formal education programs and potentials and the following four symposium objectives: (a) to identify the educational components of a wide variety of programs designed to help people improve the quality of personal and community living; (b) to identify the role church agencies can play in initiating and supporting such programs and in training leadership for them; (c) to encourage the sharing of resources and responsibility for non-formal education and community development programs between church groups and secular agencies, and (d) to explore the possibilities for combining public-health, nutrition,
agricultural-mission, literacy and communication, family-planning, and community-development activities into integrated, or at least supplementary, educational programs. The study notes that these seem to be fields in which churches can ecumenically work and in which they can find collaborative support from governmental and secular agencies. One unmentioned reason for the Division's growing interest in non-formal education is found in its desire to disassociate itself from formal schools in less-developed countries, which are frequently viewed as serving elite, and not popular, interests.


Farber advances the proposition that the non-formal apprenticeship training offered by U.S. labor unions or, more precisely, the number of apprentices trained in non-formal educational programs, is largely a function of economic forces in the labor market; the number of apprentices completing training varies directly with the differential between craftsman and operative wages (i.e., the higher the differential, the greater the incentive to complete training).


This study seeks to describe major factors that compose agriculture and development so that strategic action on the part of the Methodist Church in areas of rapid social and economic change might be developed. It draws upon existing research studies for descriptive materials, for theories of agricultural development, for normative concepts of Christian social responsibility, and for criteria and procedures for evaluating institutional tasks of churches. It uses the comparative method to relate a variety of materials on ethics, agriculture, and strategy. Normative reconstruction is used to evaluate and suggest guidelines. The report concludes that, although the churches have accepted responsibility for development, a discrepancy between firm policy commitments and actual project involvement continues. Non-formal agricultural education by the Methodist Church, the author feels, can indeed become a strategic response to the problem of hunger and development, but
this will largely depend on meaningful action based on systematized knowledge of the type presented in this study.


Over 200 organizations—national and international, governmental, and voluntary—are now recruiting, training, and/or sending medium-skilled young volunteers overseas (over 20,000 long-term volunteers from 24 countries in 1967), mostly from the developed nations to the third world. Volunteers are most often prepared through non-formal training programs and often apply their skills in non-formal educational programs. This book offers an excellent panorama of the history of all forms of modern voluntary youth service. In its comprehensive entirety, it represents a largely successful attempt to define voluntary service, a most complex and diverse field.


The author describes and analyzes the philosophy and influence of the Value Creation Society (Sokagakkai), a Japanese voluntary organization with an extensive non-formal educational component.


Using the Indian experience, the author examines the purported advantages of voluntary agencies in literary education efforts; i.e., they are usually more highly motivated than are government officers and are "closer to
people," more instrumentalistic concerning techniques and results, and more trustworthy and honest. He concludes that a key role of voluntary organizations may well be "to build up public opinion whose demands may be difficult to resist or ignore."


The author describes and evaluates the organization and function of non-formal educational programs in the voluntary Swedish folk movement (Folkrörelser) during the past century. Such activities, in cooperatives, unions, youth groups, temperance, religious, and political organizations, helped to provide the leadership for the folk movement that culminated in the emergence of Swedish welfare state after 1932. He notes that, because of the rigidly dualistic formal educational system and because of the schools' failure to teach youth the values and techniques of a modern democratic society, the folk movement and its vast network of civic activities and popular non-formal education programs in study circles, in worker education, in folk high schools, and the like "became the very backbone of the Swedish democratic system."


The author suggests that labor unions in the United States tightly control non-formal educational offerings in their apprenticeship programs so as to maintain a constant shortage of apprentices.


This review of the literature on voluntary association discusses social background and demographic factors associated with who gets involved in voluntary action and which attitudes, personality traits, capacities, environments, and social settings are conducive to voluntary action. The authors conclude that "people move people; people involve other people in things they care about. Thus,
This report updates the earlier studies of Clark and Sloan in their "Classrooms" series. It presents an analytical, problem-oriented report on programs, advantages, and obstacles of private vocational schools in the formal, and non-formal sectors. It examines the central problem of how to bring the work of these schools into a more-functional relationship with comparable vocational programs of public schools, local business and industry, community colleges, and other agencies active in various aspects of vocational education.


This benchmark study provides an account of the nature and extent of non-formal educational programs undertaken by leading corporations in American industry. Data analyzed in the study was gathered by way of questionnaires; personal conferences; brochures, catalogs, and announcements distributed by the corporations; and current literature on the subject. The authors describe in detail the kinds of education and training offered and their relationship to similar offerings of institutions of formal education. They also attempt an assessment of the effectiveness of non-formal programs in terms of their own goals and as contributions to the future development of American technology and industry. Although largely descriptive and simplistic in places, the study is a pioneering, authoritative account of the nature and volume of non-formal education being undertaken by American Industry.


The authors trace the origins of non-formal education programs in commerce and industry and analyze current developments and trends in light of modern corporate needs on one hand, and those of the individual, on the other. They conclude that "business and industry can survive and prosper only by maintaining continuous educational programs."

3404. DE WITT, Laurence, and ZIEGLER, Warren L. "Some Notes on Higher Continuing Education in the Large Corporation."
personal influence is the crucial triggering factor in the voluntary participation of most people." The implications for voluntary organizations attempting non-formal educational undertakings are apparent.


This organizational ethnography develops a theoretical framework stressing political economy (i.e., the goal-shaping activities of organizations and the organization-shaping aspect of goals) and the "cultural constitution," or normative order, of a larger society and its institutions. It traces the shift in the YMCA's niche over time from a voluntary social-movement organization with religious appeal to its members to an organization whose appeal is based largely on services rendered. A variety of non-formal educational activities are described and related to various stages of the organization's development, i.e., evangelism, vocational courses, Star Lecture Series, youth camps, health education, preschool and disadvantaged programs, and programs for school dropouts and delinquents. This book makes a considerable contribution to the study of urban social-welfare institutions and, methodologically, to the analysis of organizational and social change.

Other items related to Voluntary Organizations are

1124, 1205, 1209, 1222, 1312, 1313, 1314, 2114, 2122, 3102, 4109, 4110, 4113, 4121, 4126, 4130, 4301, 4306, 4311, 4711, 5105, 5209, 5220, 5403, 5514, 5520, 5703, 5805, 5822, 6104, 6301, 6621, 6631, 7123, 7131, 7132, 7138, 7149, 7160, 7204, 7207, 7208

3400. INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL


This report discusses the postsecondary credentialing function and its expansion during the past few decades. It was written for the purpose of helping one large corporation view the possible needs for continuing non-formal education for employees in a period of rapid social and technological change.


The author analyzes how cultural bases of behavior tend to frustrate the cross-cultural process of on-the-job training within the Libyan oil industry.


Gossage reviews the wide range of non-formal training and educational programs administered by U.S. business and industry for both new and old employees and recent trends in this area. She notes that at least 85 percent of the largest (in dollar sales) U.S. corporations offer non-formal educational coursework that usually covers five categories--orientation, managerial development, human relations, technical and professional education, and general education. She concludes that growing automation and the rapidly changing characteristics of the work force will continue to have tremendous effects on training and development in the future. Because technological evolution has thrust on industry and business the necessity to train and retrain, the need for companies to have their own education programs can only grow and expand. Moreover, "In direct proportion, the need for qualified educational administrators to direct such programs will also increase."


Although primarily concerned with links between science, technology, and national development in the Arab world and Turkey, this conference report contains several national case studies of efforts to create non-formal education programs to meet industrial manpower needs.


This volume presents a number of largely exhortative articles on non-formal education programs in private industry and in public enterprises in India. The British model is much in evidence.


The author briefly surveys innovative approaches to hiring and job training that are being used by a number of industrial firms and notes specific training programs run by Western Electric, Wellington Printing Industries, Dupont Company, Polaroid Corporation, Chase Manhattan Bank, Xerox Corporation, and others.


Other conference papers include "Some Notes on the Evaluation of In-Plant Training Programs," by Yap Kie-Hau, "The Problems of In-Plant Training in Italy," by R. Ciancarelli, and "In-Plant Group Training of Engineers from Developing Countries in the Field of Non-Ferrous Metal Industries in Yugoslavia," by B. Řadović. These reports present a number of practical suggestions for in-plant training programs based largely on the Western European and Indian experiences.

This report and instrument, along with others covering "educación vocacional y técnica," were used in a seminar attended by representatives from the Venezuelan Ministries of Labor, Education, the National Institute for Cooperative Education (INCE), and the private sector. The seminar surveyed local vocational training requirements for business and industry, assessed local training resources, and recommended a training program to meet local needs. This cooperative endeavor is an excellent example of a systematic approach to collaborative training of the local labor force in non-formal programs.


The author outlines the need for manpower training and discusses the components of adequate training as provided by the Industrial Training Act of March 1964, in order to set guidelines and standards for industries involved in the non-formal "training revolution" in England.


This report examines UNESCO's efforts to implement education and non-formal training programs for industrial development in less-developed countries and notes numerous problems. It concludes that "the difficulties experienced by the majority of the countries in attracting sufficient numbers of candidates for the technicians' category was shown to be mainly due to the persistence of traditional, discrimination against manual or practical work by the section of the population having achieved a certain level of education (i.e., formal schooling)."

3417. "Vocational Training for Workers, Supervisory and Technical Personnel in the Petroleum Industry, with Particular
NON-FORMAL EDUCATION


Bibliography.

Other items related to the Industrial and Commercial area are 1248, 3418, 3612, 6703, 1109, 1110, 1126, 1131, 1145, 1203, 1205, 1211, 1246, 1247, 1248, 1311, 1318, 1319, 1320, 2110, 2120, 2206, 2214, 2224, 3611, 3612, 4405, 4409, 4412, 4518, 5704, 5706, 5825, 5905, 6309, 6628, 6703, 6732, 7141, 7239.

3500. MILITARY


The Education Corps is run jointly by the Iranian Army and the Ministry of Education. Young people under military discipline teach in rural areas to complement land reform and village-development efforts.


The author describes the military's contribution to Iran's massive literacy and community-development program approved by national referendum in 1963. Following sixteen weeks of basic training in teacher training for literacy, soldier-teachers taught children during the day, parents at night, and led community development. One survey indicated that 94 percent of the soldier-teachers interviewed expressed a desire to stay in villages as teachers. The study also analyzes the issue of whether agencies outside established formal educational institutions should play such a prominent role. It concludes that non-formal programs are highly desirable because they save funds, they capitalize on freshness and boldness, and they have a self-help appeal; in a land such as Iran, where 76 percent of primary teachers are in urban areas, where only 25
percent of the population live, nonschool efforts are desperately needed.

3503. CIVIC ACTION BRANCH, CIVIL AFFAIRS DIRECTORATE

The purpose of this report is to provide information about the U.S. Army's Military Civic Action Program, which is today an integral, albeit controversial, part of U.S. policy. It discusses the definition, philosophy, and history of Military Civic Action and reviews operational guidelines, problem areas, and case studies from Guatemala, Ecuador, and Colombia.

The report claims, first, that Military Civic Action has a bright and promising future—that, inherently, it is a positive program with positive aims leading to positive gains; second, that Military Civic Action is not a substitute for sound economic and military-assistance programs but serves to enhance their effectiveness and speed the achievement of their objectives; and, third, that Military Civic Action, with its unique characteristics, is particularly applicable to the emerging and developing nations of the world. It can be expected that even greater emphasis will be placed on this activity in the future, particularly if further relaxation of tensions is achieved between the East and West. Conceivably, Military Civic Action could even develop to be an integral part of military operations.

This document presents a clear example of the rationale underlying the U.S. Army's "civic action" strategy at a time when it became widely employed in South Vietnam and in South America. The purposes of non-formal educational activities in civic action programs, i.e., the degree to which they serve the aims of military repression and dominance or truly developmental objectives, is not always clear.


The authors present a comprehensive picture of the overall educational program in the U.S. armed forces—Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marine Corps. They discuss the history of technological advance and educational development, on-duty education for enlisted and officer personnel, off-duty education programs, military instructional
procedures, training in preparation for return to civilian life, and research and development.

Their points are as follows: the armed-forces educational program is a part of society's response to a technological age, contributing to the economic life of the nation by developing a high level of technical and educational ability among large numbers of the younger generation; military schools are equipped with modern teaching aids, prepare their own text materials, and are among the finest schools in the world; instructors are professionally trained educators drawn from military and civilian personnel; and education in the U.S. armed forces provides the country with valuable research, extensive education, and extraordinary technology.

Although the authors deal exclusively with "education outside the traditional institutions of learning" and in "non-academic channels," the concept of a separate non-formal education sector as a potential tool for multisectoral development is not elaborated to any significant extent. The author's three other studies in this series--Classrooms in the Factories, Classrooms in the Stores, and Classrooms on Main Street--are equally informative and descriptive but weak on analysis.


This paper compares various "national service" programs incorporating nonmilitary as well as military alternatives to obligatory service. It examines the twenty-five countries that have alternative service programs (twelve in industrialized, seven in semi-industrialized, and six in developing countries) and that offer a wide variety of non-formal educational activities for both inductees and recipients of program developmental activities.


This report presents a detailed analysis of
military-sponsored non-formal educational programs and their objectives, procedures, and outcomes. It suggests that "in many underdeveloped countries, the leadership of the armed forces represents both the conservative element that dominates the national political system and a minority social class. Extension of the activities of such armed forces into the field of manpower development in the area of education may possibly serve to reinforce their control of the population. . . . Further, when the civilian authorities cannot obtain the necessary resources to meet national education means and needs, there is merit in using other available and feasible means to assist in reducing illiteracy and in raising national educational levels." The need for greater coordination is stressed. "Educational programs of the armed forces should be closely integrated with, and should complement civilian educational programs. Where feasible, final authority over content and design of the armed forces educational programs should rest with civilian authorities at the highest national level. Vocational training should be designed to be compatible with the national and economic development plans, and should consider the vocational interests of the trainee." Gates concludes that armed forces non-formal educational programs should be aimed only at military personnel and those population segments that cannot be reached through civilian educational programs.


The author's basic assumption is that military forces will always be around and that nations should, when possible, engage them in developmental activities such as non-formal adult and community education. Whether this is the most desirable and effective use of national resources is not questioned.


This book examines what a number of countries have done to harness their military forces for nonmilitary purposes and draws conclusions from this experience. The author discusses the advantages, dangers, and techniques of the peaceful uses of military forces and discusses non-formal vocational training of servicemen using data.
taken from first-hand experience, interviews, and case studies.

The author's conclusions are that successful civic action requires close collaboration between the military and civil authorities and must be incorporated into the overall development plan of the country; that the most urgent needs are in the fields of public health, education, farming, and community development; and that advanced and developing countries have recently come to see the merits of using the armed forces to train men and women for a constructive role in society upon their release.


This report presents a review of current combat training practices and problems as they relate to the broad spread of individual ability among soldiers and to the increasing need for the "functionalization of training." Study findings indicate that the training system worked against the less-literate students and was not optimally oriented toward the handling of a wide range of abilities. Key elements in improving the range of abilities were greater emphasis on job-related and behaviorally stated training objectives, "functionalization of instruction," and evaluation based on job performance capabilities.


This descriptive study reports on non-formal and formal educational programs, which, at the time of publication, enrolled some 400,000 men and women annually. The contents are organized in the following three sections: on basic and skill training for enlisted personnel and officers, on professional and off-duty education, and on professional, military education. A concluding chapter on "Problem Areas" comments on "five main areas of concern" as follows: many costly education and training facilities and programs are duplicated in the military's various branches of service, which tend to resist centralization and
coordination; a second problem area is the difficulty in identifying education and training requirements through systematic, valid procedures; a third problem area is concerned with the need to develop more flexible education and training programs that will recognize individual differences, especially in the higher levels of training and professional military education; a fourth general problem area is recruiting and retaining highly qualified personnel for military careers, retaining specialized junior officers for broad command responsibilities, and developing highly qualified staffs to man and instruct in education and training programs; finally, U.S. military education and training programs are faced with the dual tasks of making effective contributions to the advancement of military art and science, and of avoiding educational and training lags behind technological advancement. The authors contend that all too often these non-formal programs, like the services themselves, have been preoccupied with current weapons systems, tactics, and strategies and that many weaknesses in military educational efforts reflect this overcommitment. They suggest that "it is quite probable that the degree of success to be achieved by these programs in the future will largely depend upon their ability to adjust to a rapidly changing world."


The author briefly reviews the role of military forces in non-formal educational programs in Cuba, Venezuela, Chile, India, the Ivory Coast, Morocco, Turkey, Iran, and the United States.


This article describes and analyzes the founding, goals, programs, and impact of the Imperial Military Reserve Association. Established in 1910, the Association, by 1936, had 3 million members in over 14,000 branches throughout the Japanese Empire. The Association was not limited to ex-servicemen but, rather, saw all citizens as soldiers. It was a mass organization with broad educational purposes. These stressed a wide variety of nonschool educational
activities, ceremonies, volunteer work, and youth leadership functions. Goals sought included "solidarity and cooperation," (i.e., "a unified and cooperating populace founded on the lines of a large family"), a hierarchical state in which the military officers were "like fathers," the preservation and reinforcing of traditional rural society, and maintenance of respect for superiors, village hierarchy, and "obedience and military discipline." The Association and its many programs and activities was disbanded in 1945. The author suggests that, as Japan's national interests came into conflict with those of other nations, the military became obsessed with the need for unity and avoidance of divisiveness. The Association and its many non-formal educational activities helped to achieve these aims.


Presents a comprehensive report seeking to justify "pacification" efforts conducted in Vietnam by the South Vietnamese government with the assistance of U.S. civilians and military. The author explains his interpretation of the concept of pacification, reviews pacification programs, including non-formal educational efforts since 1954, and discusses some effects of political upheaval and military defeats on government efforts.

Other items related to the Military area are

1109, 1205, 1318, 1319, 2122, 2132, 3217, 4512, 6617

3600. OTHERS


The NSF Chautauqua-type short courses for college teachers are patterned after the "Chautauquas" of the early part of the century in which lecture, musical, and other programs of cultural interest moved in succession from community to community through a "circuit." The program supplements, but does not supplant, the regular National
Science Foundation (NSF) program of short courses for college teachers. Twelve field centers have been established, organized into three circuits of four centers each. Eleven courses have been arranged for the academic year 1971-72. Eight of them will be offered in each of the three circuits; three will be offered in one circuit only.

The typical pattern for each class is that participants will meet at one of the centers for an initial two days of lectures, demonstrations, discussions, and preparation for individual work, study, research, or other activity to be carried out between that time and the second session—approximately three months. At the second two-day session, the participants will meet for discussion of the work that has been done and for a general wrap-up. In the work assignments, consideration is given to the heavy academic loads of most college teachers. The primary purpose of the program is to provide assistance to college teachers in the natural and social sciences, mathematics, and engineering in keeping their courses up to date, in introducing materials and models helpful in the development of new topics in their established courses, and in determining a basis for the preparation of new courses.


This survey indicates the Office of Education's recent interest in better knowing the extent to which U.S. institutions of higher education offer non-degree, non-formal educational services to adults. "The activities are often offered by a distinct administrative unit, e.g., extension division, correspondence division, evening college, cooperative extension service."


In recent years, reform-minded lawyers have proposed short non-formal training programs to prepare "paralawyers." They propose that slum residents, housewives, and white-collar workers should be prepared to deliver cheaper legal services to poor people and to give slum residents and other less-educated people a role in the law, a stake in the legal system.
Opposition to such programs has come largely from law professors who fear that training such students at law schools will lower the quality of the profession, while others complain that the special training amounts to "tracking," to placing blacks and less-educated people in an inferior status. This issue recently arose at Columbia Law School, when the faculty voted to shift a "paralawyer" training program to a local community college. The black and Puerto Rican participants protested the change and threatened to sue the law faculty if they were not granted full law degrees upon completion of the eight-week course.


The author describes the rationale and structure of this university project, supported by the Bernard Van Leer Foundation. Non-formal educational activities include parent and early childhood education and training in community development and leadership practices. Gray reports that evaluative research has been carried out on the effectiveness of methods and activities in reaching project goals but presents no data in this regard.


Griffin presents a rationale for, and a survey of, existing non-formal educational inputs from the University of Kentucky into Appalachian Development Efforts. Potentials in this regard, are also examined.


Luke reviews how, for more than half a century, the NEA has played a prominent role in developing and shaping program concepts and organizational relationships in the field of adult education. "Immigrant education," "general adult education," "group development," and "public school adult education" are some of the code words that in the past have signaled the thrust of NEA involvement in the education of adults. Now they have been joined by other terms signifying such new concepts as "professional negotiation" and "citizen participation."
California state guidelines require that each school district operating special programs for children of the poor and disadvantaged establish parental advisory groups "to insure that the community and the parents are involved in the planning and implementation of compensatory education programs." This report presents findings of a statewide survey of the committees made in 1970. Non-formal educational activities sponsored by the school districts to instruct parents in the functioning, responsibilities, and tasks of the committees are examined in some detail.

Malcolm X College, one of Chicago's city colleges, seeks to "educate those who are poor and oppressed, those whom society considers uneducable." Courses and activities seek to instill pride and a sense of community among black people by giving "a thorough understanding of our black culture and an insightful understanding of self-worth." Although the college is a formal accredited institution, it offers many non-formal educational services to the community, such as adult education, sewing and drug-abuse education, and "whatever else the community wants."

This perceptive paper explores "the essential features of a class of societies whose members attempt to establish and preserve a cultural identity in the face of what they perceive to be threats to that identity from the environment." Structural features of defensiveness and training--usually of a non-formal variety--for control and revitalization, for socialization, and for the cultural integrity of the defensive group are examined in the Black Muslim organization (the Nation of Islam), the Mormons, and the Taos and Picuris Pueblos. The importance of locally staffed and operated non-formal educational activities in contrast to alien-staffed and operated schooling is discussed. The author, in this study, has made a valuable contribution toward the

This report of a five-week university workshop for Brazilian school administrators presents a detailed description of the project (i.e., rationale, objectives, processes, and materials) and a discussion of outcomes and conclusions largely based on a variety of evaluation efforts. It offers a most helpful example of how a university department can offer specialized non-formal educational activities for professional upgrading in a cross-cultural context.


An examination is made of different types and levels of vocational technical schools in Sweden to show the close cooperation between the state and industrial representatives in the planning, organization, and control of non-formal vocational education. Postwar efforts at industrial recuperation have involved the planning and control of vocational education at two levels. First, responsibility for revising vocational training needs, expansion of vocational education, supervision of industrial committees, and initiation of policy belongs to the Joint Vocational Training Council made up of representatives from the Swedish Employers Confederation and the Federation of Trade Unions. The Council is under the overall supervision of the Labour Market Organization. Second, the educational responsibility rests upon the Board of Vocational Training, which is made up of representatives of the Labour Market Organization, of industry and commerce, and of the Ministry of Education. The Board is an integral part of the Ministry of Education.

The workshop school, of which there are three types, is the basic vocational school. One type is the municipal workshop school, which trains particularly for the manual trades. The second type is the central workshop school, which offers training in rural and coastal trades. These schools offer both theoretical and practical training. The third type, the "works integrated" school, offers technical
training combined with practical training in an industry. Besides the three types of vocational schools, there are also advanced technical schools for more complex training. The study concludes that the vocational school system in Sweden has worked well so far, and, as such, the apprenticeship system is fast declining in popularity in a world where the apprenticeship system is still popular.


The various opportunities available for training different grades of industrial workers are examined. Training for the lower-level technician grade is done along four different lines. First, there are technical schools, which offer two to three years of theoretical and practical training in equal amounts of time for students with the basic eight-year education. There are, second, work schools, which offer both theoretical and practical training in schools located on the premises of industrial firms in a manner similar to the Soviet "factory schools." The recent tendency has been for the technical schools to undertake more of the theoretical instruction for the "work schools." Third, there are "apprentice schools," whose entrants must have had eight years education and must attend two to three years of part-time classes in the school. On-the-job training is the fourth type of training, usually offered to those with very minimal educational background. Training for middle-level and higher-level technician grades is done within Secondary Technical Schools and Higher Technical Schools.

The author reports that on-the-job training for lower technicians has not been successful, due to the inadequate educational background of entrants and the unsystematic training and examination systems. The latter problem is presently receiving the government's attention. Training in any institution is often specialized--there are technical schools, "work schools," and so on for shipbuilding, mining, building, and civil engineering. The author suggests that this specialization has tended to raise the level of training offered in the institutions and has stimulated a recent tendency in a number of industries to establish their own separate or common technical non-formal training courses.
4100. INFANTS, CHILDREN, AND YOUTH


This report describes a successful literacy program for out-of-school youth in an urban setting.


The Club began as an experiment in non-formal continuing education for Kenyan primary-school leavers who were unable to secure a job or a secondary-school place. The 25 to 30 students who attend receive no credit and take no exams. From the outset, the Club has followed the principle that education should only be valued "for the returns it brings in enjoyment, fulfillment and general usefulness, not as a means to a certificate." The hope is also noted in the report, however, that the services volunteered and the non-formal educational activities offered "will consolidate primary school education and equip the members to make the most of any employment opportunities or chances for self-development that may come their way."

This article describes the operation and research programs of the Children's Center at Syracuse University, which specializes in group day-care for infants, some as young as six months, from Syracuse's slum areas. Infants and toddlers leave their mothers for daily care and instruction by means of "cognitive games." Research over a seven-year period indicates that infants from poor families can shed the "initial disadvantages" they suffer in manipulation, vocalizing, and other early learning processes provided there is a high ratio of dedicated and skilled teachers at hand and that the mother-infant relationship is improved through day care. The article cautions that the Program's positive finding would not obtain in makeshift storefront babysitting agencies or in systematized day-care centers on the scale of the public-school bureaucracy, where there are few inputs from parents.

Parental collaboration is now being emphasized at the Center. While dramatic improvements can be achieved by having a high ratio of skilled teachers work and play with infants, regression can be equally sharp once the program ceases if there is no change in the home environment. Attempts are made to involve parents as paraprofessionals who make home visits and advise other slum-dwelling mothers on diet, play, and simple manipulative processes for their children. Mothers also gather at the Center's adult workshop in sewing circles to learn to make toys and clothes and to socialize as a group.

4104. BATTEN, T. R. and Madge. The Human Factor in Youth Work. London: Oxford University Press, 1970. Pp. 170. The authors present a number of case studies gathered over the years while conducting short in-service training courses for workers, trainers, and administrators in the Youth Service. Cases are organized into categories of problems dealing with members of youth groups, members' committees, voluntary helpers, and the community at large. Cases are analyzed and common-sense suggestions are offered to improve performance.

4105. BREW, J. Macalister. Youth and Youth Groups. London: Faber and Faber, 1958. Pp. 237. The author presents a detailed picture of the historical development of youth service programs in Great Britain, a number of principles and guidelines for youth-group organization and leadership, and a helpful section on what
is known about non-formal educational activities for youth groups.


Day care has traditionally served the child younger than five or six years old and, like the school, is concerned, ideally, with providing experiences necessary for wholesome development and self-fulfillment. Both activities represent extensions of the family in socializing young children. The day-care center, however, typically acts in loco parentis and helps to inculcate attitudes of skills that, presumably, the parents would be helping to develop. The author describes current pressures to develop day-care programs and shift their function from child custody and baby sitting to child education. She aptly characterizes the burgeoning child-care movement as a new "major social institution."


Premier Castro reviews the accomplishments of the 24,000 youth leaving national service in the Column after three years of work-study programs in agriculture. He notes the training of over 6,000 agricultural machine operators, 800 sugar-industry workers, and 1,200 teachers for the Worker-Farmer Education Plan. All members, he claims, gained in "political and revolutionary self-improvement," and over 10,000 learned valuable new specific skills needed throughout the countryside.


This detailed compilation of youth-membership organizations and adult organizations concerned in part with youth first appeared in 1937 and reflected problems of the great depression. The second edition of 1941 focused on World War II concerns. This last edition centers on problems of postwar adjustment. The 250 organizations listed are described using the following categories: membership, purpose, activities, publications, and
finances. Many non-formal educational programs are noted in the third category.


The assumption that nationwide self-directed youth organizations can really be effective only in totalitarian regimes has not yet been proven. Indeed, the many educational potentials of the adolescent subculture as a developmental state in the life cycle of the individual, its far-reaching consequences for the educational enterprise, and its impact on the value system of any society make this study of possible and effective adult intervention in an open society very appropriate. Israeli youth organizations share a number of common, as well as differentiating, features: they provide many recreational, non-formal educational, artistic, paramilitary, and patriotic-oriented activities; participation is open, visible, voluntary, and multiple; programs are carried out in small groups and discourage competition and individual prowess; all programs are coeducational and emphasized self-restraint, control, and cooperation with members of the opposite sex; all programs are locally and administratively removed from the school both in location, spirit, and practice; youth workers are usually not teachers or representatives of any other socializing agency but, rather, they are usually young nonprofessionals who possess charismatic authority over adolescents; adults appear rarely at clubs, but indirect adult intervention is frequent; participation in the youth movements implies a commitment to a certain ideology and to a corresponding way of life; and youth programs generally enjoy a wide popularity and play a significant role in the lives of adolescents.

Another finding was that the Israeli school produces strong pressures on the adolescent to achieve and advance and that the school's influence on youth participation can be defined as a necessary, passive condition, rather than as a causal agency. This generalization is based on the findings that adolescents usually stop their activity in any youth organization when they drop out of school and that the amount of schooling is directly related to (and almost only to) the range of activity as measured by programs joined. Chen concludes that the study affirms the assumption
that it is possible, under some conditions, to intervene in the operation and functioning of the adolescent subculture. He also shows that there is a relationship between the school and adolescent subcultures. But this causal chain, if it exists, is not clarified.


Colmen discusses how volunteer youth organization programs in non-formal education, public service, and local development offer youth a chance to be needed, to derive status from what they have to offer. He suggests that voluntary national youth service programs present rich opportunities to reclaim "wasted human resources," to improve the environment, to rebuild urban slums, and, in sum, to carry out a peaceful revolution to enrich one's life while enriching the lives of others.


This report reviews members' experiences with youth problems and policies, with non-formal youth training programs in rural and urban areas, with factors related to the development of programs, and with international cooperation. It contends that "there is nothing intrinsically difficult about creating a National Youth Program. Young people will respond with enthusiasm to tasks, no matter how difficult, which they can see are of benefit to their country." It suggests that the three most-important success factors are practical planning to suit the service to the actual needs of the country, rather than to imported ideas; flexibility in altering programs in the light of experience; and common sense in the handling of young volunteers.


This report presents a well-documented survey and discussion of youth problems, training, and employment. It places heavy emphasis on the need for more and better
out-of-school training and educational programs as an integral part of a strategy for development and social change in the region. The report suggests many concrete possibilities, such as youth camps, 4-H clubs, training programs, and so on for rural and urban youth and is a very practical and informative document.


This empirical study deals with non-formal, nonschool Israeli programs "designed to challenge a proportion of the country's youth to volunteer for public service, and to motivate much of the remainder to contribute to public purposes within the limits of their more personal and family requirements." It is a systematic study of the organizational network offering "commitment education" (i.e., the socialization of youth to values of the adult society, or "Israel's core ideology") to influence the youth culture. It identifies basic theoretical issues and provides data to facilitate analysis and generalization.

The authors suggest that nation-building depends largely on the availability of an idealistic minority, backed up by a realistic majority, in support of national service-objectives; that youth programs help adolescents learn adult roles in a nonthreatening peer group milieu; and that formal schools and families are inferior to voluntary organizations in providing these maturation experiences. They conclude with an examination of five propositions on the relationship between ideology, revolution, nation-building, achievement, youth culture, functional change, cooption planning, peer group role learning, social change, and national, moral, and other variables. This is an important book for all concerned with gaining a better understanding of youth in national development and of the potential contribution of non-formal education to this process.


The seminar, jointly sponsored by the Commission and the ILO, recommends that those countries that are without National Youth Service (NYS) programs should establish them and that countries with programs should do more to ensure their continuous revitalization and evaluation. It argues that NYS programs offer a valuable non-formal educational alternative for the some 80 percent of primary-school leavers in African nations who are unable to gain a secondary-school place or to secure employment.


This report recommends a national youth service organization to the Government of Iran as a means by which the youth between the ages of 13 and 20 years could be prepared to play a more-useful role in the economic progress and development of the country.


The author attempts to generalize from his experience with the problem in Norway and offers a number of suggestions for developing countries, where educational and social conditions are very different indeed. No data, evidence, or documentation is presented to support the argument.


Harburger examines the methods being adopted in Israel to use non-formal education as a means to familiarize students with technology and to encourage them to opt for vocational industrial education. Besides technical programs in the formal schools, there are Youth Clubs where children between the ages of 12 and 16 receive non-formal instruction.
three times a week in metal and woodwork, electric-appliance repair, and so on. Follow-up studies indicate that a large percentage of children attending these clubs enter the technical secondary schools and eventually end up in industry.


The authors report on a study of planning, operation, and evaluation problems in nine federally supported youth-work programs. Recommendations call for increased coordination of such programs, with related efforts seeking economic growth, the development of demonstration projects using non-formal education, and the creation of research centers for the systematic study of innovative efforts.


This volume contains a summary and analysis of replies from 71 member states on the Organization's report (begun in 1968) of recommendations and guidelines for youth employment and training programs in third-world countries. In these countries, where jobs are few and only a small minority of primary-school leavers can secure secondary-school places, governments are increasingly becoming aware of the needs of out-of-school youth and their potential for service to national development while learning useful skills and behaviors in non-formal educational activities of youth service organizations.


This work reports activities and several recommendations of an international conference on the problem of unemployed out-of-school youth in Africa, which were to hold another meeting after two years' time and to gather more case-study data. It presents a good example of how superficial activities of this type mostly benefit conference participants—-who have a pleasant trip, renew professional friendships, and steer clear of getting at the sociopolitical and economic roots of problems.
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The madrich, or volunteer youth group leader, is the focal factor and central figure in the system of leisure time youth work in Israel. This study examines the high status role of madrichim working in ideological youth movements and their recruitment, training, rewards, and contributions as viewed in their own estimation and in the eyes of the larger society. It concludes that the madrich, as guide and leader, plays a key role in the highly successful Israeli youth organizations. He provides dedicated, inspired leadership and continuity and is increasingly well-trained, albeit non-formally, and professional in outlook.


In the course of controversies over preschool goals and methods for disadvantaged children, practices identified with professional, non-formal preschool education predating Head Start have become labeled "traditional" and teachers associated with them are stereotyped as "sentimental." A cluster of teacher attitudes implied by the "sentimental" stereotype includes belief in the uniqueness, the lovability, and the preciousness of the young child. Roots of the belief are traceable to the romanticism of Rousseau and Freudian views of the psychosocial vulnerability of the young. These beliefs are also seen to influence the teacher in other aspects of working conditions. Katz contends that the functions of sentimentality are, for example, interpreted in terms of confusion of role models, low occupational status, and over-determined responses to the young child as a captive client. In conclusion, the author proposes several hypothesized relationships between teacher attributes and working conditions.


This study seeks to determine if a non-formal Outward Bound experience is more effective in reducing further delinquent behavior in adjudicated delinquent adolescent
boys than a traditional non-formal training-school experience. The results suggest that for some delinquents an Outward Bound experience is indeed a desirable short-term alternative to traditional institutional care and can be an effective means of promoting positive change.


The author, who served as the founding director of the Youth Corps, describes the history and development of this new institution and seeks "to provide some guidelines to other developing nations faced with similar problems." This outstanding study contains extensive data on participants' attitudes on leadership, processes, and program costs. The uses and potentials of non-formal education in seeking program objects are examined in detail.


The author evaluates the brigades and makes recommendations for future development. Catering to unemployed out-of-school primary-school leavers, the brigades offer non-formal training in farming (and farm settlement), building, carpentry, mechanics, leather work, handicraft, and textiles. They are an essentially voluntary program with strong expatriate and some government support. Martin argues strongly for a self-supportive approach and is optimistic about cooperative farming ventures. Some imaginative ideas about post-training settlement are discussed. Problems of land shortage, traditionalism, and lack of incentives, however, are serious constraints.


This detailed account also includes the non-formal educational activities of Family Life Workshops, the
National Red Cross, Rural Improvement Clubs, and 4-H Clubs in the Philippines.


Paulston discusses the need for educational planners to include selectively non-formal educational programs in designing educational futures. He then examines case studies of National Youth Service (NYS) organizations in Africa and the Caribbean as illustrative attempts to plan and implement non-formal alternatives. He concludes that non-formal education is no deus ex machina to bypass inefficient and dysfunctional formal schooling; that both are tightly intertwined with the perceived reward structure in any given society.


Shukla argues convincingly that non-formal education for out-of-school youth will only be effective when programs are better organized and coordinated with formal schooling at the post-primary level.


Siegel explains the roles of community and national youth service organizations in disciplining youth and in teaching new norms of behavior and how the collective life of youth cultivated hamlet consciousness and played a dominant part in the molding of desired kinds of persons through non-formal training and the application of sanctions.


The author provides a broad picture of the kinds of non-formal out-of-school activities that are designed to engage the participation of young people in different parts of the world. Out-of-school activities, as defined in this
publication, refer to educational activities undertaken or done outside the formal teaching periods and apart from the formal curriculum. Activities discussed are grouped under the following chapter headings: Clubs, Science Fairs, Camps, Meetings, Museums, Nature Conservation, Non-Specialized Agencies, and Administration. The format of each chapter is similar in that the particular out-of-school science activity under discussion is first described in general terms and then illustrated using examples from several countries.


This work reviews the current status and critical problems of higher education in the United States and suggests a number of reforms and alternatives to the existing system. In the section "New Resources for Off-Campus Education," the report proposes experimentation with regional examining universities, which would not offer courses but would offer exams and degrees to individuals who have previously received skills and knowledge from a variety of formal or non-formal learning situations, such as regional television colleges, informal tutorial colleges, and the like. Under the rubric "Expanded Non-College Opportunities," the report proposes non-formal programs to provide youth meaningful tasks outside the college "to spend time engaged in society until they are ready to learn. College is not the only place to learn how to think, to participate, to accomplish."

The report also examines "inherent difficulties in nationally run programs such as the Peace Corps, or Vista . . . or the new Conservation Corps," --i.e., conflicts over target groups, bureaucratic aspects, avoidance of political action, selection of volunteers, and so on. It recommends that efforts to expand noncollege opportunity for all U.S. youth be directed away from federally run programs into two other areas. One is industry, where part-time hiring, internship, and apprenticeship programs and joint work-study scholarships and programs are suggested. The second area "lies in the encouragement of the growing number of attempts to develop indigenous voluntary organizations devoted to social problem-solving. We believe that federal funds will be better spent through
the establishment of an agency or foundation designed to aid these organizations than by the operation of large federal youth programs. This change would increase motivation, reduce costs and political risks, and enable federal funding to support new organizations at the cutting edge of society's problems." The report also suggests that, with more attractive opportunities outside the academic world in the non-formal educational sector, "fewer young people will enter college simply for lack of a better alternative."


The authors describe a four-country research-and-development project in which experimental non-formal job-training opportunities are offered to trainable mentally handicapped children.


This technical-assistance study recommends a project to provide training and orientation toward national development for unemployed Ethiopian youth between the ages of 14 and 22. Its recommendations include the appointment of a National Youth Commissioner and a National Youth Council and the formation of a National Youth Movement and a National Pioneer Corps.

Other items related to the Infants, Children, and Youth area are

4200. ADULTS

This article reviews why adult non-formal training is coming to be discussed not only as a means of gradually improving the skill level of a country's working population but also as a tool of short-term economic policy. It may, for example, be used as an instrument for fighting imbalances in the economy and thus for reconciling full employment with price stability and productivity growth. For this purpose, it would have to be organized and administered in such a way that it could be varied rapidly in volume and direction to meet changes in both the overall level of demand for labor and specific needs for various skills.

An examination of manpower training schemes in light of this new approach is being carried out by OECD's Manpower and Social Affairs Committee, and a first investigation has resulted in a survey and conclusions tentatively formulated by the secretariat, on which this article is mainly based. In a second round of examinations, an expert group will study the radical reforms in the United Kingdom's training system that have taken place since passage of the Industrial Training Act of 1964.


This report emphasizes that the present-day knowledge explosion, technological revolution, and resulting pace of change necessitate a new concept of education. To be meaningful and purposeful, it has to be dynamic and never-ending, coextensive with an individual's life span. Since most programs of lifelong education require the learner to possess basic skills of language and computation, literacy among the adult population between the ages of 15 and 45 would have to be considered as the basis for any possible advance. It concludes that "even in modern times where the radio, television, and the movie film are challenging the over-dependence on the written word, reading
will remain for many decades the cheapest and the most practical means of acquiring and disseminating knowledge."


Three adult-education conference papers, together with abstracts, are presented on adult-education participation and self-concept. Propositions regarding behavior and motivation are discussed in the context of a theory of self-concept. Curiosity, enjoyment of learning activities, and pleasure in acquiring and/or possessing knowledge are among the reasons stressed for adults becoming involved in non-formal learning situations. Also considered are ways in which conflicting psychological needs, role transition, and the sense of powerlessness affect how adults learn.


Since their founding over a century ago, Sweden's folk high schools have passed through periods of crises and transition. Originally folk high schools offered largely non-formal adult education to rural young adults and in so doing helped prepare the leadership of the folk movement that came to power with the creation of the social welfare state in 1932. Now folk high schools have been placed on an equal footing with various forms of secondary schools.
and are often urban; the curriculum is moving away from the humanities and self-realization aims toward shorter, specialized cram courses to develop marketable skills. Problems of finding a new niche for the folk high schools and their more effective articulation with changing formal school programs are examined from a number of viewpoints.


This investigation sought to discover why adults dropped out of the non-formal basic education program and the general education development program in the New Orleans public schools and to suggest ways of reducing the number of dropouts. A specially constructed interview schedule was used to obtain data from a 10-percent random sample of the 1965-67 dropouts listed in the two programs. Responses of the 50 interviewees, all blacks, indicated that the main reasons for withdrawal were such personal ones as illness, conflict in employment schedules, and child-care problems. Institutional factors played a negligible part. A need was seen for small grouping, diversified programs, and flexible schedules and for an awareness of realistic short-range and long-range goals to serve as incentives for adult learners.


The author describes traditional Danish adult education offered by residential folk high schools as "enlightenment" aimed at producing responsible and open-minded citizens. Today, the concept of leisure-time adult education is more appropriate. It is more flexible and includes special courses for the handicapped, science, vocational courses, hobbies, and for the first time some kind of examination or certificate.

Fundamental principles of the new Act concerning leisure-time instruction are as follows: education is free of charge; private bodies (i.e., educational associations or private persons) have priority over public authorities in creating programs and preparing teachers; and society is obliged to meet the unsatisfied needs arising from
efficiency in working life, is obliged to counteract the alienation that may follow from lack of knowledge and information, and must help citizens adapt to social change. In Denmark, adult education is viewed as a richly varied and differentiated offer from society to the individual citizen, an important part of the comprehensive culture policy of "our rich welfare society."

The article concludes that continual revisions in legislation will be needed to move toward the goal of putting adult education on an equal footing with other kinds of recognized and approved education. It suggests that "someday adult education, along with other parts of our educational system, will form a comprehensive mosaic which will make it possible to cater to life-long integrated education."


This literature review covers studies and reports on a wide range of behavior patterns relative to the aging process. While most of this work deals with non-formal education for aging in terms of adult problems and interests, attention is also given to developments in early life experience and in attitudes that tend to set the pattern for later life characteristics. Chapters focus on learning characteristics and abilities of older adults, existing opportunities and remaining areas of need for education on aging in the educational system, job retraining and other kinds of "informal educational opportunities," and factors germane to preparing for retirement.


Keimig claims that non-formal adult education programs from 1938-60 became "a political force . . . a source of energy and learning which helped to promote individual growth toward self-realization and well-being." These efforts, aimed at "problems of illiteracy, substandard housing, ill-health, poor land use, and lack of community
responsibilities," are viewed as a powerful dynamic for
development. Keimig contends that they contributed
especially to other government programs that depended on
literacy and to democratic understanding, self-confidence,
and personal and social responsibility.

4215. **KNOWLES, Malcolm S.** *The Modern Practice of Adult Educa-
tion: Andragogy versus Pedagogy.* New York: The
This book is a guided inquiry into the newly emerging
technology of adult education based on an original theory
of andragogy (the art and science of helping adults learn)
as distinguished from pedagogy (teaching children and
youth). Its central thesis is that adults in certain crucial
respects are different from young people as learners and
that a different approach is needed.

4216. **KRISTENSEN, Thorkil.** "Adult Education and Economic
Planning as Weapons Against Unemployment." *School and
Society,* IC, 2333 (April 1971), 232-34.
The author, Director of the Development Research
Institute in Copenhagen, believes that the agricultural and
employment sectors in less-developed countries will
produce increasingly difficult problems in the next few
years. Urban unemployment will, with intensified rural
depopulation, "become the burning problem of the 1970's."
He recommends a two-pronged attack stressing non-formal
education for rural and urbanizing adults--i.e., rural
training programs to facilitate the introduction of "small
scale mechanization" or "intermediate technology" and
the extension of poultry farming and stock rearing activit-
ies and, in urban areas, training for self-help, housing activ-
ities, and on-the-job training in industry. He calls for an
action-research program to plan such programs and to
assist in identifying likely target groups and training
instructors.

4217. **LEE, Robert.** *Continuing Education for Adults Through the
American Public Library, 1833-1964.* Chicago: American

4218. **MAHEU, Rene.** "De la educacion de adultos a la educacion
permanente." *Boletin Centro de Documentacion,* No. 36
The author calls for a total reorientation of adult education to the concept of lifelong learning as an indispensable concomitant of the growth of "popular culture." Such a change, the author insists, is a necessary first step in the creation of a "nuevo modelo humano," a new conception of what man is and can become. Maheu is Director General of UNESCO.


This study seeks to construct from the available data a model for integrating the interrelated variables of participation into a consistent, theoretical framework that explains who participates in which activities and why.


The author compares differences in the classroom verbal behavior of 30 teachers in East Texas who taught both adult basic education (ABE) and public-school classes. Each teacher was observed, by means of Flanders' System of Interaction Analysis, for 30 minutes in each teaching situation. Amounts of teacher talk and student talk were determined, as well as forms of direct and indirect influence. Significant differences were found between the two teaching situations in all interaction categories except lecturing. The following conclusions were drawn: (a) teachers tend to accept student feelings and ideas more rapidly, ask more questions, give more directions, use more criticism, and lecture slightly more in public school than ABE classes; (b) teachers involved in both types of classes used more praise and tended to exert more direct influence in the ABE classes; (c) more student talk seems to occur in ABE classes than in public-school classes; and (d) there is more silence or confusion in public-school than in non-formal ABE classes.

Olson describes how adult-education department of urban school systems are increasingly taking on the responsibility of providing systematic, organized, formal and non-formal educational experiences for adults. These programs are designed to help those served by the schools become better parents, better citizens, and more-effective partners in the task of improving education. Such activities range all the way from helping young adults in correctional institutions complete their high-school education to helping build optimum levels of social responsibility on the part of the citizens of the community. They also include classes and other non-formal educational activities for teachers. Many adult-education programs are aimed at meeting various problems of modern living. In this regard, the use and abuse of drugs and narcotics has probably demanded more of the recent attention of public-school adult-education programs than any other single social problem.

In Lunenburg, Massachusetts, "Project Cope" is an all-out attempt to create a unified and comprehensive non-formal community-education program. It includes a staff-orientation program for every member of the school system, a teacher in-service education course on "Drugs and Family Education," a community adult workshop, and a seven-session course on "Drugs and Family Living." Sex education for parents is another area of concern with which public-school adult-education is dealing forth-rightly. In Lincoln, Nebraska, each year the city school system's Adult Education Department (now part of Lincoln Technical College) has teamed up with other community organizations to present a Fall Festival of Learning for adults. A recent festival offering was a course on "Sex Education in the School, Church, and Home." The purpose of the course was primarily to aid parents in looking at the whys and wherefores of sex-education programs conducted in the public schools. Any catalog of adult-education activities related to the problems of tension in everyday living should probably include the Smoking Withdrawal Clinic held by the Redwood Adult School in Marin County, California, and Recovery Incorporated, a self-help technique for people suffering from nervous disorders that the adult-education program has made available to the citizens of Kalamazoo, Michigan.
All of the above programs are in addition to some of the more traditional thrusts of the schools' adult-education programs—namely, the Adult Basic Education Program, the high-school completion program, and the dropout-prevention program. Olson claims that adult basic-education programs of today are a far cry from the literacy programs of yesterday, that without exception adult basic education programs today have become almost a synonym for a meaningful curriculum relevant to an adult’s life needs.


Paulston presents a discussion of patterns and problems in Latin American socioeconomic development and evaluates efforts to formulate and implement non-formal adult education programs vis-à-vis educational efforts in the formal school system. He concludes that UNESCO's goal of life-long education as continuous intercommunication between all social strata appears unrealistic in the extreme when one considers the continuing patterns of external and internal domination in Latin America and the continuing sociocultural value constructs that tend to support, justify, and perpetuate hierarchy, inequality, and gross exploitation. He contrasts the Cuban development model in this regard and assesses possibilities for continued development in the non-formal education of Cuban youth and adults.


Drawing largely on the Indian experience, the author presents a comprehensive strategy stressing functional literacy and production-oriented nonschool training for adults and youth in rural and urban settings.

4226. RIVERA, William M. "'Recurrent Socialization,' a New View of 'Adult' and 'Education' in the Life-Long Education
This valuable study builds on the author's earlier paper "Re-Socialization as an Aspect of Adult Education," EPRC, May 1971. The author argues that adult education has traditionally been thought of "in terms of skills training or additional cultural transference." It is concerned with basic education, functional literacy, vocational training, and so on. It has only rarely been concerned, however, with notions of individual identity and self-image, with the important function of resocialization or "regenerative education." Resocialization is seen "as taking place not only during physical mobility periods, but more fundamentally, at times of: (1) cultural shifts, (2) critical periods, and (3) commitment reductions." The implications of the recurrent socialization concept for adult (not just worker) and education (not just training) are examined.


The Volkshochschule (people's college) is the primary institution for adult education in both the Federal Republic of Germany (West Germany) and the German Democratic Republic (East Germany). This study assesses similarities and differences in the basic aims of adult education and examines practical consequences in the light of stated objectives. The study is based on documentary analysis and uses historical and comparative methodologies. It concludes that West German adult education is more fully developed and is an integral part of the country's educational system, while East Germany has been more successful in its emphasis on vocational education to meet the intellectual and social needs of workers.


Stearns reviews several non-formal early childhood education programs not based on classroom activities. Such programs attempt to test assumptions that modification of a child's home environment can improve learning. Most often, in these nonclassroom programs, visitors to
the home provide a child's mother with materials, ideas, and techniques that enable her to enhance the child's intellectual development by playing educational games with him, providing good sequencing of his activities during the day, and becoming a better language model for him.

The Demonstration and Research Center in Early Education at George Peabody College for Teachers, a component of the National Program on Early Education, has been studying the effects of employing such home visitors. The author claims that their non-formal education efforts have met with success in terms of increased IQ scores for four- and five-year-old children whose mothers had received special training in how to stimulate intellectual development in children of that age. Younger children of these mothers also evidenced IQ increases, apparently because the mothers' general skills as educators improved. No evidence is presented.


Other items related to Adults are

1126, 1128, 1205, 1207, 1212, 1229, 1230, 1302, 2107, 2109, 2110, 2120, 2133, 2136, 2138, 2139, 2203, 2204, 2205, 2215, 2225, 3209, 3212, 3606, 4310, 4408, 4517, 4524, 4603, 4604, 4607, 4608,

Many "free" or "community" schools have recently been established by community leaders, parents, and teachers dissatisfied with public schools. The new schools usually attempt to offer less-structured and more-individualized instruction, more community involvement, and ethnically mixed student bodies. The Ford Foundation has granted over $1 million dollars to aid several of these "free" schools that seem to be especially promising and financially viable, that serve poor and middle-class pupils of diverse backgrounds, and that appear to be particularly relevant to reforming public education. One grant for $250,000 to the City University of New York clearly falls in the non-formal education sector. Its intent is to help create a community resource center where teachers, parents, and students can experiment with a variety of educational approaches seeking to "make learning more meaningful for children." The Center would be used cooperatively both by educators and community residents for workshops, discussion groups, and demonstration and training sessions.


CASAGRANDE, Joseph B. "The Implications of Community Differences for Development Programs: An Ecuadorian Example." Paper presented at Society for Applied Anthropology Meetings, Mexico City, April 1969. Pp. 13. The thesis of this paper is that differences among communities sharing the same cultural heritage and placed
in the same national context can be fully as significant as similarities among them. One order of difference is stressed—the strategies used by communities in adapting to the pressures of the dominant mestizo society. Variables examined include settlement pattern, political organization, degree of bilingualism, extent of community endogamy, population, degree of differentiation and solidarity, and extent and nature of factionalism. Casagrande suggests that development programs can succeed better if they are congruent with the distinctive patterns of adaptation and the various styles of the client communities. Individuals and groups respond to development agents seeking change (i.e., community development, adult non-formal education, and so on) with the same behavioral strategies they employ when dealing with other outsiders who are in positions of power. He concludes that "these strategies are patterned in ways consistent with their ecological circumstances and, I believe, are in large degree predictable from them."


This document, called the "Community School Center Development Act," seeks to promote the use of schools to offer non-formal continuing education to adults, services to the elderly, recreational programs for youth, and a whole range of activities designed to help the community.


The author explains why the establishment of cooperative-service agencies by schools and school districts is one of the five priorities for educational and community advancement adopted by the Appalachian Regional Commission upon the recommendation of its Education Advisory Committee. He suggests that these agencies can be the device for helping meet the Commission's other priorities, such as improved early childhood education, an increase in the training and numbers of teachers, better occupational information, guidance and non-formal training, and improved state and local planning.

The author describes a typical community "free school" being organized in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, "to provide non-formal courses of interest, not available anywhere else, to help people who want to experiment with different learning structures, and to get people together who are interested in working on a common project. There are no fees or restrictions on who can attend. Classes offered include: ceramics, auto mechanics, women's and black liberation, photography, electronics, children and education, yoga, theatre of the absurd, and ecology. Class structure depends on class needs. Some classes may not have instructors, and those which do are taught by volunteers. Classes are held in nearby universities and in private homes and apartments."


This book presents a detailed case study of the US-supported Pakistan Village Agricultural and Industrial Program. This massive rural-development project lasted from 1952 to 1961, cost over $35 million, and employed a staff of some 5,000 persons. The author describes in detail the program's rationale, setting, scope, and problems. Non-formal education activities in attempts to improve village organization, health, agriculture, and so on are analyzed in detail, as are efforts at "bureaucratic re-education" to change traditional-bound civil servants into "democratic change agents." In a bitter epilogue, the author blames this "traditional bureaucracy" as well as "the technical department of the five-year plan" for the program's sudden termination and "its failure to fulfill its objectives." Unfortunately, Mezirow does not examine how and why the choice behavior of the bureaucrats conflicted with the objectives and assumptions of the project.


Discusses the utility of revitalization theory as an explanatory frame to examine relationships between social and educational change. Contends that when groups attempt to rapidly revitalize their culture to innovate whole or
substantial positions of cultural systems, they will usually seek to bypass the formal school system with its conservative messages and turn instead to non-formal educational programs. These will seek to enhance group solidarity and further the creation of the new cultural system.


Paulston examines four school-centered community-development programs in Peru in an attempt to identify those variables that have been most critical in accounting for the presence or absence of achievement in terms of program objectives. He identifies eight key variables and scores each program on a "success-failure" continuum. He suggests that in plural societies efforts to use both formal and non-formal educational sectors to further community-development objectives will have a greater possibility of effectiveness with agencies, teachers, and target populations that all represent relatively minimal cultural interfacing; that the non-formal sector, because of its flexibility and frequent independence from the colonizing, bureaucratic school system, offers more promise for such efforts; and that, in light of the vulnerability and bias of inputs accompanying educational interventions from abroad or from the superordinate culture into the subordinate group, disadvantaged elements should strive for greater control and cultural autonomy in both school and nonschool programs.


The purposes of Project Understanding were to help participants to obtain accurate information of human survival issues relating to people, poverty, pollution, and politics; to think through the implications of these issues and examine their opinions about them; and to change their own opinions, attitudes, and behavior and take effective citizen action. A questionnaire was used. The findings indicate that the multimedia method of television, discussion groups, and study materials were effective in changing expressed opinions about social and political issues.

This study examines non-formal adult-education program offerings in East Orange, New Jersey, potential participants' needs and interests, and program needs as reported by business and industrial leaders. A plan was proposed for an appropriate community-wide program. Data from public-school adult-education programs in 142 cities covered the time devoted by adult directors to adult-school duties, responsibility to superintendents of schools, adult counseling, publicity, community councils, advisory committees, costs, and educational objectives. Local data covered age and sex of respondents, educational background, convenient times of the day or week, and preferences as to program location. Program goals included acquainting adults with their civic responsibilities, broadening educational backgrounds, helping shape social and economic conditions, training for vocational competence and increased economic efficiency, enriching the quality of life, and promoting better physical and mental health.


In the municipality of Jutiapa, Guatemala, a low-cost AID-sponsored out-of-school literacy program was carried on from 1962 to 1965. A cross-sectional analysis of two communities was then made to assess the program's impact upon the literacy rate and to ascertain differences between the experimental and control communities and between attitudes of illiterates and those who achieved literacy. Matched samples of adult males were selected from both villages and were intensively tested using interviews, literacy-interest tests (pictures), and Leader Rating Interest Tests. Findings reported are that the literacy rate of the 15-35 age group in the experimental village was 14 percent higher than in the control village, that literacy classes served as screening devices to identify the brightest and most highly motivated, that if a mother is literate there is a high probability that her children will go to school, and that literates are more understanding, more open to new ways and new information, and have a better diet.
The authors suggest that, given a chance, the peasant will avail himself of the opportunity to attend literacy classes to help himself and that an adult-literacy program should be regarded as the first step along the road to rural community development. They claim that where funds are not available non-formal programs conducted by volunteer teachers under close supervision can provide a satisfactory low-cost alternate. This claim is not, however, supported by evidence.

Other items related to Communities are

1134, 1138, 1225, 1227, 2118, 2215, 3213, 4611, 4622, 4624, 4631, 4632, 4633, 4718, 5216, 5220, 5224, 5228, 5604, 5910, 6303, 6503, 6504, 6520, 6521, 6523, 6601, 6627, 6630, 6701, 6709, 6710, 6731, 7128, 7151, 7210, 7238, 7301

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Kayser discusses, inter alia, functions and problems of non-formal education in upgrading skills of nonnational migrant workers.


Levine reviews recent examples in U.S. unions in which workers have won educational opportunities in both the formal and non-formal educational sectors as fringe benefits in the collective-bargaining process. He notes parallel developments in Europe, where trade unionists are currently experimenting with release-time education in England and paid educational leave in Germany, Holland, Scandinavia, and Switzerland. In the United States, a number of agreements have appeared that provide workers and in some instances their families, with equipment training, upgrading training, automation retraining, education for company expansion, released time for education, and training opportunities during lay-offs.


This article describes Latin America's only democracy, trade-union movement with a Christian orientation (CLAS), which, through its ideology and extensive program of non-formal worker education, "is attempting to introduce a positive and perhaps decisive factor in Latin America's social revolution." Beginning with an inventory of the tremendous social problems besetting the Latin American continent, the author explains why he believes the labor-union movement has not been strong in Latin America and why foreign models of trade unionism, either from the United States or the Communist world, are not applicable. He then presents a case for Christian trade unionism, which is free trade unionism, democratic, unitarian, technical, autonomous and independent, revolutionary, and Latin American.

Maspero suggests that Christian trade unions did not take hold in Latin America until recently because the Church was committed to charity and not social justice and was closely tied to the existing social order. When workers became aware of the injustices of the establish
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social order, they inevitably turned against the Church. With the recent shift in Church teaching toward social justice, a new way has become possible for the labor-union movement—a Christian trade-union movement.

The author appeals to the United States to cease its aggressive discrimination against the Christian democratic trade-union movement in its attempts to impose the North American AFL-CIO model of a democratic trade union on Latin America and to open a true dialogue between these two systems, both of which are based on the Judeo-Christian ethic.


The author characterizes the typical U.S. non-formal "labor education" program, with its stress on labor history, parliamentary procedure, grievance procedures, and so on, as "at the very best, nothing more than repetitious training and information programs." He questions the assumptions and outcomes of these activities and presents a somewhat vague strategy to integrate education, training, and information. He suggests that the training and information should condition people to their specific roles and also serve as a means of identifying the "earnest majority" who will avail themselves of an opportunity for education and who have the potential "to make creative contributions to society."


Mincer estimates the amount invested in on-the-job training in the United States, estimates rates of return on some particular forms of on-the-job training, such as apprenticeships and medical specialization, and then compares results with the rate of return on investment that includes both formal and non-formal components of the educational complex. His tentative conclusions are that "(1) investment in on-the-job training in the U.S. is as important as formal education for the male labor force, and amounts to more than a half of total (male and female) expenditures on formal education; (2) on-the-job training has grown at a much faster rate at higher skills levels than at lower ones; and (3) the rate of return on selected investments in on-the-job training was not different from
the rate of return on total costs of college education, both unadjusted for ability factors."


Non-formal labor-education programs in Great Britain and the United States have differed over time with respect to administration, finance, purpose, and content. The essential nature and scope of the programs in each country, however, have remained fairly constant until recently. Traditionally, British labor education has been concerned with the worker as an individual member of society and administered by an independent, working-class organization. American labor education has been primarily the responsibility of the unions and concerned with the worker as a union member. By 1965, the traditional characteristics of the programs in the two nations had become almost totally reversed. This study traces the events within each country that led to the reversal of the traditional program and purposes of labor education for workers.


The author contrasts aims and instructional targets of "institutional, or formal, education" and non-formal adult education. He claims adult-education programs, seen largely as education for workers, have failed most students because in many cases such instruction is "simply a superficial coating and does not take root in their everyday subjective life" and that "it is almost impossible for the adult being instructed to connect what he learns with his previous culture."
Schwartz briefly notes an attempt to link adult instruction with daily-life in a general information (i.e., "culture") course for iron miners at Nancy, France. The author exhorts the fusion of adult education and the education of children and youth into a vague national system of "life-long education," but he seems totally unaware of the concept of nonschool education as a discreet sector linked to other development sectors. This study reflects rather painfully the status preoccupations of many French adult educators, i.e., the stress on producing evidence of a "cultured" mind, rather than a factual problem-solving approach that attempts to do something more than displaying erudition.


   Education for workers in Sweden is offered in a variety of school and workshop settings, in programs that are located both in the formal and non-formal educational sectors. Municipal workshop-schools train for the manual trades, central workshop schools offer both theoretical and practical training in rural and coastal trades, while "works integrated" schools are located largely in industry. Vocational education policy and supervision is handled by the Joint Vocational Training Council composed of representatives from the trade unions and the Swedish National Employer Confederation. The educational responsibility rests with the Vocational Training Board, an integral part of the Ministry of Education. The Board collaborates closely with the Council and the Labour Market Organization and with industry and commerce.


Other items related to Workers are

1134, 1202, 1226, 1311, 1319, 2101, 2102, 2206, 2208, 3104, 3218, 3315, 3402, 3403, 3405, 3406, 3407, 3410, 3412, 3413, 3417, 3418, 3611, 3612, 4227, 5703, 5704, 6110, 6125, 6703, 7125
4500. PARAPROFESSIONAL, PROFESSIONAL, AND ADMINISTRATIVE


Twenty-six elementary and junior-high-school administrators and four college teachers educators participated in a six-week summer institute, the first phase of a program designed to improve the education of children in schools serving the disadvantaged, particularly Mexican-American. The program involved cognitive learning, practicum experiences involving the theory or academic content, and personal development in understanding of self in relation to others as demonstrated in the professional role. Academic areas were "Group Dynamics," "Cultural Background of Mexican-Americans and Its Influence on Language," and "Learning Processes" (which emphasized differences in learning patterns of "disadvantaged" children, particularly with regard to language).

Participants worked on "task group projects" to attack real problems being experienced in the schools. Other activities included "sensitivity groups" to enhance understanding of self and others, videotape role playing, and "real" parent-teacher interviews. Evaluation measures, a before-and-after self-concept survey and three questionnaires indicate that the program achieved its objectives.
as nearly as possible in the first phase, particularly in the movement of participart attitudes (toward their students and toward planning programs for them) from closed-mindedness to understanding and openness. No follow-up study on the retention of these attitudinal changes over time is included or suggested.


The training program reported here sought to prepare government administrators for increased responsibility in their ministries or agencies for planning and industrial development. The program combined academic, professional, and practical training in all aspects of management of industrial development, with emphasis on skills and techniques of project development and evaluation. It included thirty courses of 200 class hours of instruction, supervised field trips, research projects, and plant visits. It sought to offer experience closely related to the responsibilities that participants would assume on their return to government service by providing pertinent analytical, problem-solving, and decision-making experiences.

4505. ATCHLEY, Robert C. "Can Programs for the Poor Survive in Middle Class Institutions: The Head Start Teacher Aid Idea Didn't Transplant Successfully." Phi Delta Kappan, LIII, 4 (December 1971), 243-44.

Non-formal paraprofessional job-training programs have recently been viewed as promising a means to develop systemic links and to help bridge the communications gap between culturally different groups—for example, between black ghetto students and middle-class white teachers. Atchley describes an attempt to prepare teacher aides through on-the-job training in Head Start classrooms. But, because the culture gap between teachers and aides was as great as that between teachers and students, the policy of recruiting aides from poverty areas was soon dropped. Instead, middle-class housewives more able to communicate "middle-class values, knowledge and skills" were employed and trained. He concludes bitterly that programs for the poor are unable to survive when placed in systems primarily designed to meet the needs of the middle class. This conclusion expresses both a caveat
and a rationale for shifting compensatory programs such as Head Start from the formal to non-formal educational contexts.


This study investigated the relationships among the extent of continuing non-formal education participation by Air Force nurses in the continental United States, means used to reflect officer effectiveness, selected demographic and military characteristics, and orientations toward learning. A four-part, nonstandardized questionnaire was administered to 589 nurses, including 211 who had not been involved in continuing education during the past five years. Factors that the 211 saw as barriers to their participation were sought. The following were among the findings: (a) participation was significantly related to educational levels but not to the nurses' effectiveness as officers; (b) age, rank, marital status, and years of service did not correlate significantly with participation; (c) nurses did not feel that participation in continuing education helped with promotions or effectiveness; (d) although goal-orientation was related to participation, the nurses' major learning orientation was need-fulfillment; (e) the perceived major barriers to participation were the nurses' own attitudes, perceptions of supervisor attitudes, and lack of counseling.


Designed to train the curriculum supervisors as agents of change, the proposed program is based on the following assumptions: (a) the existing educational program is neither adequately preparing the individual for living in a rapidly modernizing Thailand nor is it preparing him to take an active role in ongoing social and economic developments; (b) the degree of change possible, with respect to the curriculum supervisors, is limited only by the individuals' training, imagination, ambition, and resources; (c) the supervisors have the immediate responsibility of controlling the content and quality of teaching in the province.

After objectively criticizing the existing supervisory plan, the report presents a comprehensive and flexible plan that would actively involve all teachers in all schools of the provinces. The program proposes that each school will assign a teacher as a "coordinator" of a particular subject-matter area, that each curriculum supervisor will conduct yearly training of the "coordinators," that each supervisor will in turn supervise the subsequent training of teachers conducted by the "coordinators," and that each supervisor would observe the results of the non-formal training by periodically visiting and observing teachers receiving training.

The plan is of interest because it suggests a framework by which the quality of education may be improved at the local (provincial) level without the dependence upon large budgets from the Ministry of Education in Bangkok and by making supervisors more important agents of change. It contains diagrams of supervisory activities, sample yearly programs for six curriculum areas, examples of schedules and progress reports, and charts of achievement data.


This article discusses recent developments in the non-formal in-service training of public officials and administrators in France.


This regulation establishes the MAOP to identify and develop commissioned officers for assignment to politico-military positions throughout the Department of Defense. It lists the purpose and scope of the regulation, defines the terms, places responsibility for the program's operation and selection of officers, discusses applications and nominations for entry into the MAOP, explains the program of career development in the MAOP, and identifies military assistance positions to include key positions within the Department of the Army. This is a program that allows an officer to specialize in developmental assistance to individual countries for the entire span of his career and provides special non-formal training for this mission.


In this guide, Finch defines in-service education and its purpose, presents guidelines for planning non-formal programs, gives examples of such in-service programs, and presents some evidence that in-service, on-the-job programs make a significant difference in altering teacher performance. He also suggests that in-service education includes all activities that teachers engage in during their service and that these activities should be designed to contribute to the teacher's professional improvement and effectiveness.

This seminal report presents the findings and recommendations of a research study on the utilization of manpower in U.S. hospitals. It suggests an action strategy stressing increased labor mobility, the training of new paramedical occupations such as physicians' assistants, and greatly increased hospital in-service training programs to those ends. It also suggests that, where hospitals are too small or insufficiently financed, such non-formal educational programs should be carried out cooperatively with neighboring hospitals and educational institutions.


In 1971 alone, more than 1,200 U.S. school administrators have been participants in National Academy of School Executives (NASE) in-service training programs. The non-formal five-day seminars cover such major educational issues as "Effective Student Involvement," "Accountability and Assessment," "Organizational Renewal: Change and the School Administrator," and "Evaluating Innovations."


This collection of papers written for a workshop at the University of Chicago in 1969 discusses possibilities and obstacles in the improvement and expansion of programs seeking to prepare teachers for adult basic education programs.


Han suggests several approaches to in-plant training as ways of helping young engineers bridge the gap between basic knowledge acquired in universities and its application in industry where technical functions are becoming increasingly specialized: Industrial work during summer vacations, for one, is encouraged by some European universities, but there is a criticism that here the student is confined to facilitate observation; in-plant training programs, in contrast, tend to emphasize the development of talent and abilities ("acquisition of skills and the exercise of judgment..."
in concrete cases"). Other examples of in-plant training programs are given, such as the one recommended by the Committee on Practical Training set up by the Council of the Institute of Mechanical Engineers of the United Kingdom. Also, exercises that trainees are supposed to perform are reviewed for such fields as factory floor practice, machine-design process, product development, and sales engineering and management. The role and the duties in the field of the training supervisor are also indicated.

Han concludes that in-plant training programs, with certain modifications, could be appropriate even for undergraduate students, that the organization of in-plant programs of all types calls for cooperation between industry and educational institutions, and that this cooperation is even more important in industrializing less-developed countries that might request assistance from international organizations to help organize in-plant training programs for engineers at home or to secure scholarships for training them in overseas plants.


This report describes the month-long SEPIC Workshop on Methods of Education conducted in Caracas, Venezuela, in July 1970. Four University of Pittsburgh professors from the School of Education conducted this activity for the new Control and Evaluation Division of the Venezuelan Ministry of Education (MED), "an encouraging organization innovation that holds no little promise for the qualitative improvement of Venezuelan education if evaluation staff can be properly trained and deployed." In addition to helping the new evaluation unit train its largely untrained staff, the workshop was also attended by university planners and administrators and members of Venezuelan military training facilities. Classes met daily, instruction was exclusively in Spanish, and local evaluation concerns, programs, and problems provided a large part of the subject matter in the workshop and in organizational settings.

4520. KIEFER, George W. State In-Service Training for Correctional Personnel Final Report. Carbondale, Ill.: Center for

Volume I of this final report, in three volumes, presents an account of a correctional staff training project, methods and activities involved, findings, and evaluation. Objectives of the study were to survey training practices and needs, to determine resources available for present and future staff training, to design programs of training in terms of individual and agency needs, and to stimulate conditions conducive to correctional staff training. A literature review, a questionnaire survey of correctional personnel, and solicitation of information from resource persons and agencies were among the procedures used. Reports on relevant topics were distributed to those involved in or concerned with Illinois corrections. Based on findings, a much stronger state-level commitment to correctional staff training was urged.


This study considers educational and psychological concepts useful in the preparation and further development of persons who teach adults.


This article describes non-formal programs and problems of Europe's first management studies program for practicing businessmen founded by the Nestle Foundation in Lausanne fifteen years ago. It concludes that the institute has served as a development model for cognate new programs in Austria, France, Germany, Great Britain, Holland, Italy, and Spain and that its impact has "led to significant changes in outlook, habits and attitudes" in "a generally reluctant European business community."


The authors argue that traditional values do not block change to the extent currently believed and that economic achievement can be stimulated by psychological education in non-formal contexts. Adult-training projects for businessmen and entrepreneurs in India, Oklahoma, and in Washington, D.C., have, the authors claim, significantly raised achievement motivation. The authors describe the behavioral science theory tested by these projects, recruitment of participants, course content and organization, changes resulting from training, and the overall psychological impact of achievement motivation training.


The author first defines a "profession" using six criteria (intellectual, learned, practical, technical, organized, and altruistic) and defines "continuing education" as "a process whereby a person who has completed his formal education is provided with a means for meeting his needs for further personal development." He suggests that continuing education should be goal-directed rather than activity-oriented, i.e., that objectives should be clearly stated in behavioral terms before any activity is planned. The learning, or how well specified objectives have been met, must be evaluated. He then applies a model based on these assumptions to continuing-education needs in the clergy, law, and medicine.

Nattress concludes that the continuing educator must be more than a mere facilitator of learning prescribed subject matter. He must be willing and able to interact with the student at all stages. He must be sensitive to pressures and tensions in order to help students set reasonable short- and long-range objectives. This should be his primary role.


4527. OFFICE OF EDUCATION, U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION AND WELFARE. "The Roving Recreation
This work describes a preservice training program for "Roving Leaders." This is a good example of the Office of Education's growing concern for producing materials to be used in the non-formal educational sector.


This survey of 155 small secondary schools seeks to find out how well small schools are able to perform non-formal in-service activities for their teachers. Questionnaires were sent to all administrators and to a sample of teachers (6 percent) asking for descriptions and evaluations of present programs and opinions of kinds of in-service needed. Findings are that more in-service activities are needed that would involve teachers in leadership, relate to day-to-day activities, facilitate evaluation in terms of effectiveness, and involve teachers in planning.

Although many variables are incorporated in this survey, most are not accounted for. For example, how many of these schools are rural and urban is not stated. Whether teachers and administrators differ concerning preferences for in-service training is not stated, nor is it explained why teachers may have preferred workshops over supervision. Rather, the report deals with very general types of activities, such as faculty meetings, observations by supervisors, and conferences as alternatives to workshops. The non-formal education of teachers seen here consists mainly of necessary meetings and supervision that cannot be provided for otherwise. With the exception of brief reference to workshops held, these teachers seem to have very little in-service or on-the-job training of any kind.


This experiment in non-formal education sought to help prospective and experienced teachers develop empathic attitudes toward inner-city children and to develop their competence in teaching disadvantaged children. Enrollment was limited to thirty candidates, who had a median age of 33. Interrelated stages of the program were communicating with deprived people in their communities, observing the
operation of schools in low-income areas, and teaching
disadvantaged children within these schools. Tests were
applied initially and after each session to measure outlooks,
attitudes, and concerns. Although a control group was
used in the experiment, no findings are reported.

4530. Regional Conference on In-Service Training, Saratoga Springs,
New York. New York State Department of Mental Hygiene
and the National Institute of Mental Health, 1963.

4531. RIOCH, M. J., ELKES, C., and FLINT, A. "Pilot Project
in Training Mental Health Counselors." Publication No.
PP. 33.

4532. SATTERTHWAITE, A. "Training and Performance of
Paramedical Personnel in the Pakistan Family Planning

4533. SCHANKERMAN, Maurice. "In-Service Education: A Study
of the Participation Patterns on a Selected Group of Ele-
mentary School Teachers." Unpublished Ph. D. dissertation,
Indiana University, Bloomington, 1968. PP. 242.

This dissertation studies in-service education activities
for a selected group of public elementary-school teachers
in Indianapolis. Emphasis is on patterns of participation,
activities offered to and desired by teachers, teacher
evaluation of activities, opinions on administration of the
program, and recommended improvements. Questionnaire
respondents (181, or 57 percent of the teachers surveyed)
gave data on such matters as likes, dislikes, scheduling,
and program leadership. Teachers desired many more
kinds of activities, greater involvement in program planning,
planning and initiation of activities at the district level,
and increased supervision by principals, supervisors, and
consultants. They sought staff counseling concerning
professional growth and development, career planning,
and personal problems, favored classroom observation,
both within their own schools and in other schools; and
desired small group discussion meetings by level or subject areas. They indicated that in-service education
(preferably on a released time basis) should be required
regardless of tenure, degree status, or experience and
sought more active and meaningful involvement in a
cooperative study of school-system policy, educational
aims and philosophy, classroom experimentation, and current research.


As part of an early child-care program for migrant children in Colorado, two-day workshops were held to train migrant women, mostly Spanish-speaking Mexican-Americans, as teachers and aides for 25 infant education centers operated in public schools throughout the summer of 1969. Major goals were to change attitudes toward the importance of talking to babies and playfully interacting with them and to impart specific information about ways to help babies grow and learn. Sessions were relaxed and informal, one goal being to enhance each woman's role-concepts by reinforcing her identity as teacher and infant educator. Attempts were made to systematize the teachers' practical knowledge of child development and describe specific skills at different age levels that are critical to later learning and academic success. Evaluation data indicated that, despite some success in achieving the second major goal, little progress was made in changing attitudes that initial training is most effective when combined with follow-up sessions by professional consultants, and that the program's most positive feature was the informality of its teaching format.


This study of the training needs of hospital ancillary staff concentrates on a group of hospitals in England and Wales in each of six hospital regions. Information was collected at the national level and brief visits were made in other regions. Findings showed large differences in staffing between hospitals of similar types, little systematic study of labor supply and deployment, poor financial control, confused responsibilities, and lack of modern management techniques. Training needs and current practices were studied for several categories of ancillary services--catering, serving of food, cleaning, porters, paramedics, telephone operators, laundry personnel, gardeners, builders, and storemen. Facilities for further education--
day release, fees, and allowances—were reported. The
appendixes include a list of interviews held during the
study and notes on some training courses referred to in
the report.

4536. SUÁREZ Z., Waldo. "Los Principios Democráti
cos y su Aplicacion en la Educación Crítica." Santiago, Chile:
Ministerio de Educación, 197__p. 11.

These guidelines for teacher reorientation through
non-formal in-service training cover the need to develop
a new school system as a critical first step in "constructing
socialism in Chile," the superiority of the Cuban model
over the Alliance for Progress model in this regard, and
the consequent importance of planning, research, and
creation of a new mass culture opening up learning oppor-
tunities for all.

4537. UNESCO. "Practical Guide to In-Service Teacher Training
in Africa: Establishment, Execution and Control of

This guide presents suggestions and recommendations
of a workshop on in-service teacher training conducted in
Nairobi, Kenya, in October 1968. It also offers some
helpful ideas for the organization, implementation, and
evaluation of in-service programs. The authors, however,
appear to presuppose that good organization will inevitably
result in a successful program, and dogmatic pronounce-
ments are made about the ways in which programs should
be implemented. Unfortunately, the guide does not consider
practical logistical problems and pays no attention to
motivational problems in teacher-training programs.

4538. UNIDO. "Development of Managerial and Technical Man-
power." Education of Managerial and Technical Personnel
Requirements in Selected Industries. Training for Industry

This study contends that the available supply of managers
and technicians, especially in less-developed countries,
does not seem to meet the demand, thus making it necessary
to give special attention to the problem of improved training.
Since the regular instruction process has proven to be a
slow one, the alternative to be followed is that of on-the-
job training by superiors (see L. R. Clark's "Managerial
Development Through the Superior-Subordinate Relation-
ship," Advanced Management Journal, XXIX, 4 [October
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1964 (pp. 70-73), along with the understudy system, rotation between jobs, out-of-hours study, and coaching. The study enumerates several of the problems in training at this level in developing countries that are substantially different from those of industrialized countries.

It concludes that instruction for managers and technicians could be provided by local institutions in order to reduce costs (some students sent abroad may decide not to return), foreign manufacturers should be encouraged to set up plants in developing countries where home-office managers could train their own local replacements, and correspondence schools, where success largely depends on the will of the individual student, should also be supported. A list of institutions for information and help in management development, all over the world, is supplied at the end of the article.


Utz treats sociological concepts and those from other disciplines as tools for deriving objectives for staff training and development. The Cooperative Extension educator's job is considered as one in which he uses these concepts in achieving change in individuals and groups by performing the functions of teaching, linking systems, maintaining and developing the organization, and conditioning the public for acceptance and support of educational programs. The behavioral components of objectives are described as appropriate only inasmuch as they are derived from staff members' needs relating to their job and its inherent functions. Determination of objectives is treated as a process that provides for continuous development and training. The author suggests several criteria for deriving and rank-ordering objectives in a way conducive to "the active, meaningful learning essential to staff development."


4541. WOHLBERG, Kenneth C. "The Non-Formal Education of Teachers." Pittsburgh, Pa.: International Development

Wohlberg defines the scope and purposes of the non-formal teacher education activities (i.e., outside the formal college and university systems), discusses key variables and programs attempting to change teacher behaviors, and seeks to relate these findings taken from third-world examples to a more operational definition of non-formal education.


The conference examined strategies to make Latin American schools of public health more effective in meeting their responsibilities for education and service. Non-formal educational activities are suggested as a supplementary activity to strengthen efforts in both of these sectors.


How realistic is the possibility of mid-career transfer for the 75,000 unemployed engineers and scientists in the United States in 1971? The non-formal educational program Aerospace and Defense Adaptation to Public Technology (ADAPT), sought to find out by retraining some 400 unemployed professionals at the University of California and M.I.T. for employment as urban specialists. Only 15 percent, or 56, of the graduates (out of a total of 380) had secured jobs two months after completing the program.

Other items related to the Paraprofessional, Professional, and Administrative area are

1131, 1138, 1143, 1205, 1229, 1311, 2113, 2135, 2222, 3219, 3403, 3406, 3601, 4121, 4222, 4714, 4717, 5219, 5602, 5603, 5605, 5605, 5901, 5909, 5914, 6112, 6118, 6125, 6207, 6304, 6305, 6307, 6309, 6517, 6521, 6601, 6602, 6608, 6611, 6615, 6617, 6623, 6624, 6630, 6704, 6710, 6715, 6732, 7102, 7112, 7117, 7118, 7128, 7129, 7145, 7213

4600. ETHNIC AND DISADVANTAGED

4601. BAINES, James, and YOUNG, William M. "The Sudden Rise and Decline of New Jersey Street Academies: Case Study
Citing problems of lack of leadership, lack of planning and evaluation, lack of feedback to the community, lack of in-service training, and "extremely high costs," the authors present an informal, summative evaluation of the storefront academies. These institutions presented both non-formal and formal educational programs from 1968 to 1970 that have been variously described as "a complete fiasco" and "a terrible mess." A one-time educational director for the program stated in this regard that "it wasn't a program. There were no students in it. It was a fattened payroll." Local directors of the eight neighborhood centers claimed, in contrast, that many disenchanted and alienated black students had been "reclaimed: but they had no statistics to prove it."

Lessons learned are that "storefronts" can prove useful in attracting street youth and that charisma, when not confused with education, has emerged as a vital new motivational tool. "But the lesson that stands out the most is the utter inability of the street academy approach to be systematized or packaged. As the program moved first to Harlem and then to Trenton, it became professionalized, fragmented, and specialized. It was no longer a process, it was a product." The authors concludes that "what the street academies did do was rediscover and dramatize the fact that education is a process rather than a product, that it exists in a human commitment to do whatever is necessary to reach another person. It is an old lesson that is forever new."


The author presents a model of analysis of change in Peruvian elites and the corresponding creation of three peasant organizations--the National Federation of Peruvian Peasants (FENCAP) sponsored by The Popular American Revolutionary Movement (APRA), the Association of Leagues of Advanced Peruvian Peasants (ALPACA) sponsored by Acción Popular, and the Institute of Rural Education (IER) sponsored by the Catholic Church. She describes the extensive non-formal educational activities in these three "reformist agrarian" groups that seek to work within the system to develop linkages between the modernizing peasant and the national system.

The authors report on experiments seeking to identify factors pertinent to reading instruction, to the creation of an instrument for predicting success in learning to read, and to a study of the Initial Teaching Alphabet as a teaching method for disadvantaged adult illiterates.


Focusing on 6,710 adults in 31 low socioeconomic North Carolina communities, this study examined levels of educational and job-training participation in relation to selected personal and situational characteristics. Personal interviews elicited data on age, sex, race, marital status, employment status, family income, educational level, place of upbringing, current residence, qualities desired in one's job, and willingness to move to get a good job, as well as past and current participation and interest in future participation. The following were some major findings: (a) about one fifth of the adults had had some form of non-formal adult education or job training, and about two thirds expressed an interest in future participation; (b) participation orientation was negatively related to family income and age, slightly higher for women than men, slightly higher among nonwhites than whites, and higher for those with nine through eleven years of education than for higher or lower levels, and (c) urban dwellers and urban-reared adults tended to be more likely to participate in non-formal educational programs than their rural counterparts.


This study, based on 25 years of experience and a questionnaire survey of Adult Education administrators in thirty U.S. cities and authored by the then Supervisor of Americanization and Adult Elementary Education in the New York State Department of Education, offers a good
example of the principles and methodology in vogue at the end of the period when U.S. adult basic education was chiefly concerned with acculturating and assimilating the foreign born.


The author defines terms and examines differences between development, comparative, and international educators. He suggests that the latter two can help the former be a more effective interventionist in his efforts to introduce change in existing societies. He argues that the world is rapidly becoming a total system with hosts of subsystems, including nations and other kinds of collectivities that cut across national boundaries. Thus, "the idea of isolating, studying, and even comparing educational minority-group sub-systems cross-nationally becomes relevant to the interests of the international development education. . . . It is suggested that black society and black education, both formal and non-formal, can be isolated on a number of levels for the purpose of research and that the problems revealed may parallel those in other areas where poverty, racial, and cultural segregation are factors in education." The book contains in Section II, "Black Education and Black Society in the U.S.: A Bibliography for Development Educators" (pp. 19-52).


This project investigated a way in which early intervention by means of non-formal education into the lives of babies might break the poverty cycle. Major objectives were to find out whether the use of disadvantaged para-professional women as "parent educators" of indigent mothers of infants and young children enhanced the development of the children and increased the mother's competence and sense of self-worth. Parent educators, each assigned to a graduate-student supervisor, received five weeks of intensive preservice training and one day of in-service training weekly. The major treatment variable was instruction of the mother by the parent educator in stimulation exercises once a week, in the home, on a regular
basis. (Exercises consisted of a systematic series of perceptual-motor-auditory-tactile-kinesthetic inputs based upon a review of the theory and research on cognitive and affective development in the earliest years.) At the end of the first year, children whose mothers had been involved in the project are claimed to be superior to control children, as measured by the Griffiths Mental Development Scales and on the series material designed as teaching materials for the project. Also reported is that at the end of the second year children whose mothers had been in the project from the beginning or whose mothers entered the program when their child was one year of age were superior on the series material to control children.

The spurious assumption underlying this research to "break the poverty cycle" is that the behavior of poor people, rather than economic disadvantage and societal mechanisms, is the root cause of poverty, that if poor people could only be taught to think and behave according to middle-class standards, poverty will disappear.


This empirical study used not only formal interviews, questionnaires, and attitude surveys but also observations and informal interviews to evaluate the internal workings of a non-formal secretarial and clerical skill training program for nonwhite working-class women. Most data came from over 1,000 two- to five-minute observations of trainees during the on the job phase of training. Additional observations were made in a classroom on company premises, where trainees received formal instruction during the morning. Results of 1,129 random observations of work-area activities revealed that trainees spent 69 percent of their time doing little (running errands, taking breaks, being idle, and so on) that contributed to skill development. Attention was also given to such aspects and influences as recruitment and selection procedures; to the social, legal, political, and economic environment of the training program, to race relations and other interactions among trainees and between them and teachers; and to attitudes of the training supervisor. Convincing arguments are set forth for restructuring this program and others like it.
TARGET LEARNER POPULATIONS


Gaber relates how students from Northeastern Illinois State College started a non-formal storefront reading center to help working-class members of a Spanish-speaking community learn English. Most English students are between 20 and 30 years old and have recently arrived from Mexico, Puerto Rico, or Central America. They work in nearby factories and study three or four nights a week at the Center. Motivation is high; Aqui Estoy people explain that they are willing to study evenings after a day's work because "I am learning English for my future, for my job, to better my family." English is viewed by staff and students as an aid to make life simpler. Spanish is not degraded in any way and is frequently spoken in class as all but one of the five volunteer teachers are bilingual. This project presents an interesting example of high student motivation and program success in second-language learning when the new learning is extremely functional to individual adaptation to a challenging new environment.


Four non-formal education projects were tested with a sample of 1,815 welfare clients in New Jersey, New York, and California. Instructors were certified teachers, college graduates, and high-school graduates. The only significant difference in gain score was found in higher results when high-school graduates taught, which suggests that the ability to relate to students as individuals and personality and attitude factors on the part of high school graduates made the difference. This well-designed action research project would be useful for anyone teaching evaluation-research and action-research techniques.


The document is the result of research conducted on fourteen Indian reservations and one settlement in the Southwest, Midwest, West, and Pacific Northwest by Illinois State University in summer 1970. Some 124 Indians were interviewed, many of whom were leaders and participants in various Red Power organizations.
The dominant impression to emerge from the research was that Indians have become very aware that they, collectively, can materially transfigure their own lives for the better. They have also become aware that other racial and ethnic groups have culturally expressive institutions. Indians have been lacking detectable political power and have been unable to control the education of their own children; consequently they have gravitated to the brink of cultural extinction. It is reported that the recent vigilance of the Indian springs from a disconcerting realization that he must now mobilize every vestige of power to provide for this cultural continuity. The document concludes that the concepts of Red Power and of educational renaissance, especially of the non-formal type are both requisite to the regeneration of American Indian culture.


The authors examine the function of formal schooling as an interface institution in Mexico and its role in perpetuating the dominance of national cultural (i.e., mestizo) and political elites. They compare U.S. inner-city school systems (i.e., black) with Mexican rural schools and note that formal school systems in both countries are interface institutions that serve primarily to further the aims of the superordinate cultural group and that teachers play key roles both as sources of identity formation for the children and by creating social distance by rejecting subordinate cultural values and behavior. They suggest that teachers in interface institutions who usually are members of, or identify with, the superordinate groups should be made aware of the importance of their feelings to their own culture and that of their pupils and the distance between them. They suggest that the non-formal sensitivity training techniques for adult reeducation being developed by the National Training Laboratory seem admirably suited to this task. The authors conclude that "children are willing to learn many disagreeable tasks when their adult models are positive affective figures and perhaps herein lies an exit from the ghetto's vicious circle."

This provocative article well illustrates how schooling in societies with plural cultures functions both in terms of structure and process to maintain gross inequalities. The authors, however, do not tell us exactly how the
sensitization of teachers will result in altered "power domains" or in basic structural changes. Nor do they draw what might seem an obvious conclusion, i.e., that local control by disadvantaged dominated ethnic groups and the use of teachers from such groups might well offer greater possibilities for "positive affective figures" than the continued use of middle-class teachers, be they white or black, sensitized or unsensitized.


Using a sample of 50 program completers and 50 program dropouts, all black women, this study investigates personal and participant characteristics of 1,307 Chicago welfare recipients (largely women) who have been students in the Hilliard Adult Education Center during 1965-68. Data presented covers age, sex, marital and family status (including legitimate and illegitimate children), birthplace, residence, employment history, educational level, reasons for leaving public school, length of time on public assistance, interests and hobbies, placement test scores, health and child-care problems, and attitudes toward the program. The principal findings are that program completers and dropouts differed significantly on placement test scores, health and child-care problems, and perception of program purposes but not on aspirations for their children's education; that completers showed greater program satisfaction than dropouts; that completers and dropouts did not differ significantly in attitudes toward themselves and fellow students (generally good) or toward teachers, school and public aid counselors, and caseworkers but did differ somewhat on perceived reasons why they were referred to the program.

This approach to preschool education of the "disadvantaged" used a teacher-training program that was developed only after each component of the program had been empirically tested. Teachers were retrained through course work and workshops to teach disadvantaged preschool children. These teachers then taught mothers and older siblings of disadvantaged families the skills and knowledge necessary to instruct the preschool child both in the home and in the school setting. Karnes concludes that pre- and posttest scores on standardized tests indicated that preschool children who participated in the projects made gains comparable to those made by children taught by a professional staff. Research findings were incorporated into ongoing demonstration classes at the University of Illinois. The classes provided practicum experiences for students in a leadership-training program, observation facilities for teacher-training students in elementary and special education, the basis for workshops involving teachers and administrators from local communities, and guidelines for junior college personnel interested in developing nonformal training programs for paraprofessionals.


The term "gatekeepers" in the context of this study is used to describe an individual who acts as a link between Spanish Americans and the urban culture system by introducing Spanish Americans to situations in which they can become socialized to American urban roles. A sample of 73 gatekeepers in the city of Denver, Colorado, was selected on a reputational basis, and each selected gatekeeper was asked about his helping activities in relation to each of the following nine social roles: worker, dweller, church member, manager of funds, patient, welfare client, organization member, legal client, and mass consumer. In addition, each gatekeeper was asked to cite other individuals whom he utilized in carrying out gatekeeping activities, thus establishing a crossreference of other gatekeepers. Cluster analysis was used to isolate fifteen cliques formed by the cross-citation of the gatekeepers. Kurtz concludes that the informal nature of the identified gatekeeping system would be enhanced by bringing influential gatekeepers together as a panel of leaders to form a central gatekeeping station. Gatekeepers might also be used.
TARGET LEARNER POPULATIONS

in planning and implementing non-formal educational programs for and with ethnic minority groups.


The editors present 43 articles on problems and procedures and on techniques and materials; a very comprehensive source book.


This volume of four papers -- the first in a series of three volumes on urban education -- is concerned with more effectively tying both formal and non-formal education programs with employment that is both productive and satisfying.


The author explains why American Indian perceptions of the health and medical programs of the white culture are important for the U.S. Public Health Service in its efforts through non-formal and other educational programs, to raise the Indian level of health to that of the general population. Vast differences between the American Indian, as represented by the Navajo, and the non-Indian are found in language, customs, cultural patterns, health concepts, and social organizations; therefore, overcoming cultural differences as well as increasing health facilities will be necessary. Mico suggests that a long-term health-education campaign in schools and community is essential before the Navajo individual will be able to perceive American medicine in a manner that will contribute to the maintenance of his own health.

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This article reviews the present status of occupational education, defined as career education in post-high-school programs that prepare men and women for technical and semiprofessional jobs in government, private industry, and health fields. It concludes that occupational education is neglected in the black community but is crucial to its development and self-sufficiency and that "the public schools have proved incapable of doing the job." The article suggests that, because the status-striving of a depressed group is often more important than the striving for economic returns, "blacks have often been reluctant to enter lower status occupations."

This paper identifies key factors that have promoted participation of the poor ("resident participation") in community-development programs through group action and community decision-making processes and describes several techniques that Community Action Program (CAP) grantees have used successfully to enhance such participation.

Paulston questions "under what conditions have teachers been most effective or least effective in identifying and articulating community needs and in stimulating constructive response?" A quasi-systems and case-study approach is used to analyze Peruvian programs (Nuclear Indian schools, Summer Institute of Linguistic bilingual schools, Fe y Alegría, and Crecer) and their in-service training components, which have attempted with varying success to prepare and use teachers for directed communal change. The material is organized into three sections: a description of sociocultural change processes and problems in the highly pluralistic Peruvian setting; an analysis of the four programs' aims, organization, activities, including in-service training activities, and outcomes; and some
generalizations based on the evidence of extreme cases presented.

Paulston scores the four programs on a continuum from less-successful to more-successful using eight key variables in program outcomes (i.e., high relative scores are associated with less-successful programs and vice versa) as follows: the degree of institutional interfacing between the organization promoting community development and the target community; external (i.e., non-national) inputs as a percentage of total program inputs; degree of perceived sociocultural status distance between change agents and target population; degree to which community-development objectives could be viewed as a potential threat to elites; degree to which teacher's academic and change agent roles conflict; discrepancy between community-development objectives and actual resources available; discrepancy between availability and actual utilization of local economic and noneconomic incentives for community-development programs; and ratio of agency to community planning and decision inputs.

Paulston suggests that efforts to use the educational system to further community-development objectives in plural societies will have a greater possibility of success with agencies, with teachers, and with target populations presenting relatively minimal interfacing between superordinate and subordinate sectors and that the non-formal educational sector, being apart from the formal school bureaucracy, may well offer the most promise for education-centered directed-change efforts.


In this biting study of a St. Louis housing project, the author examines a variety of non-formal educational programs for ghetto blacks (Head Start, community centers, job camps, retraining programs, and so on) and dismisses them as more tinkering. His thesis is that the basic issue is not socialization or resocialization but poverty. Simply put, poor people need money and that means that rich people must do with less. Rainwater also calls for a radicalization of sociologists and for a return of ideology: "Social scientists have a great deal to tell us about the life styles of various class groupings . . . but the larger societal mechanisms that produce the underclass have been largely ignored."

See especially Chapter 5, "Issues in Training the Indigenous Nonprofessional," where a number of general considerations for non-formal training of the "indigenous nonprofessional drawn from lower socioeconomic groups" are presented. Numerous examples drawn from the literature are used to support the authors' strategy.


This report summarizes and evaluates non-formal migrant education programs in Colorado. The booklet contains sections on "exemplary" programs, number of children served, grade placement, teacher-pupil ratio, interrelationships with the regular Title I program, coordination with other migrant programs, in-service staff training, non-public-school participation, dissemination of materials, parental and community involvement program effectiveness, special area programs, construction and equipment, supportive services, program integration, staff utilization, new programs, and critiques of program. The author concludes somewhat optimistically that in general the programs are functioning well but selective improvements could and should be made.


Shriver proposes the registration and testing of all young Americans (male and female) at the age of 16 to identify needs for remedial programs of physical fitness, academic education, and motivational training. He cites the Job Corps success in rehabilitating some 100,000 youngsters of an average age of 17 1/2 years and claims that such success could be achieved with all remaining 900,000 disadvantaged American youth. The establishment of a national and continuing census of America's youth resources coupled with a national referral network would
find all those youth never tested by the armed forces, those who live in isolation and poverty. "Once the census identifies these young people whose skills are below those required to cope with existing manpower needs, the national referral network would take over. The lost legion would be sought out, placed in both public and private training programs, and perhaps in some of the 5 million new jobs that could exist through public employment."


This insightful article, adapted from the author's book Crisis in Black and White, first reviews problems of current welfare programs--they are obsessed with case work and individual pathology and not the real troubles of slums arising from lack of opportunity and a social system that denies dignity and status to the individual, and they encourage dependency and apathy and do things for people instead of with people.

Then Silberman describes a community-development strategy based on the self-help methods of Saul Alinski and the application of this strategy in a Chicago urban ghetto. Alinski's method is based on community organization for group action against grievances. "The community organizer," Alinski writes, "digs into a morass of resignation, hopelessness and despair and works with the local people in articulating (or 'rubbing raw') their resentments. His job is to arrange non-formal education sessions, to agitate to the point of conflict, to formulate grievances and persuade the people to speak out, to hope, and to move"--in short, to develop and harness the power needed to change the prevailing patterns. Silberman concludes that Woodlawn remains a slum with high unemployment, lack of education, family disorganization, crime, and poor health; yet, it is a slum where "a new sense of energy and possibility is at work." A new conception of social welfare has "begun to take form in America!"


This experimental program of directed social change, undertaken in nine Mississippi counties by the Cooperative Extension Service with special funds provided by the
Federal Extension Service, tests the hypothesis that the creation and use of systemic links in extension work will result in desired changes in homemaking practices among low-income families. The experiment is based on the assumption that black women who live in the target communities and are themselves in the low-income stratum can communicate more effectively with other low-income black housewives than can professionally trained extension home economists. County extension staff identified likely prospects for the role of systemic links, recruited those persons, provided intensive non-formal training experiences in certain homemaking practices, and then instructed them to initiate contacts with client system families and establish themselves in the role of teacher and counselor. The authors conclude that positive measures of recommended practice adoption by client system homemakers indicates that the creation and use of systemic links promises to be an effective procedure in programs of non-formal education for directed social change.


The author describes the project's aims, selection procedures, course content, and outcomes. She claims trainees found the course satisfying because the subject matter was adapted to local needs, because a nonpatronizing approach was used, and because husbands were involved in the program.


The author views Community mental health programs as part of the white response to the increasing militancy of minority people who inhabit the ghetto. Three interrelated questions are the focus of the analysis. First, does the "mental health" effort serve to divert community resources from more meaningful efforts? Second, does employment of neighborhood leaders in jobs as paraprofessionals or teachers in non-formal education programs to alienate these leaders from their community, thereby weakening the neighborhood power base? Third, are
federally funded programs free to confront the basic oppressive institutions in our society? On all three counts the author concludes that community mental health serves a repressive function by diverting community energies from their primary task, resecuring their own freedom. He argues that the intropsychic approach in an oppressed community mystifies, pacifies, and continues the oppression of the individual.


This is a positive, popular account of what has happened at the Bureau of Indian Affairs’ controversial Rough Rock School for Navajos after some four years of local control by the Navajo community. The author claims that local control has enabled the school to respond better to both the formal and non-formal educational needs of Navajo youth and adults and to become a more-effective and respected community resource in general. No evidence is presented to support this claim.


Although this excellent review of research on the educational consequences of desegregation is primarily concerned with formal school settings, it also contains much information on aspiration and self-concept and community factors in ethnic groups that will be of interest to the student of non-formal education.


Welsh reports the results of the Milwaukee Project, begun in 1964, a five-year effort at behavioral modification of the very young. A team--representing the fields of psychology, psychiatry, education, speech therapy, and social work--provided non-formal educational programs and remedial services to some two dozen children “from families of low-income, nearly illiterate parents from a Milwaukee slum yielding a much higher rate of retardation than any other area of the city.” Findings show that children two months and older, in the “active stimulating” group, averaged 33 IQ points higher than children in a
control group and that children in the experimental program were learning at a rate exceeding that of their age peers generally. Welsh concludes that this kind of research is commanding increased interest among those who look to educational research for socially relevant results, but that many questions remain to be answered: will children in the experimental group regress, as usually is the case, if the intervention techniques work equally well on older children or on the parents alone; and, even if a $400,000 program for 25 children is effective, "What is the minimum intervention that will achieve the same results?" One is tempted to suggest meaningful employment plus accessible child-care facilities as an alternative "behavioral modification" strategy. Early intervention, or what many blacks have come to call "cradle robbing," is for both ethical and practical reasons a highly questionable strategy.


A new type of Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC) job station was tested by the National Commission on Resources for Youth, Inc. The objective of this demonstration project was to explore the feasibility and value of establishing a "model" non-formal, in-school NYC program whereby disadvantaged youth would be hired to work as tutors for younger children. The program model, "Youth Tutoring Youth," put 14- and 15-year-old underachievers to work in several schools in Philadelphia and Newark as tutors for elementary-school children reading at below-grade level. Subjective evaluation of the program has shown that when underachieving youth are given work responsibilities as tutors, both they and the tutees make progress in gaining the following: a sense of work responsibility, an appreciation of learning, improved literary skills, and motivation to work and stay in school.

Other items related to the Ethnic and Disadvantages area are

1110, 1111, 1115, 1118, 1119, 1135, 1136, 1141, 1311, 1312, 2118, 2139, 3111, 3603, 3604, 3607, 3609, 4209, 4308, 4311, 4503, 4505, 4529, 4534, 4701, 4702, 4705, 4710, 5221, 5224, 5225, 5519, 5814, 6102, 6103, 6105, 6208, 6709, 7103, 7116, 7122, 7145, 7163, 7209, 7303
4700. OTHERS


This experiment in non-formal education lasted sixteen weeks, with 288 inmates participating in some part of the program. In educational achievement, the total group advanced 2.1 grades, and in reading achievement, 1.7 grades. Among the 108 inmates who attended the entire sixteen weeks, the figures are 2.5 and 2.1, respectively.


This is a longitudinal study of AID-sponsored students in U.S. educational programs. Participants have been trained individually and in groups for varying periods of time in a wide range of subjects, e.g., agriculture, public administration, industry, education, health, and labor. Training is both formal, in academic higher education programs, and non-formal, of an on-the-job nature. Short-term observations and highly specialized training have also been used.


A working party studied existing arrangements in Britain for non-formal on-the-job training of overseas nationals, assessed the contributions being made to British export trade, compared the schemes with those in other countries, and recommended various changes.

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NON-FORMAL EDUCATION


As a result of the growing revolt against the "over-academicization" of ministerial education in which future clergy are kept in schools for three or more years, there is today a strong trend toward a new mix of formal and non-formal clergy training activities linked with colleges, in "community-based" seminaries, and in others. Fiske notes that the current financial squeeze has forced many seminaries to consider if they want to train pastors or educate religious scholars. He concludes that the liberal theological institutions and their ideas have little affected American culture, and that the kind of faith that Union Theological students respect is that of the Berrigans, "but that didn't come out of the academies, it came from the grass roots up."


Formal schools at the college and university level have not been able to assimilate very many deaf students. Only 3 percent of graduating deaf high-school students move into higher institutions established for the nondeaf. This article describes the program and potential of the National Technical Institute for the Deaf, founded in 1965 to prepare deaf youth for successful employment by providing opportunities for non-formal technical education and training, continuing higher education for those who qualify, and an environment that facilitates and encourages students to achieve a higher degree of personal development and a sense of social responsibility.


Hann describes in detail a variety of in-service executive retreat programs offered by U.S. corporations seeking to "revitalize their executives." These programs, offered by "about 40 percent of the companies in the Fortune 500 typically offer intensive non-formal educational programs, recreational activities, and planning sessions in isolated rural settings for periods of from several days to several months."

Kramer describes participation in a Parent Effectiveness Training Class (P. E. T.), largely based on the work of Dr. Thomas Gordon in his book, Parent Effectiveness Training (New York: P. H. Wyden, 1970). As an alternative to either Spock or therapy, parents who have problems "relating to their teenagers" can enroll for eight weekly two-hour sessions at a cost of $65 per parent. Using role-playing techniques, parents are taught to cope with their own anxieties, to help their children define their problems so they may be able to solve them themselves, and, quite simply, to encourage honest recognition of feelings and to draw children into the decision-making process. She suggests that the most valuable aspect of P. E. T. for parents is the group experience itself as a partial answer to loss of the extended family, the sense of continuity in life, a stable community "in which everyone knew the right way to do everything, including how to bring up children and transmit that knowledge from generation to generation."


This study, prompted by a concern for the ineffectiveness of prison education programs to improve the educational level of inmates, was conducted for the purpose of investigating the effects of short-term or extended tasks and financial incentives on the educational activity and achievement of the young prison inmates. Financial incentive was found to be associated with increased educational activity and achievement, and educational activity to be positively correlated with changes in achievement.


This essay examines how education might contribute to the amelioration of problems associated with rapid urbanization in Latin America. The author reviews
speculative and empirical works on urban growth and describes Capacitacion Popular, an illustrative urban adult-education program in Colombia that seeks "to effect changes in values to favor life in cities." McGinn suggests that, because "nothing has been done in formal education to develop programs that would inculcate values specific to the demands of life in cities in Latin America," non-formal programs offer the most realistic means of providing marginalized people, either migrant or urban native, the means to learn the values needed to participate in modern urban society. He notes that such programs now exist in Chile, Peru, Venezuela, and other Latin American countries. He argues that the basic problem is one of creating a new society, not one of integrating an underdeveloped minority into a "progressive [sic] and modernizing majority."

The author concludes that such a "new society" will be built "as all elements of the population are enabled to participate in the running of the old" and that from the existing social order will emerge new forms as the genius of the people is called forth in the challenge of meeting the problems of the "city." Unfortunately, the author provides no case material or other data in the essay to support his somewhat homiletic conclusions.


Adult education is a fairly recent development in Japan and is received largely by women and young adults in rural areas. Nuita discusses altered demand factors following enfranchisement of women in 1945, changes in women's life cycle and home life, and their increased employment. The author describes programs as offered by the state and local public bodies, by private bodies, and by mass communication media. Nuita reports findings of a recent sample survey in which 3,000 men and women expressed a desire for greater opportunities to study, "especially subjects dealing with culture, their work, the enrichment of their lives, and home management." Regretfully, the author concludes that the demand for adult education in Japan far outstrips existing facilities and possibilities available.

4713. SEATTLE/KING COUNTY ALCOHOL SAFETY PROGRAM. "Problem Drinking Driver/Court Referred Action for

This innovative behavior-modification program called "PDD/CRASH" provides thirty days of intensive non-formal education and group dynamics for problem-drinking drivers after their second offense. It seeks "to change the problem drinker's attitude towards his problem and towards his drinking as it relates to his driving." The assumption is that thirty days in the Program will be more effective than thirty days in jail, which do "no one any good."


Stein presents a detailed account of the non-formal training of volunteers and their effectiveness in the field.


Daytop Village is a drug-cure cooperative, a therapeutic community for drug addicts run by former addicts who have graduated from the Village's non-formal educational program. The author describes cognate communities such as Synanon, Phoenix House, and Daytop as educational movements outside the formal school system, as programs concerned with the treatment of persons who have broken down and found themselves socially defined as invalids and/or deviants. "They are agencies of resocialization, a fact that distinguishes them from the normal school.
system." Sugarman suggests that "therapeutic committees and schools are alike, however, in that both are supposed to help their members develop new social identities and the ability to live with them." For the student of socialization processes, therefore, "the therapeutic community is a most valuable laboratory where he may expect to see these processes operating in their most intensified form."


The author sees the basic function non-formal education for farmers as widening the scope for decision-making because it broadens a person's ideas of the "possible"; it adds new tastes and stimulates motivation. It comes, moreover, in many forms—as general education, basic education, or as literacy and developmental education. He concludes that non-formal adult-extension education and community-development programs will continue to bear the brunt of transmitting new developmental knowledge to farmers in the less-developed countries.
5100. AGRICULTURAL


A study was made of the relationship between attendance by tribal peasant farmers and leaders at one-week courses in agricultural development held at Domboshawa Training Centre and of subsequent changes in the Mtoko district of Rhodesia. The broad aim of the non-formal courses was to enable tribesmen to gain a better understanding of the causes of erosion due to lack of conservation farming. Six "Headman" areas received no training and no extension follow-up; three received training only; and three received training and follow-up. Follow-up extension work emphasized the introduction of new crops (cotton and sorghum) and improving the basic practices in existing crops. Although there are acknowledged weaknesses in the methods of sample selection and data collection, results suggest that the training courses played an important part in initiating increased mechanical conservation (contouring), improved agricultural practices (use of fertilizers), and problem-solving, reflected in group or community projects. The trend was, moreover, much more definite in the three areas that received extension follow-up.

A study was made of 36 people from the United States and five developing nations (Pakistan, India, Ceylon, Indonesia, and the Philippines) assembled for a special six-month rice-production training course. The course was designed to produce agricultural technicians who would introduce the International Rice Research Institute's new high-yielding rice strains to the rural areas of their home countries. It was shown how a multinational group goes through a sequence of change in attitudes and behavior and how these changes introduce stresses for both students and instructors.


Kincaid reports on findings about the progress that Nigeria has made in the development of training institutions and programs at the non-degree-level and about major problems that must be solved if non-formal training programs of the future are to evolve more effectively and efficiently. He emphasizes the kinds of programs established to meet the growing need for different levels and kinds of trained intermediate level manpower in agriculture and related subjects. Kincaid concludes that Nigeria has made notable progress in the development of non-degree-level education and training programs in the non-formal sector.


The author explores the fundamental elements of extension education and its role in the process of change. He argues that for programs of change it is usually necessary for those in charge to take the offensive and provide "true leadership." The three basic elements that constitute the core of extension education are man himself, physiological and psychological; man's environment, physical, economic, and social; and devices created by man for improving his welfare. The object of an extension agency is to help farm people close the gap between their actual living conditions and the standards specified by the program's objectives. Extension is a man-created device for helping masses of people through non-formal education.
Leagans suggests that in organized programs of rural development professional workers constitute the connecting link between the people and the institutions created to advance economic and social change. The success of the program largely rests upon the character, quality, philosophy, training, and skill of these workers. He concludes that everyone engaged in programs of rural development should clearly understand the three basic elements at the core of extension education—i.e., research, training, and extension education. One might caution, however, that it is dangerous to imply that the success of an agricultural-extension program, or any directed-change program for that matter, largely rests upon the change agents. Other factors, such as transportation, markets, fellow farmers' actions, prices, and so on may also play crucial roles.


The author describes a unique program conceived in 1963 when Kasetsart University, Thailand's leading agricultural institution of higher learning, in cooperation with the Royal Thai government, decided to establish a long-term, small-scale farm-management program in a remote area of the northeast. The concept of recruiting and training a team of young university graduates specifically for the purpose of improving agricultural conditions in a small, compact, and remote group of villages was viewed with skepticism even by the officials who conceived the scheme. Nevertheless, Kasetsart University went ahead with its plan as soon as the Asia Foundation agreed to support the cost of advanced training for the team and to cover certain basic costs of the project, excluding salaries, for a period of two years.

The team, consisting of a lecturer in agricultural economics, a farm-management technician, an agronomist, a plant pathologist, and a livestock technician, selected Tambol Wangchai as the most-suitable community of the many surveyed for the purposes of the project. Tambol Wangchai in 1964 was in a state of pristine underdevelopment. As far as anyone knew, it had never been the beneficiary of outside assistance, not even a visit from a provincial rural-development officer. Team members had little difficulty in persuading most of the farmers to cooperate in the scheme, and gradually farmers came in increasing numbers to obtain the advice of the young technicians on a wide variety of farm problems. Non-formal instruction was
offered, demonstration plots were established, the services of various government agricultural facilities were enlisted, and the help of several local businessmen was obtained. Lucas reports that a whole new world was opened to the farmers of Tambol Wangchai—they began to be informed about such matters as current crop prices, shipping costs, and other subjects on which they had only rudimentary information. He concludes that the farmers responded positively; they formed their own farm association and obtained new knowledge on many aspects of rural life.

Program costs are not mentioned, nor is any plan for a follow-up study of retention of change proposed.


With the green revolution and new techniques of agricultural production, farmers' training and education has to be geared to dramatic changes of production. The author discusses in detail the methodology that he feels should be used in this regard. The proposed farmer's training and education includes what is known as "functional literacy," which is different from ordinary literacy in two ways. First, instead of using the usual primers, the learner becomes acquainted with the words that he has actually to use in his everyday farming life. Some documents regarding legal matters concerning revenue laws, for example, could be used as the primers or at least a selective vocabulary should be made out of them. Second, the learner has to start using the skills of reading and writing while he is still learning them from day to day. He should not have to wait until the end of six months to be able to read the names of the fertilizers, seeds, and so on. The author also proposes intensive non-formal training for the farmers and suggests that the trainer should approach the farmer as an individual producer. He notes that the incentive of a higher price has proved sufficient to motivate the Indian farmer to change traditional practices.


Moris argues that a week's course at one of the Kenya Farmer Training Centers "was more effective in changing
practices than was all the field extension that had gone before" and that training has been superior to extension as a non-formal educational mode. Some data is presented to support his contention.


The author contends that Latin American farmers, in contrast to the negative picture offered by conventional wisdom, actually seek information. He says that "even those on small peasant holdings appear to have a considerable desire to produce more efficiently and are interested in how this can be done." He contends that non-formal educational efforts to supply such information are most seriously circumscribed not by farmer apathy but by the conservative nature of urban-oriented change agents and administrators. This is a provocative, insightful article based on direct observation and long experience in the field.


The author comments on problems of developing effective agricultural extension services and related training programs in third-world countries, where agriculture as a profession has relatively low prestige and where farmers have little confidence in culturally different agencies and agents seeking change from above through demonstration and non-formal instruction.


This book gives an interesting historical account of the early context of the Cooperative Agricultural Extension system of the United States. The authors study the history and function of extension work and its results, explore the
NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

psychology of extension teaching and various teaching methods, and review the training of extension workers. They unrealistically conclude that a movement may be beginning that is destined to make agriculture for the first time in the history of the world "the envied occupation."


The author reports on a study of the effects of social factors on changes in farm practices in Australia and how and from whom farmers obtain new methods and information. Three considerations are presented, as follows: the mechanism that generates and changes values, beliefs, and attitudes in a membership reference group is interaction between the members and between them and some outside group, in this case extension workers; in order to understand the process by which norms are changed within the type of reference group, instruments are needed to measure both quantity and the quality of interaction that has taken place; it may be useful to view the interaction between a rural reference group and extension personnel as interaction between different reference groups with different values, beliefs, and attitudes toward the subject matter of the interaction which frequently leads to a breakdown in effective communication.

If the efficiency of agricultural extension for the majority of farmers is to be increased, then working with rural reference groups may be an effective way to do it. When working with rural reference groups, extension should aim to promote a large quantity of high-quality interaction on topics in which a change in behavior is required. There needs to be a recognition that the extension agent and the farming group may well have differing values and beliefs about topics of mutual concern and that this may lead to a breakdown in communication and directly influence learning in non-formal educational situations.

5115. WARD, Gordon H. "Integrating Research, Extension and Cooperatives for Agricultural Development." Paper presented at Conference on Science and Technology in Developi
Countries at the American University of Beirut, November 27-December 2, 1967. Pp. 16.

The author's thesis is that agricultural development grows out of the application of more-productive technology by farmers and that integrated scientific research, non-formal extension education of farmers, and cooperative services are the mechanisms that generate a rising rate of increase in farm production. He reviews how the liaison organization between the agricultural-research scientists and the farmers transmits improved technology to the farmers and discusses three organizations seeking to improve technology for agricultural development as follows: agricultural research stations, agricultural extension service, and multifunction farmer cooperatives. Using the Middle East as a model, the author argues that one of the primary objectives of organizing science and technology for agricultural development in developing countries is to increase agricultural production and that an effective organization to accomplish this demands teamwork among research scientists, extension personnel, the staff of local cooperatives, and farmers. He concludes, however, that there has been little teamwork among these four contributory groups in the Middle East and that this lack of integration in the area shows up as one of the important reasons for the failure of farm production to increase more rapidly than population in recent years.


Wharton sees the basic function of farmer education as providing greater scope for decision-making by broadening a person's ideas of the "possible," i.e., it adds new tastes and stimulates motivation. He discusses farmer-oriented educational program options and concludes that extension education, community development, and related non-formal educational programs will continue to bear the brunt of transmitting new developmental knowledge to farmers.

Other items related to the Agricultural area are

1106, 1134, 1238, 1302, 1304, 1306, 1317, 2116, 2137, 2216, 3202, 3205, 3206, 4107, 4112, 4119, 4613, 4720, 5209, 5223, 5406, 6205, 6501, 6502, 6505, 6507, 6509, 6512, 6515, 6518, 6519, 6521, 6522, 6624, 6628, 6721, 7226
5200. CIVIC AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT


Amyot presents background information concerning the "unique" features of Ban Nonlan, which include geographic identification, demography, formal administration or structure, informal association, leadership and influence social integration, the economy, and individual and group expectations. He also relates development theory and problems of implementation to these unique features and makes specific suggestions concerning non-formal educational inputs in the particular village being examined and in "developing" villages in general.


In Part I, Batten examines recent trends in the scope, organization, and methods of community-development training and notes emphasis placed on human relations and sensitizing training that aims at influencing peoples' attitudes and relationships. Part II considers problems of organization and method in theoretical terms, while Part III examines a number of conclusions in light of the author's community-development training course at the University of London Institute of Education. The book draws heavily on the author's field work during the 1940s and 1950s in community-development staff training in what was then called British Guiana. This is a practical, if somewhat dated, handbook.


"This is a report of ideas, opinions and reactions of one person who has worked in Africa, South America and the United States" in community-development projects. In anecdotal and general fashion, the author discusses pre-project survey and planning needs and operational problems and presents some examples of non-formal training programs.

This very comprehensive text and handbook presents a "community education" frame for local community and individual development. The authors are highly critical of the skepticism of social scientists concerning the plausibility of the self-help methods that the authors propose.


Holmberg explains the rationale, aims, and activities of the Cornell University intervention at Vicos, Peru, in the 1950s and describes a variety of non-formal educational activities begun to teach new skills and behaviors to the Indian community. For a more extensive account in Spanish of the controversial Vicos effort, see Holmberg, Vicos: Metodo y practica de antropologia aplicada (Lima: Editorial Estudios Andinos S.A., 1966) 172 pp., bibliography.


The concept of community development is analyzed in twelve papers covering such subjects as "Community Development," "The United National Experience in Community


Kaplan reviews methods used to evaluate community-development programs and presents a new approach utilizing the communication theory of community growth developed by Frank and Ruth Young at Cornell's Department of Rural Sociology. The model uses Guttman scales in seven substantive development areas applied at four different points of time. Movement of communities on these scales is used to ascertain the relative impact of the community-development program. Examples of the utility of this new evaluation method are demonstrated using data from the Philippine. This paper has considerable theoretical and practical value for anyone wishing to measure objectively change in communities following or accompanying, for example, a non-formal educational program.


Operating through 190 community centers and seven holiday camps, the Association since 1960 has offered a wide variety of non-formal educational programs to youth and adults. Kok concludes that such efforts at orientating and educating the masses toward national goals will be strengthened if all organizations with similar goals cooperate and coordinate their work.

This critical study, based on extensive staff interviews in both countries, makes an important contribution to community-development theory. Although it lacks specific responses from the program recipients, it is nevertheless discerning and issue-oriented. The author examines the problems created when governments and other officially sponsored community-development agencies intervene in community development and when programs take on the character of political movements and become involved in controversial issues and compete with political parties and institutions.

Kramer suggests that, if controlled by a politicized bureaucracy, community-development goals usually seek system maintenance and social control rather than individual and social change. Values of the sponsors, he claims, will then override the "felt needs" of the community and conflict-avoidance will become more valuable than conflict resolution. He further suggests that the more bureaucratization, professionalization, and specialization of interests in community development, the narrower will be the range of goals tolerated. He rightly points out as well that most major decisions on community matters are made at higher political levels. Thus, major community problems such as poverty, unemployment, poor housing, inadequate medical services, and so on cannot realistically be tackled by self-help methods. As the author indicates, most community-development efforts are in fact an escape from reality, a way of avoiding necessary changes in social policy. Moreover, he contends that, because community-development programs are often concerned with noncontroversial and peripheral matters, they run the danger of being "diversionary" by trivializing the collective efforts of the people.


The book traces the development of training schemes in India for community-development workers. It is divided into four parts that deal with origin and growth of "the Community Development Training Programme", problems
encountered and the process of attempted solution through trial and error, major reorganization of the initial program and the research facilities, and evaluation of what has been achieved. Launched in 1952, the program sought to raise farm production and income, to change the attitudes and outlook of the rural people, and to build a concept of social cohesion that went beyond family and caste. The program touched many aspects of life (literacy classes, sanitation, farming practices, improved roads, and so on). The basic unit on which the program hinges is the community-development block, comprising about 100 villages. Emphasis is placed on more non-formal training for new and old staff personnel through refresher training and ad hoc courses for certain categories of personnel so as to improve their professional competence.


The author presents, inter alia, accounts of a variety of non-formal educational efforts in community-action programs. Program outcomes are examined in light of the dynamics of community organization, rural social organization, and the realities and power and authority in a variety of community settings ranging from traditional to revolutionary.


The authors cite "the basic principles that must obtain if Public Health Education and Community Development programmes are really to serve the people to whom they are offered." Dr. Y. C. James Yen's advice is offered as illustrative:

Go to the people.
Live among them
Learn from them
Serve them
Plan with them
Start with what they know
Build with what they have.
Four U.S. case studies are then briefly examined, three of which are judged "success stories" and one a failure. The authors suggest that, "when basic principles are disregarded, perhaps through no fault of the worker responsible for guidance, when there are too many hurdles to cross too fast, benefits to the people are minimal." They conclude that violation of "educational principles" caused failure, yet their data indicate that this condition was merely a symptom, i.e., dominant members of local power structures "showed little real interest or understanding concerning community problems."


The author presents a discussion of how non-formal extension education and community development can contribute to solving basic development problems. He concludes that the first task of extension education and community development in underdeveloped regions is to help people develop confidence—confidence in themselves, in their fellow citizens, in living by making choices, and in knowledge as a tool for obtaining a more satisfying life.


This monograph reports the major research findings of a five-year non-formal education training project.


This study presents a thorough description of a rigorous community-development effort at Kuyo Chico, Peru, in which non-formal literacy programs in Quechua played an important part. A section on costs and benefits is included.

Paulston evaluates a number of community-development efforts in Peru and attempts to use teachers as non-formal educators and communal-change agents. The least-effective programs have been mestizo efforts in rural, indigenous communities. The most-effective programs have occurred in urban shantytowns where cholo (partially westernized Indians) teachers work with cholo students and parents in non-formal education and self-help programs viewed as nonthreatening by the mestizo superordinate minority.


This volume describes the goals, techniques, and achievements of the Intensive Village Development Programme after four years' activity in the Raipur district. The report is based on two studies; one is a survey of 36 Stage II villages and the other is a collection of case studies of six selected villages in the Raipur district in Madhya Pradesh. The innovation described in the reports is that the program was designed "to work with" both large and small farmers. The non-formal instruction and assistance provided was designed to be integrated into a total village development program, "a people-oriented program." Extension workers were concerned with production techniques, with the attitudes and reactions of farmers, and with the social, cultural, personal, and situational factors affecting adoption of new practices. The report concludes that "the experience is unique inasmuch as the adoption pattern observed in the villages differs very significantly from the well recognized pattern in which the adopters are usually classified into innovators, early adopters, early majority, late majority and laggards. In the experimental villages all farmers in a village community were helped to adopt new ideas and practices simultaneously within a short period of time; and most of them did so without undergoing the recognized stages in the adoption process."
Street describes the rationale and processes of an Office of Economic Opportunity program in rural Kentucky begun in 1965, using non-formal education to provide community-development services in fourteen community centers. He reports that the program is a mixture of success and failure, that people living in areas served by the centers became more "modern" in contrast to populations in areas not served by centers (measured attitude variables included "empathy, alienation, sociability, communicativeness, and 'openness to innovations.'"), and that the greater the participation, the greater the change that participants developed stronger identification with the larger society than did those not involved. Street concludes, however, that "indigenous factionalism" and "alienating provincialism" remain serious obstacles, that the most deprived (the target population) were little involved, that such programs are expensive and do not show very gratifying results, but that they are better than total neglect.

This work reports on an experimental, collaborative non-formal education project jointly sponsored by the Peruvian Ministry of Education and UNESCO. Located in one of the most remote and impoverished areas of Peru, the project seeks through a number of non-formal and formal educational activities to develop a more "progressive" outlook among the subjugated indigenous communities and a more "development-oriented" school system. It presents some interesting data on the local population: it is 98 percent agricultural, 75 percent illiterate (90 percent of whom are females), 45 percent monolingual Quechua; family income averages $104 annually; malnutrition is widespread; public services are nonexistent; and the rural population occupies a marginal position outside the highly stratified national sociocultural system. The zone, in sum, is a classic example of internal domination and the results of centuries of culture war between the dominant Hispanic culture and the subordinate indigenous culture. Although
the report notes that the problem of development is intimately related to socioeconomic and cultural problems and is not solely an educational problem; it suggests nevertheless that the Indians are powerless and impoverished because of their old customs — "the Cargos, the fiestas, the drinking and use of coca" — that keep them "poor and backward."


The authors discuss the Division of Community Education, established in 1949 — coincident with "operation bootstrap" — and review objectives, selection, the non-formal training of field workers, and activities in the field. The strongly humanitarian, transcendental philosophy underlying the Division is succinctly summed up in their expressed belief that "community development is an educational process . . . all else is secondary to it and must take its place as a reflection not as the end result. Community development — it is not better road, better beehives, pure water, or sanitary privies. It is something of the spirit and not material. It must reach into the deep, cultural patterns of people, examining them, and testing them as principles of faith. . . . It is a building within the hearts and minds of men. It is these things because without them it matters relatively little whether the road is paved or not. . . . It is these things because with them, all physical solutions follow in their proper order."


The author argues that the techniques and limitations of the community-development worker should be more clearly recognized, that the necessity for the community-development worker turning to technical experts for certain kinds of specialized help be admitted, and that the community-development worker accept the responsibility to
organize the unorganized, to transfer the decision-making process to the community, and to leave when he has done this and not become a permanent fixture in the client community. He stresses that community development is not something that a worker does but rather a process that a worker helps to bring about. To be successful, community development must become an interdisciplinary approach not only in its implementation but also in its theoretical formulation: "Basic Community Development work need not be expensive and can undoubtedly produce excellent results if it is based on the concept of organizing the people... to help themselves. Much more efficiently than by the itinerant CD expert, it can best be done by a truly resident, dedicated village organizer who has the confidence of the villagers and their leaders, and who works through them in their own way to solve problems that are really central."


Other items related to Civic and Community Development are

1134, 1225, 1227, 1317, 1318, 2116, 2118, 3219, 3307, 3509, 3604, 4130, 4303, 4304, 4307, 4310, 4623, 4717, 5116, 5304, 5913, 6204, 6303, 6603, 6606, 6615, 6626, 7142, 7151, 7210, 7238, 7301

5300. CONSUMER AND HOMEMAKING


This guide consists of papers presented at the 1968 national conference on consumer and homemaking education. Topics include Programs for In-School Youth; Programs for Out-of-School Youth and Adults; Ways of Working with Different Individuals, Agencies, and Institutions to Attain the Intent of the Law; Ancillary Services and Activities to Insure Quality in Homemaking Education Programs; and Evaluation of Programs. Also, four papers are appended, dealing with the topics of persons to be served in the inner-city, urban, and rural areas, consumer information needs of families, and the school’s role in consumer education.


The author attempts to show that whereas extension in the past has been wholly producer oriented, the farmer producing his crop and the women producing better food and garments, it is now moving toward a concern about consumers. Extension now has become more interested in people, in their development, knowledge, and attitudes. Illustrative U.S. extension services are surveyed and discussed. McArthur reviews recent training and teaching-aids development for non-formal family life education programs.


The author discusses how to get village women to adopt new thoughts and new ways. Case studies are presented about a women's training center that was established to provide four types of courses in homemaking and citizenship for village girls and women. In addition, the welfare staff conducts short training courses for married couples. Through various channels, including village clubs, committees, and training centers, the administration of Papua and New Guinea is working to raise the general standards of village life by spreading non-formal educational programs among the people.


The National Conference on Consumer and Homemaking Education was held to consider major challenges currently confronting the field. In light of four position papers presented on different aspects of consumer education, the conference recommended both expansion and redirection of consumer and homemaking education. To help achieve this, education programs should encourage home economics to give...
greater consideration to social and cultural conditions, especially in economically depressed areas, encourage professional leadership, and prepare youths and adults for the role or homemakers and wage earners. The topics covered include programs for in-school youths, programs for out-of-school youths and adults, instructional innovations, ways of working with agencies and institutions to attain the interest of law, and auxiliary services and activities useful in developing and evaluating homemaking education programs.


This review article reports and summarizes recent developments in the field in the United States and abroad in both formal and non-formal education programs and activities.


This handbook presents a set of guidelines to assist social-welfare educators and others concerned with developing training projects in their local areas. It summarizes the experience of the United Nations and related organizations with this type of non-formal educational activity.

Other items related to the Consumer and Homemaking area are

1227, 1317, 4222, 4630, 4712, 5518, 5814, 6509, 6202, 7210, 7306

5400. COOPERATIVES


The author examines cooperative origins and functioning in Tunisia and the mix of the political and developmental components in rural-development programs. He concludes that single-party regimes tend to place arbitrary limits on development in order to sustain party harmony and that
it is naive to divorce power considerations from development. This perceptive analysis clearly suggests that the extent and nature of innovation in the non-formal institutional sectors will in large measure be determined by the perceptions, priorities, and values of the national elites who have long and effectively used the formal institutional structure to perpetuate their privileged status.

Non-formal educational problems are discussed. See also the author's related study, The Agricultural Cooperative Movement in Latin America, also published by the OAS.

This article reports on a meeting of African and Asian trade unionists and cooperators and emphasizes the need for a greater interaction between the two groups. To this end, the author makes the following points: (a) trade unions can promote and sponsor cooperatives; (b) cooperatives in some developed countries have received financial support from special union funds and this has not adversely affected their general interests orientation; (c) both organizations have a special role to play in promoting savings among the workers; (d) the adoption of a check-off system might facilitate savings programs; (e) both can act as strong pressure groups for influencing governments to enact progressive legislation that will foster the growth of both movements and protect the interests of workers in both the urban and rural areas; (f) unions can provide the necessary guarantees for the loans made to their members by the cooperatives; (g) there are immense possibilities as well as a pressing need for joint action between the trade unions and cooperatives in the non-formal training of office holders and members in both organizations; (h) educational activities of both formal and informal nature are essential for cooperatives in developing countries; (i) both organizations would benefit by the creation of one educational institution for use by both the trade union and cooperative movements; and (j) there should be a greater emphasis on teaching the principles of democracy in training staff and leadership for the cooperative movement.

See especially Chapter 5, "Ways and Means of Cooperative Education" (pp. 138-62). The author views non-formal education as "the backbone" of every new attempt to establish cooperative organizations and presents evidence to support his thesis.


The author argues convincingly that there seems to be no point in the continued propagation of the classic diluted European models of cooperation, along with the heroes ideologies and the techniques derived from them; since this whole process has demonstrated its incompatibility with Latin American realities. Rather, "it would be better to seek fresh information on the forces of genuine cooperation at the popular level which are indigenous to the region, especially those which challenge the status quo, to stimulate these forces deriving new doctrines and techniques from them and, if appropriate, discover the new and more genuine heroes and cultural concepts." He concludes that because the European cooperative model has painfully and obviously failed in Latin America, the present need is to develop new instructional techniques and a new cooperative policy that challenges the exploitive status quo and is firmly grounded in "the indigenous condition... in our own characteristics and needs."


Gordon discusses the progress of Iraqi agrarian-reform cooperatives, the influence of specific factors supporting their development, and factors restricting their progress. He also seeks to ascertain what contribution cooperatives in agrarian-reform areas are making to agricultural development. Gordon reports that these voluntary associations perform credit, supply, and marketing services for their
members and that they are rapidly increasing in number. The program is administered by the Directorate General of Agricultural Cooperation and Production and personnel are given non-formal preservice training by the U.N. Special Fund Institute of Cooperation and Agricultural Extension. He notes that the kinds of services performed and the volume of business has increased rapidly and that development of the cooperatives has been aided by government action, by personnel training courses, and by tangible benefits to members in the form of lower charges for production requisites and higher returns for farm products.

The author concludes, however, that Iraqi agrarian-reform cooperatives have contributed relatively little to agricultural development mainly because "distrustful farmers, not understanding cooperatives, generally have not joined or patronized them." Other more-specific hindrances have been that the program is seen as threatening traditional freedoms, that there has been too little coordination between the cooperative and extension programs, that the loans available were too small, and that "staff members lack expertise in handling financial transactions."

The Contents cover the philosophy, purposes, and advantages of non-formal educational programs in cooperatives, with information on methods of establishing, administering, and expanding such programs.


This tract describes the Polish experience with cooperatives in schools and health centers, with non-formal education programs financed by cooperatives, and with invalids' cooperatives and "modern housewife" centers.

This publication of the Bolivian National Board of Cooperatives reviews general problems of cooperatives and development, technical aspects of implementing and operating cooperatives, and specific problems in the Bolivian context. Drawing largely on the Western European cooperative experience, the author presents an overly optimistic picture of the role cooperatives have played as agents for non-formal education and rapid social and economic development. Unfortunately, as Fals Borda and others have demonstrated, the European cooperative model, based on trust, cooperation, honesty, and the possibility of compromise, has largely failed in Latin America.


Viteles examines in great detail the evolving role of non-formal educational programs in the Israeli cooperative movement in general; in the kibbutz and moschav (cooperative smallholders settlements) movements; in workers', producers', transportation, and service cooperatives; and in agricultural and consumer cooperatives in particular. Although essentially a reference work, this detailed study of the main issues facing consumer cooperative development has much to offer and provides a number of practical models.


A number of factors found to be related to the development of farmer cooperatives in developing countries are reviewed. Questions are raised regarding the bases on which effective cooperative societies can be evolved in such countries. There is a listing of key factors related to cooperative development and the questions that should be raised concerning them. These factors are the role of government in the development of farmer cooperatives, the relation of the literacy of farmers to the development of effective cooperatives, the role of local leaders in the development and successful operation of effective farmer cooperatives, obtaining capable managers with integrity for cooperative societies, the financing of farmer...
cooperatives, provision by cooperatives of services needed by farmers, the role of non-formal institution in cooperative principles and operations, and the role of a union of cooperatives in a program for fostering effective farmer cooperatives in a developing country.


This collection of case studies includes a wealth of data on the function of non-formal education in developing rural cooperatives. It is also available from Africana Publishing, New York.

Other items related to Cooperatives are

1218, 1310, 1317, 2219, 3105, 3315, 4539, 5105, 5115, 6514, 6521, 6613, 6620, 7151, 7164, 7210, 7221, 7235

5500. FAMILY PLANNING


This article explains the research strategy used to create a statewide system of family planning clinics for "medically indigent" rural and urban populations. It describes a post-partum training program for mothers and related non-formal instructional programs offered by the clinics on the meaning of family planning and its relation to family welfare, the mechanism of fertilization and subsequent fetal development, the types of available medically sound birth-control methods and the advantages and disadvantages of each, and the official positions of the larger religious denominations on family planning. Following this comprehensive instruction, all patients have the opportunity in private consultation with a clinic staff member, to decide individually which birth-control method they want to use,
if any. Appropriate further instruction is then offered as required. Clinic personnel, often local, are trained on the job using a standard procedural manual.


This volume delineates the population problem and what thirteen countries are doing, often by means of non-formal educational programs, to promote family planning. The book consists of three parts. The first offers a description of national programs in eleven less-developed countries and in two industrialized countries (Japan and the United States). The second deals with special fields such as new approaches to fertility control, the making and marketing of birth-control products, the cost and contents of family-planning programs, and the need for better statistics and more applied research. The third part describes the programs and priorities of the various international advisory services.

The author concludes that much has been accomplished to increase public awareness of the population "time bomb," to secure favorable family-planning policies in all three developing continents, and to advance contraceptive technology and knowledge of motivation and program operation. He notes that, although these programs are beginning to show some success in some countries like Taiwan and Korea, family-planning success will always hinge on the improvement of people's well-being and opportunities for individual fulfillment. He further suggests that raising the age of marriage, employing more women, emancipation of women, and more formal and non-formal education may also be helpful in limiting family size. Berelson concludes that these actions are not easy to bring about quickly and they require vastly greater investments than does family planning.


This volume reports on the 1966 Geneva Conference on population problems, especially in the third world. See especially Section II, "Organization and Administration of Programs." Here, Paul Hartman presents a non-formal education approach in his article "Informational and
Education Programs" and Sloan Waylan discusses "Family Planning and the School Curriculum." Contributions in other sections, like Howard L. Taylor's study "A Family Planning Program Related to Medical-Services" and others, are also pertinent to the application of the concept of non-formal education programs.


This report discusses the major elements that should be considered in developing a worldwide or countrywide plan for meeting communication needs of the family-planning movement and asks "How can these needs best be met?" It suggests that really massive adoption of contraceptive practices requires macroscale mass communication with campaign content transmitted via radio and television, newspapers and periodicals, family-planning publications, public displays, movies and audio-visuals to government officials, physicians and health professionals, the public at large, family-planning workers, and institutions not directly related to family planning.


Because of permissive abortion laws in much of Eastern Europe since 1955, great stress is placed on teaching about family planning, largely through sex education in schools and through non-formal instruction in family-planning centers. David presents country reports for the U.S.S.R., Bulgaria, Poland, Hungary, Rumania, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, the German Democratic Republic, and Albania and a chapter of conclusions.


This book describes Taiwan's successful family-planning program and the significant contribution of non-formal educational programs in securing "substantial and continuous declines in fertility."


Hsu describes the important role of various non-formal educational programs in Taiwan's successful family-planning efforts.


This study presents a number of curriculum sequences designed for use in short non-formal education class for men and women.


This tract briefly reports research, educational, and training projects on population studies and family planning at 77 member development centers in Asia, Africa, Europe, and the Americas.


This pamphlet was prepared to assist community-action workers in understanding the family-planning program as it does or might operate under the Office of Economic Opportunity. It describes the methods by which programs may be gotten underway. Local community-action groups are told which agencies are eligible for funding, how to go
about seeking funding, and the principles of program operation. It observes that family-planning programs must be developed with sensitivity for the attitudes of various racial and religious groups in the community. Decision-making in the family-planning program must be shared with members of the community. Staff must be of professional quality and costs should not run beyond $5 to $10 per year per couple.


Ohlin presents a well-documented economic analysis of current population problems in the third world and offers some suggestions for increased out-of-school training activities and for applied research. He believes only a massive, high-priority effort on the part of each developing country will bring the current population explosion under control and eventually lead to an "optimal rate of population growth."


Rao defines population education as "education aimed at providing population awareness in the broad perspective of building a social order of economy and economic justice leading to a welfare state through the process of internalization of attitudes emphasizing the belief that man can control and determine the course of action of himself, of his family and of his country." This fuzzy definition emphasizes the individual's perceptions and his decision-making scope, both of which, it is claimed, can be developed through non-formal adult education.


This study sought to establish the situational, demographic, and psychosocial characteristics and the knowledge, attitudes, and practices of low socioeconomic women as related to degree of involvement in a non-formal educational family-planning program. It also sought to determine the basic reasons for noninvolvement in the program. As for women newly admitted to the family-planning clinic in Mecklenburg County, North Carolina, the decline in age from 1906 to 1967 indicated increasing involvement of women with potentially high fertility. Involvement of eligible white women was relatively low. Previous experience with contraception was reported by only half the enrollees over the span of the program, but male methods may not have been mentioned by some of the women. The interval since last delivery recently declined sharply, indicating more successful involvement of high priority, post-partum women.


Somerville notes efforts in the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom, and elsewhere to get family life and sex education out of formal schools and into non-formal educational programs in youth clubs, churches, social agencies, and other adult organizations.


This tract explains why and proposes how family planning must become functional within the sociocultural systems of the target groups.


A descriptive brochure on the program of the World Education organization.

Other items related to Family Planning are

2114, 2123, 3307, 4532, 5306, 5838, 5842, 5843, 6101, 6205, 6302, 6506, 6612, 6618, 6718, 7302

234
5600. HEALTH


This report of the Asian Health Conference held in Tagatay, the Philippines, in 1962 has been widely printed and distributed to assist public-health workers in grappling with four major health programs—malaria eradication, environmental sanitation, pupil health, and maternal and infant health. In the four topic areas, a background is made of an imaginary town where the program is sited. Problems anticipated in completing the program and means of identifying educational needs are discussed. The preparation of workers is also covered. The report suggests that many problems dealing with the success of health programs can be alleviated or prevented through community non-formal education programs.


The authors describe salient features of Cuban health services. The authors, all U.S. medical personnel who have made numerous trips to Cuba during the past five years, observe that "Cuba's health services have undergone a radical change since the revolution. Today, a well-organized, decentralized and citizen-responsive system is reaching all the people, even those in remote areas." Since 1959, the government has built 47 rural hospitals and 260 linked polyclinics, provide diagnosis, outpatient treatment, dental services and which serve as centers for community health-education workers. Health-care personnel, including physicians, share in local agricultural work, while medical students are regularly assigned to poor families that become their personal medical responsibility. Doctor-patient relationships thus rest on "common goals and familiar bonds" and are not "culturally alienated."

Cuba had 6,300 physicians in 1959 (63 percent in Havana) and 2,583 left the country between 1959 and 1967. Moreover 85 percent of the University of Havana Medical School resigned in 1961 and energetic steps were taken through non-formal educational programs to prepare large numbers of paramedical personnel and volunteer paramedical worker Training has centered on work in health education and disease prevention. The authors noted that the most unique
feature of the Cuban health system, and perhaps the one most responsible for its success and the high regard in which it is held by the Cuban people, is the extent to which citizens participate in the planning and modification of health policy. The primary vehicles for this participation are the health commissions that exist at every level of the Public Health Ministry—national, provincial, regional, and local.

The authors also note that treating the patient's view of things seriously is a guiding principle and that many institutions hold monthly meetings of all workers, professional and nonprofessional staff, and patients to review the work accomplished, to discuss "current events," and to evaluate the complaints and concerns of patients. The authors strongly propose the reestablishment of scientific and medical exchanges with Cuba "for our mutual education." They caution, however, that the United States will only benefit from the Cuban example when "we establish the simple idea that welfare and peace of mind of the patient must be the first concern of the health-care system." This would entail a revolutionary revision of prevailing health-care thought and practice in the United States, "where the convenience and earnings of physicians, the economic stresses on the hospitals, and the limitations of inadequate budgets are dominant." This is an informative, perceptive article that underscores the key role of non-formal para-professional training in the revolutionary reorganization of a poor Latin American country's health services and programs.


The authors report on a five-year demonstration study at Las Cruces, New Mexico, which sought "to explore the effectiveness of a special method of selecting, training and giving consultation to nonprofessional mental health workers as they and the community develop specific health services." Non-formal group training was provided in classes and seminars on interviewing techniques, growth and development, case management, and the like. Individual training included weekly scheduled individual sessions with the director and structures observation of professionals handling clients and other activities. They note that "all trainee
groups indicated training was valuable and interesting” and that “the mean time at which trainees felt they had enough training fell between two and three years.”

Paul presents a series of case studies dealing with non-formal attempts at reeducating the community, reaction to crisis, sex patterns and population problems, effects of social segmentation, health administration, and the need to combine service and research. The cases, some successes and some failures, range in location from Boston to Zululand, each illustrating a point in developmental health work. Although old, the book is still useful in illustrating the central importance of cultural factors in attempts at health education. In this regard, see particularly the excellent chapter by Solon T. Kimball, “An Alabama Town Surveys Its Health Needs,” pp. 269-93.

The authors describe the emergence of new paraprofessional roles and a non-formal educational strategy accompanying efforts to extend mental health services to all areas of U.S. society.

Based on a nationwide survey of about 10,000 people in 185 government-sponsored programs, this book assesses how far the mental health profession has moved beyond the traditional medical model with its relatively closed doctor-patient system toward a broadly based public-health intervention system. Encompassing various levels of mental health and disorder, this framework presents an approach that embraces prevention, treatment, and rehabilitation and that entails coordinated planning with other community programs in health, education, and welfare. Attention is given to efforts to develop criteria for using both paid and volunteer nonprofessionals, to types of projects and agencies to clienti groups served, and to significant characteristics of nonprofessionals (including older adults, youth, minority groups, and persons with less than a high-school education). Typical patterns of professional, and nonprofessional work
are also compared. Recruitment, non-formal training, and supervision are reviewed, followed by research findings on project goals and the extent of innovation. The author claims that nonprofessionals are providing valuable new services and, with adequate in-service training, can take on many existing tasks in the mental-health field.

Other items related to Health are:

1106, 1317, 2137, 3210, 3306, 3307, 3509, 4222, 4502, 4510, 4514, 4530, 4531, 4535, 4542, 4619, 4620, 4625, 4631, 4634, 5217, 5514, 5902, 5914, 6629, 7117, 7133, 7151

5700. INDUSTRIAL


This paper examines the effectiveness of industrial-training programs offered in formal and non-formal educational settings.


Garrison describes SENATI, a national industrial apprenticeship program operated by the Peruvian manufacturing industry to provide industrial skills training, some technical training, and general education for present youth and adult employees and also for youths between 14-18 years who will be future employees. He examines program goals, procedures, and "strengths and weaknesses." The author concludes that SENATI is well managed and equipped and that the non-formal educational programs are well adapted to the needs of industrial workers and industrial
employers, that the "system of educating and training only those who are working provides assurance of 100% job placement of graduates," and that follow-up records show that as many as 100 percent of those trained in some industrial firms move up to jobs of increased responsibility following education and training.

The weaknesses noted by Garrison include the problems of overly rapid expansion and lagging income, resistance in the top administration to delegate authority and hesitance to accept responsibility by many lower-level employees, the high cost per student (in fact, SENATI costs are considerably more than the per student costs for the comparable expensive and inefficient vocational-training programs in the formal secondary schools, the high costs of preparing teachers, and the high equipment operating costs due to foreign donated equipment and lack of financial income other than from the 1 percent wage tax levied on participating industrial firms.


Gomez explains how non-formal adult-education programs at the large nickel plant at Moa, Cuba, seek systematically to raise workers' cultural and technical levels. Workers share in planning and in teaching programs that cover technical subjects (chemical analysis, welding, mechanics, productivity, security work, hygiene, lubrication, and other subjects. Classes are attended by 1,126 students, or 87 percent of the work force. It was decided "in a collective discussion" to hold classes before work from 6:30 to 7:30 each morning. The author concludes that major success factors have been that the workers live near the job, that sociocultural conditions there are favorable, but mostly that "the organizational methods used and the close coordination of the political-administrative leadership have been the most important factors in getting the workers to study and keeping drop-outs to a minimum in the factory-school plan."


The author claims that merely attempting to adapt occupational training to an outmoded apprenticeship system is an unsatisfactory solution to the manpower needs of British industry. Apprenticeship, a system preceding the Industrial Revolution by hundreds of years, makes little allowance either for the new types of jobs that have grown up or for the need for education of the individual worker. The establishment of the Common Market in Europe has led to a small beginning of reform in the setting-up of standards for occupational training in member countries, largely to facilitate the migration of workers. Great Britain, as do other European countries, still has a great need, however, for total reform. An initial step toward a new national policy would be the establishment of a National Occupation Training Authority. This group, it is suggested, should hold the responsibility for organizing vocational training in industry to meet the needs of an overall national economic plan and those of the individual workers.

Other items related to the Industrial area are

1203, 1311, 3412, 3416, 3417, 4410, 4415, 4703, 6110, 6405, 6703, 6706, 7305, 7206, 7244

5800. LITERACY


The problem of illiteracy is discussed with reference to the Commonwealth countries. Rather than propose policy, the author examines possible strategies and methods and raises pertinent questions concerning the priority of literacy in a country's development plan, the social and economic consequences, and problems of priorities between formal schooling and non-formal literacy education.

A study was made of 207 adults attending basic non-formal education classes in Buffalo and Niagara Falls, New York. Results revealed that high-achievers were less frequently on welfare, were more frequently women, and came from less economically deprived backgrounds. In indicating reasons for lack of achievement, achievers mentioned personal or parental disinterest, illness, foreign birth, and poverty. Nonachievers pointed to their inability to profit from instruction and lack of schooling. Neither group mentioned poor teaching. There was a slight difference between the groups' attitudes toward television and radio programs. It was also found that adult core-city illiterates often possessed a high degree of positive attitudes that helped them profit from adult non-formal education.


Bunger describes the organization and presentation of an adult-literacy project using television as the medium of instruction.


This case study of literacy expansion examines literacy growth in the sixteenth through eighteenth centuries. The problem of motivation is illustrated by the case of the Cherokee Indians, who advanced from no written language in 1819 to 50 percent literacy in 1930 and by 1907 had sunk back into illiteracy. In England, the three major factors in literacy expansion were religious renewal with Bible reading, vocational opportunities with rising industrialism, and a period of social and political controversy. Linguistic heterogeneity was a strong factor in Wales, where the expansion of literacy came at a different period. Rural areas and urban slums were lowest in literacy rate. The author suggests that in England social repression of various types of literature led to a decline in the size of the reading public and that the cost and availability of reading materials were also important factors. Increased wealth did not seem to generate increased literacy, but the availability
of classes in nonschool programs outside working hours did.


This pilot project seeks to teach literacy to school-age dropouts between 10 and 15 years of age using formal school teachers and the Naya Din Adult Literacy teaching method (picture-word-syllable). An informal evaluation suggests that the adult-literacy materials were effective if the child was "reading ready" and that "formal school teachers can do an excellent job of teaching literacy, if they are carefully selected, well trained, equipped with the right teaching materials and aids, and closely supervised". David claims that "these four conditions were the key to success and made YES a model project."


Although it is an accepted generalization that those who cannot read or write have some disadvantages when compared to those who can, little empirical work has been carried out to determine the exact nature of the disadvantages suffered by those who are illiterate. While a review of African literature revealed the following facts, in general it turned up little that was concretely useful in the field.

Factors associated with literacy: From three studies conducted by Doob in 1959 in northern Nigeria, it was hypothesized that literacy is positively correlated with behavior, knowledge, or attitudes suggestive of alertness, but none of the studies are conclusive because the groups used were too small. Trends can be considered suggestive of the hypothesis but it is not possible to determine cause-and-effect sequences that produced the tendencies.

Attitudes to literacy: From the same study, the greatest benefit claimed from literacy was ability to read and write letters.

Perception: Evidence to date shows illiterates at a
disadvantage in perceiving three-dimensional objects.

Effects of literacy on industrial efficiency: Psychological and technical tests designed by industrial firms for the selection of workers show that even a small measure of literacy helps the worker adjust to technical situations. Only beyond a minimum level of literacy are workers ready to enter the industrial stage. A 1924 Soviet Union research done by Stroumiline showed that industrial workers who had received literacy instruction as well as training were superior in productivity level to workers who had only received training. Outputs measured in units of work over a period of 6 years showed an average index of 0.77 for those who received industrial training alone and 0.91 for those who received industrial training and literacy instruction.

Effects of literacy on income: Roughly, there is a threefold increase in the salary of the university graduate over that of the secondary-school graduate, a three-fold increase in the salary of the latter over that of a primary-school leaver, who in turn has more than three times the average salary of an illiterate worker.

Literacy a condition of economic growth?: Results are inconclusive. When new experiences and techniques and new forms of organization are introduced, illiteracy becomes a handicap. However, it would not appear that illiteracy is a complete handicap when manipulating in one's own range of experience, though literacy does increase efficiency. The author concludes that for certain tasks of a technical nature simple literacy in adulthood is enough to give workers the same level of efficiency as workers who have been to school.


The author writes from the imagined vantage point of 1985 to suggest that today's emphasis on the school and school teacher as the only agents for attacking illiteracy is intensifying the crisis because of the rising costs and of the hampering effects of institutionalization. He recommends centering not on the means but on the goal—i.e., on the use of non-formal educational programs to produce the men and women who can read, write, and compute in a manner to participate successfully and compete in life today. Farmer emphasizes the need for private initiative.
and financial rewards in teaching and producing literature as a possible means leading to a breakthrough.


In this second edition, the author, an internationally renowned educator, examines the problems and prospects of literacy education, discusses prevailing practices, evaluates them, and summarizes the results of significant research and experience. This is a practical work full of useful ideas and insights.


The author questions the objectives of literacy programs, the motivations of literates attending classes, and the requirements for retention and functionality in literacy learning. He suggests that literacy education should equip students with the skills and knowledge needed to further individual economic and social advancement and that non-formal supplementary education in which the adult is given elementary education of the standard imparted at the corresponding level of school education is preferable to literacy education alone. This is the emerging Israeli model in which functional literacy and elementary-education programs are combined with a community-development component and integrated with agricultural or vocational training. Grebelsky concludes that short-term, piecemeal literacy projects will continue to fail and that success only comes when programs have well-defined objectives, have adequate resources, and are solidly based on the needs and aspirations of adults in the community context.


The author considers the usefulness of the cost-benefit approach in evaluating school and out-of-school programs to reduce illiteracy and illustrates the limitations and advantages by citing results from studies concerning the returns to investment in education. Benefits from literacy are pervasive, apart from the individual himself, members
of his family, his fellow-workers; society in general and future generations also benefit from his becoming literate. Specifically, some of these benefits are seen in increased productivity, the ability gained by parents to educate children and future options now open to the individual due to the new skills acquired. The external benefits--benefits to others in society--are probably the most important, though they are the most difficult to evaluate--e.g., increased social and political consciousness and participation and the increased productivity of others due to the presence of a literate individual. The cost of these external benefits cannot be quantified but only listed as pluses and minuses that are crude guesses as to the magnitude of their effects. Other items, such as the value of teacher services, books, and equipment, are easily quantified. Further discussion covers the difficulty of determining prices and costs due to such problems as biases in market prices and present vs. future consumption. Holtmann concludes that, despite defects, cost-benefit analysis can be a practical way of determining the contribution that literacy might make to the total value of consumption in society. Realizing that all information may not be complete to determine precise values and that society may wish to achieve different goals through projects, the author does provide a systematic way of considering alternatives that leads to better decisions than would be possible on a more casual inspection.


This microstudy summarizes the first phases of a combined literacy and savings-club approach to development in a rural area of Rhodesia. Full-time literacy courses were held during June and July 1970 for 65 members of three savings clubs. The first objective of the study was to replicate the full-time pattern of literacy teaching developed for the Chikudu project, which involved teaching all the lessons of the Shona primer in a full-time intensive
course and then teaching the "new literates" how to keep farm/household records and accounts. The second objective was to structure a tightly controlled follow-up program in order to evaluate more precisely the relationship between literacy and subsequent development. The literacy course was seen as a means of improving the technical efficiency of savings clubs, as a means of developing more democratic control, and as a possible starting point for a broader program of adult education.

An evaluation report describing the results of the follow-up program, literacy retention, and the relationship between literacy and development will be produced in 1971, but in the present report some preliminary conclusions are made. The obvious advantages of an intensive full-time literacy course as compared with part-time classes in the noncropping season are easier supervision, better attendance, and fewer drop-outs. Better retention was also reported, but a high proportion of students in the slow classes did not complete the primer satisfactorily and must still be considered illiterate. The pretests were also found to be a good predictor of subsequent student performance. There are considerable advantages in working through an interested sponsor and well-established local organizations concerned with development. Results from the "advanced" classes strengthen the conclusion that provision of appropriate follow-up programs for adults who have some, but not a complete, primary schooling might considerably reduce the estimated extent of functional literacy—i.e., sustain retention of literacy achieved through formal schooling.


This special issue reports mostly government-sponsored literacy experiments carried on outside UNESCO. Innovative adult-education programs in New Guinea, Kenya, Peru, Brazil, Tunisia, India, and elsewhere are noncritically described and informally evaluated.

Of 800 questionnaires sent to literacy organizations in 123 countries concerning methods and techniques used, replies from 80 projects in 57 countries were obtained. The data reported is organized in seven main categories on organization, courses, methods, materials, participants, drop-outs, and instructors. This represents an admirable attempt at the comparative study of structure, process, and problems of an important activity in nonschool education.


This report discusses the general background necessary to understand the non-formal education pilot project and explains why the Qazvin area was chosen. It reviews the aims of the project and how the local literacy committee was formed, explains how teachers were provided, what methods were used in the instruction, what materials were used, and includes the techniques utilized that sought to ensure attendance.


This article briefly reports on a comparative follow-up study of literacy retention.


This excellent book of readings contains numerous examples of non-formal education programs for third-world adults.

5822. MASSACHUSETTS COUNCIL FOR PUBLIC SCHOOLS. Teach Adults to Read: Research and Demonstration in a Program of Volunteer Community Action. Report on the Project for

The action-research program reported here was undertaken to teach reading, to assess the use of volunteers in adult-literacy education, to evaluate two reading methods for use with adult illiterates voluntarily studying in a community setting, and to gather and communicate basic knowledge on illiteracy, adult illiterates, and program organization and administration. Much attention is given to analyzing statistical data on student and volunteer tutor backgrounds, student attendance, reactions to training, results of reading and related tests, reading progress at three stages, and factors assumed to have inhibited prior development of learning skills.


Phillips contends that, although literacy has high prestige, particularly in societies where it is scarce, this does not prevent dropouts from classes and lack of retention; motivation to achieve literacy alone does not act as an impetus to economic and social development. In addition, parallel action has to be taken to link literacy with development and particularly with employment. And where choices can be made in factors affecting production, there is now a heavy bias in favor of investment in education (of which literacy is a basic part) as compared with investment in physical factors such as new machinery. This is because of changed consumer patterns that seek better long-term value in goods and the impact on human rights and political participation that literacy helps to bring about.

The author concludes that, other things being equal, it is the practice of employers to take literate workers first. Generally, firms do little to make their illiterate workers literate, yet when such projects have been undertaken good
results have occurred in increasing the workers' productivity. Indices do show that progress in literacy and economic growth generally go side-by-side but cause and effect are difficult, if not impossible, to determine.


This article describes efforts to train literacy-education staff in the use of puppets. Staff are not mere "teachers" but are prepared as family-planning counselors and agricultural advisers. Thus, they are able to attack not only illiteracy but also the two closely related problems of food and population. "Every word they teach is in the language of birth control, or improved farm production, or nutrition and health."


The relatively low percentage of illiterates in Chile (11.7 percent, of which the vast majority are peasants) compared with the other countries of the third world has not lessened the Chileans' efforts in their struggle against illiteracy. Adult literacy in Chile is considered as the first phase of the non-formal adult-education system. This has three sections: the first is general education (three years), the second is called humanistic-scientific education (four years), and finally there is technico-vocational training, which is highly diversified. Actual literacy is taught during the first four months of the first year. During this period, the psychosocial method of the Brazilian Paolo Freire, adapted to Chilean conditions, is used. This is an active teaching method, using dialogue that encourages criticism and awareness. In this method, people are supposedly made literate by becoming aware of their "existential situation." This "awareness" is achieved through discussion of environmental problems that leads to the teaching of a limited number of "generative words." These words are, from the linguistic and functional point of view, the most representative of the participants' milieu. In spite of the claimed effectiveness of the psychosocial literacy method, there are nevertheless a fair number of dropouts. The writer proposes that, in order to appreciate the true work of the psychosocial method, studies comparing it with traditional methods should be made.


This is a history and description of a psychosocial method of literacy training developed by Paulo Freire in Brazil. Literacy lessons are used to raise the level of social consciousness and vice versa. Socratic dialogues under trained leadership and a picture series are used. The method supposedly confronts the Latin idea of "culto" (educated) with the idea of popular culture. This is a good but rather superficial description of a program that was thrown out of Brazil but is still the key literacy method used in Chile. Its success seems to depend on how well the teachers have internalized a nonpaternalistic system of education. It also appears that literacy is a secondary goal. Perhaps it should be.


This article reports on the work of several literacy campaigns combining the efforts of the University of Antioquia, the Laubach Literacy, Inc., the Books for People Fund, the Peace Corps, and AID. All projects have used the Laubach Ladder Series readers, which seek to teach a 1,000-word reading level of ability. The Pan American Union books for new readers are geared to this level. Classes have been given through a volunteer-teacher program and a program by educational television has also been tried without much success. The problem of securing adequate financial assistance to support a Literacy Materials Teacher Training Center has been an unresolved concern.


The author examines adult-literacy programs in relation to other adult-education needs; the effect of universal primary education on the need for adult literacy; the motivation of adults for adult literacy; the determining of the needs of the people; the language to be used; the methods of instruction; the materials and technology to be used; the organizational structure of adult-literacy programs; other services needed relative to adult literacy; and the role of foreign assistance in adult literacy. Twelve questions are asked in catechetical style covering the above areas. Each question is followed by a detailed response. Spaulding suggests that Literacy is not a magic skill that will answer the adult-education needs of the developing countries. Rather, it is a tool to be developed alongside other basic educational programs if "functional literacy" is to be an achievable objective. He contends that illiteracy is a symptom of many educational, economic, social, and cultural ills, not a cause of them. To eradicate illiteracy, comprehensive adult non-formal education programs, matched with appropriate economic development, must be supported through a feasible and focused assistance mechanism.


Spaulding reviews UNESCO support and program-development problems with experimental adult-education project especially in countries with a high rate of illiteracy and where literacy teaching is coordinated with training for job opportunities. Spaulding cites a case in Ecuador that he believes meets the necessary requirements and is a good model. He proposes that UNESCO-sponsored experiments of this kind can be augmented by others of a similar type aided through bilateral or private support.


The concept of "work-oriented" education where new learning is functional in terms of work requirements has increasingly come into play in literacy-education efforts. In the UNESCO-supported Isfahan subproject, workers in the textile, metal, and handicraft industries have received non-formal in-service literacy education and training. In these work-oriented classes, "the fundamental methodological principle employed is the subordination of linguistic requirements to skills learning, to technical progression." Recent achievements of the eighteen differentiated programs (three general, seven agricultural, five industrial, two handicraft, and one prevocational) enrolling approximately 12,000 adults in 1969-70 are summarized.


5839. VALINO, Rosalinda S. The Bureau of Public Schools Six-Year Intensive Literacy and Adult Education Drive, 1966-1972. Manila: Bureau of Public Schools, 1971. Pp. 16. Valino describes the objectives and goals of the drive begun in 1966 to make 2,154,210 illiterate Philippine adults and out-of-school youth functionally literate. Public elementary-school facilities have been used for non-formal literacy classes. It is claimed that, by 1971, 443,624 illiterates have been enrolled, while 224,845 have been "awarded certificates." The author notes that in the Philippines today "everybody seems to be on the adult education bandwagon." The drive, nevertheless, has "fallen dismally short of the intended target of more than two million illiterates." This outcome has been greatly influenced by lack of funds. Financial resources available amounted to only some 80 centavos per student.

5840. VAUGRANTE, Christiane. Techniques for Analyzing Change in Literacy Rates and in the Number of Illiterates. Dakar:

The author contends that statistical studies show that compulsory primary education in poor countries does not solve the problem of illiteracy, given continuing problems of population growth, heavy dropout rates, skyrocketing costs of schools, poorly trained teachers and school administrators, and so on. Non-formal adult-literacy education work will therefore be necessary for many years to come. Some countries have established national literacy campaigns, but results have all too often been disappointing. After the first surge of enthusiasm, the interest of both teachers and learners rapidly decreases. Adults are motivated to become literate only if it really helps them in their daily lives. Therefore, literacy programs for adults, as well as formal school programs, should be adjusted to the local environment, and rural programs will be completely different from those for industrial workers.

Functional programs are not necessarily limited to work alone, however, but may also be geared to cultural, social, health, or other aspects of daily life—or even to a combination of all these elements. A work-oriented program requires a homogeneous group with the same broad interest, and the teacher should be fully acquainted with the daily life of his group and act as a discussion leader, allowing the learners to exchange ideas and experiences rather than having the traditional teacher-pupil relationship. The particular difficulty in rural areas is that to most farmers in developing countries book knowledge seems only necessary for town people, since they do not realize that the new agricultural methods, based on science and not on tradition, are needed to achieve higher yields but, at the same time, are complicated so that it has now become impossible to rely on memory or traditional wisdom alone. Rural programs, therefore, should connect literacy work with the improvement of agricultural ability and with attempts at solving agricultural problems. Mathematics should be connected with the actual problems of buying and selling, with the amounts paid by producers' cooperatives, and similar practical matters.

Finally, literacy should be taught in the mother tongue, although this may be the first step only. The author
concludes that if the language group is too small to expect that anything will be printed in that language, there will be a pressing need for literacy in the national language, since only then will the new literate find what he really needs: direct contact with the outside world. This exhortatory article, it might be noted, presents a good example of UNESCO doctrine on literacy.


Other items related to Literacy are

1106, 1107, 1116, 1204, 1212, 1311, 2108, 2135, 2209, 2213, 2215, 2217, 3110, 3108, 3204, 3209, 3212, 3215, 2203, 3307, 3314, 3502, 4101, 4201, 4206, 4225, 4226, 4311, 4603, 4702, 4715, 4719, 4720, 5106, 5220, 5412, 5517, 5521, 5523, 5903, 6103, 6105, 6106, 6108, 6113, 6114, 6116, 6204, 6201, 6206, 6301, 6308, 6513, 6604, 6605, 6607, 6609, 6610, 6616, 6619, 6626, 6632, 6632, 6704, 6717, 6722, 7105, 7114, 7130, 7154, 7156, 7159, 7217, 7220, 7223, 7240, 7241, 7307

5900. OTHERS

5901. Connor, Thomas R. "Teaching the Need for Achievement." Growth and Change: A Journal of Regional Development, II, 4 (October 1971), 16-19. The idea that the need for achievement, symbolized as N-Ach, presumably an essential factor in the entrepreneurial personality, can be successfully implanted by means of a brief, non-formal education training program has gained considerable currency in recent years. Connor examines the disappointing results of such a training program on Prince Edward Island, Canada, and suggests that "N-Ach is not a factor that can be isolated and manipulated." He criticizes David McClelland and challenges his claim that "achievement motivation can be developed." Connor concludes that, "on the basis of available literature, McClelland's
own ambiguity, and the experiences of this project, there is little justification for investment in such a program at this time."


This article examines the recent trend in adult-literacy education workshops, conferences, and seminars to combine the subjects of functional literacy and family Planning. It summarizes the many ideas and views in this regard following meetings in India, Iran, Singapore, and elsewhere as follows: new literates have a critical need of reading materials to improve their reading skills, the written word has a great potential to facilitate such developmental change as family planning, and there is a growing need for a continuous exchange of ideas and experiences in this area between governments and voluntary agencies at local, national, and international levels.


Fainsod examines the ideological content of the non-formal educational programs provided for some 10 million Komsomol members and similar programs conducted by the Komsomols for the 13 million Young Pioneers, "from whose ranks the Communist elite of the future is to be recruited."


Designed to be of value to supervisors, office managers, and executives, this book gives a broad introductory background to the functions of selection, in-service training, and supervision of office personnel. Under recruitment and selection, it covers sources of future employees, use of the application blank, testing, checking references, and interviewing. The section on training covers the need for training, how people learn, training methods and
procedures, training aids, and developing the program.

Part III, on supervising the office staff, discusses understanding employees, managing the office staff, planning and directing the work, overcoming problems of supervision, and the supervisor's relations with management. There is a list of selected readings with each part.


Kelman relates how the Swedish "sex-role debate" (konsrolldebatten) during the 1960s has led to a "social revolution" grounded on attempted equality between the sexes in work, play, and sport. The impressive and important contributions of the mass media and non-formal educational activities in popular and governmental organizations in securing commitment to this particular change are described.


This document contains an outline of a non-formal course developed for an adult class meeting five hours per week for eighteen weeks. The objectives of the course are to develop an appreciation of the growing uses of automatic data processing, an entry-level job proficiency in the operation of the keypunch machine, work habits conducive to job proficiency, basic terminology in this field of employment, and an understanding of a total unit record system. There is a glossary, bibliography, and list of audio-visual aids.


5910. 'New Directions for Hilo Center.' Communique. News Letter of Intercultural Communications Programs, I, (July 1971), 4.
Founded in 1962, the Center for Cross-Cultural Training and Research at the University of Hawaii, Hilo, has recently shifted from Peace Corps training programs to training projects related directly to the local Hilo community. Programs stress a non-formal approach to training for specific needs rather than for general knowledge or skills, learning by doing, short-term intensive training, human development and/or cross-cultural understanding, and a team-teaching approach vs. an individual instructor.


The author sees the Cultural Revolution as an emotionally charged political awakening for the educated youth of China, an opportunity for their meaningful and dramatic involvement in public affairs. The Red Guards, however, proved unreliable. They were too "idealistic" to compromise on collaborate with other revolutionary mass organizations and after 1967-68 were largely assigned to rural communes to work and to learn from peasants "for the rest of their lives." This essay ably analyzes the revolutionary curriculum taught by the various Red Guard factions and its origins in the larger context of attempted cultural revolution.


Sozi describes the rationale, programs, and problems for science and technology inputs into adult non-formal education programs in Tanzania. He stresses that "science and technology must cease to be imported and needing constant renewal, rather they must strike root in the social and cultural realities so that they may grow and flourish as local plants."


Communist China has since the Cultural Revolution of 1966 emphasized applied research applicable to a vast underdeveloped country with enormous manpower reserve. The switch from theoretical research producing basic
scientific knowledge to applied research to advance prac-
tical solutions to basic problems has meant the partial
purging of Western science in China. The previous scien-
tific elite has participated in frequent non-formal edu-
cational activities to "reshape" their thinking from the
traditional Western view that the quest for pure knowledge
is the highest goal. Even the most-sophisticated Chinese
scientists now spend part of their time working with peas-
ants and the military on such applied research as fertilizer
production, "home-made" plant hormones for agriculture,
and the use of native remedies to curb the ravages of snail
fever.

5914. UNITED STATES. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION
AND WELFARE AND PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE Experi-
ments in Mental Health Training: Project Summaries
Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Mental Health,

This Volume provides summary information on Insti-
tute-supported pilot or experimental projects in the field
of mental health. These special training projects have
been developed both in formal and non-formal educational
settings for professional, subprofessional, and nonpro-
fessional personnel for a variety of functions including
service, teaching, research, and prevention. The projects
are new, unique, and innovative attempts to investigate
unexplored training areas. They seek to develop and test
mental health training models that can be replicated by
other institutions and that make a maximum contribution
to knowledge about mental health training. They seek,
moreover, "to increase the potential mental health man-
power pool by training new types of mental health person-
nel such as mental health technicians." Some 130 projects
are briefly described in terms of objectives, procedures,
and outcomes.
CHAPTER 6

INSTRUCTIONAL METHODOLOGIES AND MATERIALS

6100. AUDIO-VISUAL AND MASS MEDIA

   This book consists of the script for a puppet play, suggestions for making puppets and a stage, and a discussion of the educational value of puppet shows to get the family-planning message across to nonliterate audiences.

   This film review, translated from AFRICASIA (Paris) and the accompanying article "A Talk With Jorge Sanjines," by Guy Brancourt, translated from Les Nouvelles Litteraires (Paris), explains in detail how director Sanjines attempts to teach Bolivian Indians to understand movies when seeing them for the first time. "We had a narrator who first recounted the story by showing still photographs of the various characters. This is a tradition dating all the way back to the Incas and it still exists today. There are still storytellers who journey from village to village. Then afterward we discussed the story with the audience and, finally, showed the film. It's a question of educating people unused to seeing movies at the same time as trying to create a national cinema."

The authors report on the Educational Testing Service (ETS) evaluation of the "Sesame Street" educational television program directed at preschool children. They claim that the program has "had a marked effect on the learning of three-through-five-year old children from widely diverse backgrounds, including a strong and positive effect on disadvantaged children." In addition, the program has proven that television can be a very successful educational medium in non-formal education. It can, as previously doubted, teach children some basic facts and important cognitive skills.

In marked contrast, criticism of the famous educational television series is well represented by critic John Holt's article in the May 1971 Atlantic. He pays homage to the cleverness of Sesame Street's muppets, animated cartoon music, and deadpan humor, but also picks a major bone with the much-acclaimed television show's "idea that its job is to get children ready for school." Rather than "help children get better at the task of pleasing first-grade teachers," he contends, the program needs to encourage children in "the vastly more interesting and important task...of learning from the world and people around them." Learning on Sesame Street, as in school, means learning right answers, Holt says; as in school, right answers come from grown-ups. Holt also laments the lost opportunity to have the children see "writing as an extension of power they already have, and that they got for themselves, namely, the power of speech." He would like to see resources in the city and environment tapped. He concludes that the program "will be a disappointment in the long run because it aims too low and misunderstands the problem it is trying to cure.

6104. BOYE, O. "The Gitarama Radio University." Literacy Discussion II, 3 (Summer 1971), 77-98.

The Gitarama Radio University (G. R. U.), a missionar
activity supported by the Rwanda government, seeks "to develop a ruralized audio-visual primary education, and broadcast basic education programmes for adults, as well as programmes of religious instruction." Audio-visual programs of films, slides, and recordings have been presented on a regular basis since 1963 in fifteen G. R. U. centers "either specially built or converted from disused at
Attempts to put a 250-watt radio transmitter in use, how
ture in construction and setting up aerials...in this
mountainous land."

Cass identifies criteria and standards to be considered in the planning, production, and broadcasting of television series for nonliterate adults in the United States by examining the literature and an existing series. From his, Cass reviews the literature and concludes that a series must be carefully planned and developed around the community or area in which the target population lives, the teaching advantage of a content tailored to local needs should be weighed against the economic advantages of using a nationally syndicated program series, and supplemental materials reflecting local ways and needs should be available. Second, the teacher must be carefully selected by a committee that includes nonliterate representatives. Third, there is need for ongoing evaluation and some form of recognition to viewers. Finally, psychological characteristics of target groups (tensions and attitudes), motivation, adult-learning characteristics, and needs and habits must be considered. Cass warns that television is no panacea for adult literacy and when used should only be considered as a part of a total instructional campaign. Moreover, educators need to be better informed concerning its potential and limitations as a communication medium.


The author describes a project that solicits and records reactions of rural illiterates to government radio programs for the dissemination of information, for entertainment, and for non-formal instruction. He claims that this government program "is a force of two-way communication with the people, a force for democracy." For a more extensive description of a similar project, see Cassirer's "Radio Clubs in Niger," Literacy Discussion, I, 2 (1970), 25.


Beginning with definitions of the mass-communication process, this paper reviews mass-media adult-education literature from a variety of sources (social scientists, religious educators, experimental public-affairs broadcasting projects, and others) relevant to the use of mass
media in connection with group programs stimulated by religious organizations or purposes. Sociological and other works of theory are noted, along with reports on such topics as network radio and television resources.


The author reviews problems of using television for literacy education—the problems between broadcasting and education authorities, problems of equipment utilization and transfer, and so on. He reluctantly concludes that television offers no solutions in itself; its effectiveness depends in large measure on the level of planning, integration, and professional competence in literacy campaigns.


This article reports findings of an ILO workshop on the use of radio and television in workers' education. This workshop studied the broad question of how radio, television, and the other mass media such as films and newspapers can be used effectively to promote non-formal labor-union education. A listing of the conclusions of the workshop is given along with a listing of possible program topics for radio and television of an informational, educational, and cultural nature with reference to the labor-union movement. It concludes that radio and television afford almost unlimited possibilities for interesting large groups of the population in the basic notions of economics and planning and more generally in the political, economic, and social life of the country. The problems of reaching the masses of workers in the less-developed countries to acquaint them with notions of planning and social and economic policy through traditional methods are, in contrast, insuperable.

The report notes that radio and television can reach large audiences even where illiteracy is still widespread. Educational radio will reach the most-isolated rural workers, whereas television is most appropriate in urban areas. Promoting workers' education programs on radio and television, unions would be encouraging mass communication
media to accept their social responsibility. It was recommended that radio and television educational programs not fall back into rigid and academic patterns of instruction but explore the new educational possibilities that these media offer. Programs should be concrete and lively and the audience should be able to draw its own conclusions. To get maximum learning effect, it was recommended that "lessons" be followed by group discussions as soon as possible. The report concludes that the use of these technological aids for educative purposes in the less-developed countries offers "a bright possibility" amidst the gloomy prospects of educating masses of people through traditional formal methods.


Communist China has built a vast communications network in the countryside with limited use of modern technology. It has overcome the lack of economic and technological development by the thorough integration of the mass media and political organizations at the grass roots. It has used efficiently all available human and material resources for this purpose. The Chinese communications system was built crudely but cheaply and has been financed largely by local resources. It has been used to conduct civic training and to teach peasants production skills. It has widened the scope and intensity of the peasants' participation in the political process and has demonstrated a remarkable capacity to mobilize the people. The hundreds of millions of people mobilized by the Peking regime during the Great Leap Forward, the commune experiment, and the Cultural Revolution testify to this fact. These mass-mobilization campaigns are carried out with little or no use of force, although the people are aware of the omnipresence of the military and the police. The Peking regime manipulates the communications system not only for political control but also as a major stimulus to carry through development plans, such as agricultural collectivization. Jan concludes that, furthermore, the Chinese communications system has contributed to the functional differentiation of the political system by the nonschool training of qualified personnel in various fields.

Jarolimek describes a model designed to improve non-degree, non-formal in-service programs. The purpose of the model is to develop training experience for project participants through the use of educational television in-service programs in the following six areas: contrasting teaching styles; developing facts, concepts, and generalizations; strategies for valuing and decision-making; selecting and using learning resources, individualizing instruction; and objectives and evaluation. Each presentation consists of a detailed instructor's manual, materials for teacher's use, and videotaped sequences. The author claims that teacher responses are very favorable and that they like the emphasis on the practical, their own involvement, the opportunity to evaluate themselves, the uniqueness of the program and the stimulation to think.


The author claims that the introduction of mimeographed newspapers throughout the Liberian countryside resulted in better literacy programs, better countrywide news coverage, a marked increase in intertribal and interarea knowledge, and the opening of a new channel for the spread of developmental ideas. He suggests that this innovation is entirely within the capabilities of any nation using the resources on hand.


The Crusader, a slide/filmstrip projector, is small, durable, and very portable. It resembles a large flashlight weighing about two pounds, and operates on a variety of power supplies--four flashlight batteries, a small motorcycle-type rechargeable battery, sunlight, and so on. A carrying case provides for filmstrips and slides. A wide range of relevant materials can be projected by it--photographic slides of any sort; horizontal, "double-frame" filmstrips, vertical, "single-frame" filmstrips; and "do-it-yourself" handmade filmstrips (any drawn, written or otherwise reproduced photo or illustration on any kind of plastic strip). A publication, Visual Aids Tracing Manual...
METHODOLOGIES AND MATERIALS

is available from World Neighbors, Inc., 5116 No. Portland Avenue, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma 73112. It details how to make hand-drawn strips. The projector is adaptable to many uses and is presently being used by about 4,000 teachers in over 50 developing countries--literacy teachers, extension workers, schools, local businesses, villagers themselves--for such purposes as meetings, demonstrations, fairs, and entertainment.


6116. NATESH, A. "Radio for Literacy." Z Magazine (Lusaka, Zambia Information Services), No. 25 (June 1971), pp. 4-7.
Natesh describes a project, begun in 1969 with UNESCO assistance, seeking to inform and instruct adults on civic and community matters by means of literacy broadcasts. The author concludes that "informal evaluation shows the programmes to be doing excellent work."

This report describes the aims, production, and effects of non-formal programs in the two areas of education and culture. Special emphasis is placed on evaluating the influence of educational broadcasting on "common people," on women, and on children.

This book seeks to demonstrate the importance of modern audio-visual aids and techniques to management training. The first two chapters examine a number of problems faced by the training specialist. Chapter 3 considers the audio-visual aids themselves in three main groups: graphic materials, display equipment that involves projection, and student-controlled aids. For each aid, a description of how it works, what advantages and disadvantages it has, and how it can be used is included. Chapter 4 describes basic principles and suggests presentation techniques using overhead projection, film, and closed-circuit television. This is followed by a chapter on the provision of suitable
conditions with reference to room layout, screens, loudspeakers, and projectors and remote-control systems. Also included are hints on the preparation, construction, indexing, and storage of display materials. Four appendices provide a glossary of audio-visual terms, a film-evaluation questionnaire, a suppliers' list, and a session check list for training planners.


This study was conducted to develop a periodical (i.e., newspaper) that would encourage the formation of reading habits in developing nations where illiteracy, on the average, exceeds 40 percent. A so-called Flexible Format was designed and tested among the literate Sindebele population of Matabeleland, Rhodesia, to see if it would prove as acceptable as, or more acceptable than, a standard format in terms of sales. (Lower price, relevant content, ease of production, readability, and other characteristics were assumed to make the Flexible Format an appropriate educational tool for developing areas.) The second edition of the trial publication was prepared in both formats. When both were offered for sale simultaneously at distribution points throughout the trial area, the Flexible Format outsold the standard format by almost one hundred to one.


This tract reports on the December 1969 meeting of governmental experts on international arrangements in the space-communication field. Discussions covered a number of legal and technical matters in organizing satellite communication for more developmental-oriented educational programs both in and out of schools.

This volume presents proceedings of a June 1969 meeting that studied the effects of the mass media on society and the potential of mass media for use in non-formal educational efforts.


This article complains that most audio-visual equipment in less-developed countries is bought, locked in a cupboard, and never used because of lack of skilled staff, some mechanical breakdown, lack of supplies, and so on. It discusses nonprojected audio-visual aids, the flannel graph, wall charts, reprographic aids, the magnetic board, and the plastigraph, which are cheap, easy to handle, and well suited to formal or non-formal educational programs and settings in poor countries.


The author reports on a Polish non-formal educational television program begun in 1966 for adults. No degree or certificate was offered; the series served solely to assist out-of-school adults in mastering secondary-school subject matter (mathematics, science, theoretical mechanics) required for technical university candidates. Transmitting and instructional problems are discussed. The author concludes that the program has successfully met its objectives and has also served unintentionally to upgrade qualifications of secondary-school teachers, technical college graduates, and others who also viewed the lessons. The author contends that the television lecture series has, in addition, improved instruction by stimulating interest, discussion, and competition "between the various college chairs whose occupants conduct the lectures."

Other items related to the Audio-Visual and Mass Media area are

1142, 1143, 1224, 1228, 1233, 1247, 1312, 2108, 3106, 3306, 3309, 3509, 4309, 4702, 5804, 6401, 6512, 6521, 6522, 6731, 7114, 7146, 7224, 7232

In Castro's Cuba, the number-one priority is the educational and reeducation of the masses to create the new type of socially conscious citizen thought necessary for the survival and growth of the revolution. Fagen describes and assesses the strategy and tactics used in the national mobilization for the Literacy Campaign of 1961, the Schools-to-the Countryside encampments, and the schools for Revolutionary Instruction. Well written and objective, this is a valuable work on the Cuban education revolution in both its formal and nonformal aspects.


The authors present a case study of evaluation research, conducted from 1955-59 to that sought to measure learning (i.e., changes in campers attitudes) in a non-formal social-action program, the encampment for Citizenship. Part I covers principles of evaluation, the research design, and an "inquiry into the process by which the program produces effects." Part II describes the research setting, the participants, didactic and nondidactic features of the Encampment, short- and long-term changes "created by the Encampment, the dynamics of change, and long-range impact on conduct. The findings of several follow-up studies conducted indicate that the Encampment did indeed serve as a means of securing changes in cognition of such social problems as race relations, civil liberties, and the need to inculcate democratic attitudes and behaviors. Positive changes were not stable, however, and were mostly lost when campers returned home to face "hostile situations," i.e., "where Encampment ideals were challenged by prejudiced, undemocratic or intolerant people.

6204. INDIA. "The Work-Oriented Functional Literacy Programme in India." Agenda Item 5, Out-of-School Education and
This report describes a seemingly successful non-formal, on-the-job literacy education program for school-age, employed youth in an urban setting.


This workbook, for a Junior Youth Camp, provides materials for use in discussion of three important aspects of farm living: rural power, communication, and conservation. The materials presented are suggested aids and methods that might be utilized by camp teachers in the classes, teaching hints, suggested teaching methods, ideas about teaching aids, and a list of related games.


Paulston analyzes youth and adult non-formal educational activities of the Mass Education Movement in China from 1922 to 1949. He describes organizational aspects, programs, and problems of the vast literacy campaigns of the 1920s, the attempt to create a "social laboratory for rural reconstruction" at Ting Hsien in North China during the 1930s, and the effects of World War II on the Movement. He suggests that the literacy campaigns served as a powerful mobilizing device for "educating the educated," i.e., the teachers, students, and other nonpeasant participants and instructors in the campaigns. But Paulston also notes that lack of governmental support meant that the campaigns were at first largely restricted to urban areas where local financing was feasible and later were entirely terminated as Mao Tse-tung's revolution intensified.


To provide a general overview of the Youth Conservation
Camp environment and the differences and similarities among camps due to selective assignment and the "weeding-out" process, a review was made of four main camps operated by the California Youth Authority and the California Division of Forestry. An analysis of the major personal and background characteristics of the camp wards during 1962 and 1963 disclosed the following: the wards 15 years old and above who are assigned to camps are significantly different from Youth Authority wards in other institutions in terms of parole performance characteristics; no one camp displays a significant difference in overall parole performance in relation to the total camps; data from 1962 parolees suggests that there are differences in the parole performance of certain categories of wards when released from different camps; and wards assigned to each of the four camps show a number of significant characteristic differences in comparison with the proportion in the total camps. The report infers that camps are the independent variable responsible for differences between youth in camps and in other types of jails. Exactly what it is about the camps that supposedly makes the difference is not identified, however.


Stromanist gives an eyewitness account of the youth movement on the Isle of Youth (the former Isla de Pinos) in Cuba. At the encampments visited, young men and women, 15 to 25 years old and mostly of working-class and peasant families in Havana and Oriente provinces, work for six-month periods in agriculture, dam building, and rural development. They work in the fields from 7 A.M. to 6:30 P.M., with breaks and lunch at the work sites. During the evening, those who have not attained 6th grade study basic education, while those who have receive intensive political education.

Other items related to Campaigns, Encampments, and Labor are

1120, 2107, 3211, 2201, 3319, 4107, 4109, 4118, 4123, 4126, 4624, 4713, 5837, 6722

6300. CLASSES, SEMINARS, AND WORKSHOPS

6301. ADULT BASIC EDUCATION OFFICE. "Suggested Steps for Starting a Literacy Program with Volunteer Teachers and


Dowd presents a model of non-formal education, a rationale for human-relations training, and a design for a community-development workshop involving cognitive inputs, "T" groups, and task exercises.


Earlier research had shown that patterns of teacher influence could be associated with higher student achievement. This research had been concerned with quantifying spontaneous verbal interaction in the classroom. An experiment was set up to determine if verbal interaction could be improved through a non-formal in-service training program. Fifty-one teachers were selected for the study. They were observed at the outset and most were found to use direct methods in the classroom as opposed to spontaneous patterns of verbal influence. During the winter they were subjected to a nine-week in-service program. Part of the group met one day under the instructor, who used the lecture method. The other group met another day and verbally participated with the instructor. The effects of the program were evaluated by trained observers. Flanders Reports that the group exposed to verbal interaction tended to be more satisfied with the program. They also engaged in more experimentation in their classrooms and showed evidence of applying more indirect patterns of influence. The reverse was true of the more-directed group.

See Chapter V, "Administration of Non-Degree Training," for helpful advice on planning and carrying out non-formal courses, workshops, and institutes. Material on criteria for training projects, selecting participants, activities, instruction, materials, and evaluation strategies is included.


The findings of this study indicated statistically significant (.05) cognitive-affective attitudinal change immediately after participation in classroom ethnic relations. Delayed posttesting, however, indicated no change. The author suggests that cognitive knowledge influences ethnic attitudes, but as newly acquired knowledge fades attitudinal changes begin to revert to their original level. Also, because knowledge and attitudes are in constant interaction, simple pretest-posttest designs may be misleading; delayed posttesting would be less so.


Kozol reports on a three-week non-formal "Workshop in Cross-Cultural Education" held in Carson City, Nevada, in June 1969. Workshop senior staff were aggressive Eastern long-haired youths and junior staff were Indian high-school students selected primarily for verbal ability. The 300 older participants (average age 43) were conservatively dressed Western schoolteachers and administrators from the Bureau of Indian Affairs and from public schools. Kozol explains what happened during this workshop confrontation and suggests "methods of building on this first unique training endeavor."


Oakley explains why, with the increasing tempo of chang
in all areas of U.S. savings-and-loan operations, it has become imperative that association officers spend time annually in non-formal education seminars to keep abreast of new rules and concepts.


This booklet discusses how adults learn, how to create a good climate for learning, how to make lesson plans, how to group adult classes, how to make the classes varied and interesting, how to prevent students from dropping out, and how to conduct a group discussion.

Other items related to Classes, Seminars, and Workshops are

1222, 1224, 1303, 2107, 2116, 2221, 3105, 3218, 3601, 4117, 4221, 4306, 4514, 4516, 4519, 4524, 4601, 4609, 4708, 5101, 5102, 5107, 5704, 6205, 6716,

6400. CORRESPONDENCE


Clarke describes an adult-education program using an educational supplement in a regular newspaper ("The People") over an eight-month period. Three courses--communication, elements of government, and economics--were each published in the form of 30 weekly units. A tutorial service assessed and guided the weekly work of the 565 students registered for the course. Clarke contends that results of this experiment clearly indicate that correspondence
education using a newspaper as a medium can be a most useful and economic nonschool teaching device in developing countries. He claims, moreover, that there are undoubtedly additional benefits accruing from people who did not register, but who nevertheless followed the course.


This helpful resource work is also available from Afric Publishing in New York City.


6405. HOLMBERG, Borge. “Scandinavian Correspondence Education. Convergence, 1, 2 (1968), 54–56.

Holmberg reviews programs, purposes, and trends of Scandinavian correspondence education in teacher training, individual adult education, personnel training for administration and industry, and as a part of the formal school system. He concludes that linear and branching teaching programs have been found boring, bulky, relatively unsuccessful. In contrast, self-instructional texts modeled on correspondence courses have had great success. Holmberg concludes that "at least in Sweden, the correspondence course is widely regarded as the prototype of self-instructional material."


This volume contains a wide variety of materials on the uses, problems, and potential of correspondence study in both formal and non-formal educational settings.

The authors examine the problem of why many students enrolling in a correspondence study program did not complete the course. In the one-semester-hour courses nearly 13 percent of students did not submit even one lesson. The figures for the two- and three-hour courses were both over 20 percent. In the four-hour courses, nearly 32 percent do not submit the first lesson. A student in a one-hour course who submitted one lesson had an 85 percent chance of completing the course. Of students in two- and three-hour courses who submitted one lesson, over 70 percent went on to complete the course. Grade point averages (GPA) were not related to length of time taken to complete the course. The highest GPAs were earned by those who finished in one month; the next highest were earned by those who took over two years to complete the course.


This guide to correspondence study presents suggestions for good study habits and techniques and for taking examinations. A discussion of how adults learn is followed by information on necessary equipment, memorization, reading improvement, use of the study guide, submitting lessons, and grading of lessons. The section on final examinations includes discussion of the preparation and writing of both essays and objective-type examinations.

Other items related to Correspondence are

1205, 2119, 3612, 4538

6500. DEMONSTRATIONS AND EXTENSION

This paper examines how Malaysia's agricultural development goals necessitate a faster rate of technological change among traditional farmers, the modernization of farm practices, the commercialization of agriculture, higher efficiency in management, and greater crop diversification. Non-formal educational aspects of agricultural-extension programs in West Malaysia are examined and assessed vis-a-vis these pressing needs, and an integrated extension approach is proposed.


A study undertaken among commercial strawberry growers in the Fraser Valley of British Columbia, Canada, sought to define the network of personal contacts used by the farmers in obtaining information relevant to growing practices. Growers were divided into four adopter categories: laggards, late majority, early majority, and innovator-early adapters. Although the level of adoption was generally high, the higher levels of practice adoption occurred among those growers characterized by larger farms and higher incomes who were relatively younger, were better educated, and had better-educated wives. Ethnic differences in patterns of personal contact and of adoption were noted. The study concludes that personal contacts were far more effective than impersonal sources of information in effecting the adoption of innovations; that the extension service tends to concentrate on personal contacts with a few farmers and to use impersonal contacts for the majority; and that the extension service's use of non-formal group instruction and local opinion leaders can extend the range of personal contacts and thus more effectively encourage innovation.


In March 1968 the National Museum opened a room "specially prepared for children and for visitors of a poor cultural standard." The Museum's educational department intended that this art-education room should serve as another experiment "in order to reach a public untutored in matters of art." Previous attempts at art education for workers were unsuccessful because the special courses "were not sufficiently attractive." As classes were not
METHODOLOGIES AND MATERIALS

effective, "some more means was needed to famil-

iarize so many-sided a pl... with the plastic and graphic


arts and arouse in it a modicum of interest." This article

in English and French describes the organization and content

of the art-education room, or Sala Didactica, its "success"
in attracting 17,000 visitors in nine months, and plans to
duplicate the room in other museums throughout the island.
It is interesting that the Cuban revolution seeks to make
European high culture available to the masses so as to
raise their cultural level, whereas the Chinese culture
revolution rejects European high culture and seeks to re-
place it with a national proletarian mass culture.

6504. BORGHEGYI, Stephen F. de. "The Museum as a Cultural

Centre in the Development of the Community." Fifth
UNESCO Regional Seminar, Mexico City, September 17-

6505. "CENTO Conference on Agricultural Extension," Ankara,
Denizli, and Izmir, Turkey, April 12-22, 1967. Pp. 49.

The conference report argues for a more-comprehensive
view of the functions of agricultural extension. Papers
presented discuss, inter alia, non-formal education and
training needs in agriculture extension programs covering
agricultural credit, water management, fertilizers, intro-
duction of new seeds, livestock, home economics, and
marketing. In addition, case studies from Turkey, Iran,
and Pakistan are presented. The report stresses that all
areas in which extension is involved must be included in
an integrated program.

6506. CENTRAL FAMILY PLANNING INSTITUTE (CFPI). Guide
to Extension Work in Family Planning. CFPI Monograph

6507. CHANG, C. W. Extension Education for Agricultural and

Rural Development. Bangkok: United Nations Food and

The author presents a teaching manual on agricultural
extension. The book tries to answer such questions as the
following: what should be the goals in extension; how can
programs help the farming population to increase agricul-
tural production and improve their lives; how should pro-
grams be organized and administered so as to achieve
maximum efficiency? Chang also discusses extension
teaching methods, extension teaching materials, the importance of farmers' organizations, lay leadership development, and rural youth development. Case studies of extension programs in Southeast Asia are given. He suggests that agricultural extension is an essential government service because it aims at the development of people so that they can do things for themselves. Its effectiveness depends largely upon the kind of people it can employ, the amount of backing it can obtain from research stations, and the facilities with which it works.


This study is based on the premise that if one is able to identify the areas of behavior in which professionals require competence, one can link this behavior to a related structure of concepts that may serve as logical teaching and learning objectives in the development of non-formal training programs. A sample of 211 extension agents (in agriculture, home economics, and 4-H work) in 30 countries in New York State provided 419 incidents of behavior that respondents thought to be critical to the achievement of effective or ineffective outcomes in extension activity. A structure of categories of agent behavior was developed and linked to the concepts within a structure of related concepts. The four functional areas derived were as follows: systems and their growth and development, planned change and development, management of change and development, and influencing adoption and innovation. Use of the general-systems concept as an ordering mechanism has provided a general model or a series of models of aspects of the different functions and processes involved. It also provides a way of perceiving the role of the extension agent within the general-extension education process.


This study provides helpful suggestions about how learning programs in schools and museums might be more effectively linked using non-formal educational activities.


The author sees the principal advantages of television in agricultural extension as its ability to reach large illiterate audiences simultaneously and its ability to make available localized activities such as experimental farms, which most audiences could never visit. Major disadvantages are high cost, difficulty of maintenance, commercial and nonservice orientation, audience-learner feedback limitations, and the "rejection of information unacceptable to the viewer." Howell concludes that, before radio and television are to be used with real effect as instruments of adult education and agricultural extension, greater progress must be made in overcoming the remoteness of television and in arranging for better feedback and audience participation techniques.


The authors discuss what cooperative extension work is, how the extension system works, what the extension program entails, extension methods, and how extension work applies to countries other than the United States. They state that the concept of the extension educational process includes five essential phases in a cycle that may be expected to result in progress from a given situation to that of a more desirable situation--i.e., situation and problems, objectives and solutions, teaching plan of work, evaluation, and reconsideration. This publication is considered by many as the "bible" of extension education.

This study develops a model for depicting communication in non-formal extension education in developing nations, with emphasis on the role of extension communicators in such settings. The present model was formulated on the basis of existing ones and then was compared with the actual situation as found in the literature on communication and on diffusion of agricultural innovations. Elements of this model include the communicator, his aims, the handling of the message, specific channels of communication, the motives and response of audiences or receivers, and subsequent action taken along with consequences. Such communication is represented as intentional, specific, highly planned, and continuous, occurring on a social and interpersonal level and in a physical and social environment and consisting of two interdependent subprocesses (sending and receiving) that run parallel but do not necessarily start simultaneously.


Leagans reviews the professional competencies needed by extension workers. He states that effective extension work today, and in the future, will have to be fashioned within a highly complex social, economic, and political situation. Extension workers will need abilities at the level of integrated professional behavior--i.e., knowledge of technology, skill in dealing with people, and proficiency with the educational process in ways that get the job done. Leagans notes that "it is now clear that Extension Service is dealing with a dynamic parade, not with a static congregation. Personnel with abilities adequate to perform effectively the current professional tasks is extension's best assurance against becoming lost in the passing parade of progress." He concludes that extension workers must constantly seek to clarify further the professional abilities needed and to attain them as rapidly and as completely as possible.

Pletsch seeks to identify, define, and operationalize the communication concepts required by adult educators in non-formal agricultural education programs to fulfill their role as educational change agents. Four stages were seen—
the determination of anticipated behavioral requirements, identification of relevant communication concepts, the definition and description of the concepts, and the development of suggested educational objectives. A review of research reports and projections by experts in agricultural education was conducted and a list of an anticipated intellectual behavioral requirement developed. An extensive review of literature by authorities in the field of communication served to identify relevant communication concepts. It was concluded that the study of technical, social, and economic trends and related changes was an effective way of determining intellectual behavior requirements needed for future competence in communication.


In Indonesia, third- and fourth-year agricultural students have successfully worked with village farmers and conducted non-formal education classes to increase rice yields. The key to success was that students lived in the villages and worked only with a limited number of neighboring farmers. Overexpansion and consequent dilution of the program in 1965-66 proved unsatisfactory.


The author believes that museums must become dynamic cultural complexes offering community-wide non-formal education activities in close cooperation with universities and major scientific research institutions. He presents a number of suggestions and models to this end.

Designed to stimulate and support training for extension work and to orient new employees, this book covers the Cooperative Extension Service (CES) and its methods of operation. It describes the status of rural extension in the United States and abroad; the history of the CES and its antecedents; the legal basis, scope, functions, and general objectives of the CES; and its administrative organization. Some contributions of sociology and educational psychology are also set forth. Program development is discussed in terms of changing emphases and the quest for fuller, more effective clientele involvement. Part IV gives guidelines on radio and television, visual aids, "ephemeral publications, demonstrations, and meetings. Community development, 4-H clubs, rural development, lay leadership, group discussion, and other methods and techniques for planning and carrying out change are discussed. Subsequent chapters deal with reporting and public relations, personnel training and development, and prospects for the future.


Scott surveys the rise of agricultural extension education in the United States from the 1780s to 1914. He examines in detail the importance of contributions of the farm press, local agriculture clubs, county fairs, and colleges to the improvement of farming technology.


Sheon presents a brief international survey of the present state of museums and cultural-resources utilization and an overview of UNESCO's training contribution. He suggests that museums can play an important role in economic and social development programs by strengthening national identity, developing a greater awareness of national cultural heritage, and conscious efforts at using non-formal educational activities to further cultural integration. The National Museum of Anthropology in Mexico City, with its extensive and excellent youth and adult education programs, is cited as an outstanding example.


Museums went through many changes before the principle
of free public access was established. At first restricted to very special publics, access was later allowed to scholars, then to artists, and finally to the general public; the non-formal educational services of the museums developed simultaneously. Museums are attempting to mesh these new educational activities with traditional scholarly activities. They are, for example, already caught up in the adult-education movement. Since this is very different from education for the young, the museum director should separate and approach differently his work with adults and with youngsters. Labels must be made easily understandable; circulation of adults can be arranged according to the principle of progressive self-selection. A museum should see that guides are knowledgeable but allow them to have a variety of styles of presentation. It may advertise its exhibits through the mass media, through work with organizations, or through direct mail. There should be some effort to evaluate the educational impact of a museum event. Appendixes include a description of educational activities of the Polytechnical Museum in Moscow and of adult education in museums in Mexico.

Other items related to the Demonstration and Extension area are

1103, 1106, 1120, 1123, 1222, 1308, 1311, 1318, 2116, 3206, 3510, 4103, 4131, 4228, 4301, 4635, 4709, 4720, 5103, 5104, 5108, 5109, 5111, 5112, 5114, 5115, 5116, 5218, 5223, 5303, 5826, 5842, 5843, 5844, 5903, 6109, 6721, 7164, 7221

6600. DIDACTIC AND PROGRAMMED MATERIALS


This case study, prepared for use in Peace Corps training programs for volunteers to be assigned to community-development projects, is divided into thirteen problems and subproblems forming a continuous story. At significant points in the story, discussion outlines are listed that draw out essential factors in the case study. The workbook stresses that to be an effective community-development worker one must attempt to understand the motives and
values of host-country nationals and the possibilities for action that reasonably follow in any given cultural setting.


This collection of case studies prepared to assist in training Peace Corps volunteers for community-development work in Latin America and includes earlier experiences of volunteers in the area. It points out that the prospective Peace Corps volunteer should become acquainted with the kinds of personal adjustment problems he will face in his assignment overseas. It is essential that the volunteer attempt to understand not only the host national behavior exhibited but also what the volunteer’s situation and potential behavior might be.


This first of four volumes prepared for AID provides a systematic curriculum covering theory and practice for training courses offered by the Bolivian national community-development program. Although primarily intended for the preparation of village workers, the curriculum contains much that is of interest to anyone concerned with methods and problems of directed communal change.


Ansari discusses basic principles and offers suggestions on the organization of literacy classes, students' roles, equipment and materials, methods of teaching, and follow-up activities.


This is a literacy education text tailored to the Appalachian context.

This general training manual is divided into four parts: philosophy, theory, and principles of community development; training (i.e., preservice, in-service, and lay-leadership); methods; and a comparative look at programs of community development.


6609. BUCHANAN, Cynthia Dee. Programmed Reading For Adults New York: McGraw-Hill.
This literacy-education series consists of the following:

This manual provides specific suggestions for reading instructors in non-formal education programs for mature, partly illiterate students, illiterate students, and "disadvantaged youth" who have not completed high school. Proposed reading strategies are accompanied by examples of materials suitable for each area. Techniques are offered for diagnosing skills, as well as for teaching, reinforcement, and evaluation in the areas of visual and auditory discrimination, vocabulary development, phonetic and structural analysis, listening, speaking, studying, and comprehension.

The aim of this manual is to offer a "systematic theoretical and practical approach to the school as a major institution.
of culture and to present the basic information that the
teacher-leader must know for an inter-ethnic classroom. "It also has considerable general utility for cross-cultural teaching and learning situations in non-formal education as well, especially with regard to Anglo-Hispanic cultural groups.

6612. CHINESE CENTER FOR INTERNATIONAL TRAINING I.

This is a family-planning booklet used in non-formal educational activities of the Center.

6613. CO-OPERATIVE UNION LTD. Co-Operative Education.

This handbook of practical guidance for cooperative educationists is designed to be comprehensive enough to accommodate most of the questions that arise in the local organization of non-formal cooperative education and, at the same time, intensive enough to offer answers of fairly detailed guidance. Using practical examples, it discusses typical aspects and problems with which an education committee must commonly deal from goal formation to points of law. It suggests that, because the cooperative movement has been largely educational, the more effectively and efficiently the education committee functions, the better the cooperative will function. To this end, it is necessary for the committees to be aware of the duties, responsibilities, and possibilities of their actions. It concludes that "the Co-operative aim is not ultimately to set up certain forms of economic organization or to control certain sector of the economy. Rather it is to produce men and women who have cultivated those capacities for cooperation in which they will find their fulfillment."


This training manual reviews the effectiveness of non-formal programs stressing simulation, cross-cultural awareness, and cultural self-awareness to personnel who
are concerned with counterinsurgency training. It presents a strong case for new training innovations by discussing ambiguities involved in the overseas situation, describes simulation, and reviews the process of developing training criteria. It argues that two of the most serious problems in evaluating cross-cultural operations are the lack of a convincing criterion of effectiveness for such work and the lack of a theoretical basis verifiable in the field.


This is an excellent how-to-do-it guide based on considerable experience in the field (Ghana). The chapters on "Community Development and Extension Education," "Audio Visual Aids in Community Development," and "Personnel and Training Problems in Community Development" are of particular interest. The appendixes on terminology, definitions, records, and staff training are also helpful.


Hoehn presents information dealing with the design of non-formal training for military advisors, with particular attention to the objectives toward which the training should be directed and the kinds of content coverage needed. He claims that factors that make the advisor's assignment quite different from typical military assignments include unusual physical and cultural settings, the unfamiliar functions to be performed, and the complex intercultural, international, interorganizational, and interpersonal aspects of the job. Hoehn stresses that adequate preparation
requires a high order of knowledge and skills that can be
developed only by adoption of new perspectives for area
training.

6618. KOREA. NATIONAL FAMILY PLANNING CENTER. Reference
Materials in Family Planning and Population Studies. Seoul:
Ministry of Health and Social Affairs, 1970.

6619. LAUBACH, Frank C., KIRK, Elizabeth Mooney, and LAUBACH,
This series consists of the following:

6620. LEMMER, Joseph, Jr. A Teacher's Guide on Cooperative
Enterprise in the American Economy. Chicago. Cooperative
League of the United States, 1968.
This guide provides a reference for adult-education
teachers presenting a course on the organization, structure,
and role of cooperative enterprise in the United States. It
presents a comprehensive treatment of all types of coopera-
tive enterprises—their relationship to one another and their
relationship to other types of business organizations. The
guide sets out a suggested lesson plan covering teaching
objectives, the cooperative enterprise, text references and,
related available material and topics for classroom dis-
cussion about cooperative enterprises. Lemmer argues
that, while it is true that cooperative enterprises have a
much-smaller total volume than other forms of business
organization, cooperative enterprises are, nonetheless,
the most widely owned type of enterprise in existence;
more people participate in ownership of cooperative enter-
prises than in any other form of organization.

6621. MARAMARCO, Phyllis N. The Kindergarten of the Church:
For Use as Curricula in the Sunday and Day Kindergarten
of the Church, in Home and Camp, and in Leadership
Education. Hartford, Conn. Hartford Seminary Foundation

6622. MORLAN, John E. Preparation of Inexpensive Teaching Mat-
Pp. 103.


This syllabus for a ten-week non-credit course covering appraising building and land, reading deeds, and so on, is used in the Association's well-developed courses that prepare instructors for local courses on the subjects. The Association's extensive non-formal educational program--the in-service training of professionals to prepare them to disseminate information and improve practice at the community level--is an exemplar of its type.


This programmed-instruction project for adult 4-H leaders was undertaken to develop four versions of a ten-unit program covering the basic 4-H concepts, to field test all four on a national sample of leaders, and to prepare a final research edition of the course based on the response model proving most effective.


This manual for trainers of welfare aides seeks to utilize the trainers' field experience. It encourages people to look at their job performance within the framework of experiencing, identifying, analyzing, and generalizing. Hints are given as to how to develop an understanding of the role of organizations, how to interview prospective trainees in small or large groups, and how to order and use the


Perhaps the most widely used how-to-do-it literacy education handbook in use during the 1960s.
information gathered. It also instructs on how to develop an agreement with agency managers about training and then how to plan non-formal training programs. It covers specific goals, scheduling, optional techniques, use of outside resources, plans for evaluation, and relationships with co-trainers. Key areas are suggested for program success--i.e., the entry process, contract-building, the group climate, the trainer's role, observation, working with other trainers, and using consultants. Discussion of evaluation using participants, trainers, and on-the-job experience follows. A helpful Program Evaluation and Review Technique (PERT) chart is included.


The authors present a systematic approach to training organized around the following six steps: the analysis of training needs; development of efficient instructional techniques, preparation of course material, use of analytical method training, and assessing of advantages to be gained; clerical work measurement, methods for recording training and measuring the costs, and commercial apprenticeships and their minimum requirements and advantages. The last chapter presents a list of useful publications, films, film strips, and organizations.


This guide is designed to aid agricultural-education teachers in planning and implementing adult non-formal education courses in farm business and management. Introductory chapters on the elements of modern adult education, the organization of an adult agricultural-education program, and suggestions for using the course of study are followed by course outlines for Farm Management I-Farm Records and Accounts (15 units), Farm Management II-Farm Business Analysis (12 units), and Farm Management III-Farm Business Organization (12 units). Instructional units provide teacher objectives, suggested teaching activities and experiences, content, and references. Many are illustrated with charts, tables, sample forms, and graphs.

This manual for Peace Corps workers includes a variety of AID pamphlets, several examples of posters, and several how-to-do-it papers. Major sections include culture resource materials, sanitation resource materials, and programs for community non-formal and school health education programs.


This book was prepared as a training manual designed to bring together practical and proven tools to prepare effective programs for the non-formal education of the worker in the many aspects of his roles as a trade unionist and as a citizen. After discussing the rationale of labor education and the nature of adult learning, the methods are presented for preparing a program, planning a course and lessons, and presenting the first class. This is followed by detailed discussions of the various teaching methodologies and how to use audio-visual materials. A chapter on evaluation concludes the text. Appendices include sample programs and bibliographic and teaching-aid resource lists.


This is a graduated series of easy-reading material consisting of articles adapted from Reader's Digest. In each book there are several simple stories. At the end of each story, there are various exercises, such as filling in the missing words, answering questions with "yes" or "no," testing the reader's comprehension, choosing a proper name for the story, making words plural, and so on. The last page of each book contains the answers to all the exercises of the book. The stories are written on many different subjects to attract children or new readers. Each book has no more than 30 pages.

Other items related to Didactic and Programme Materials are 1318, 2106, 3504, 4527, 4603, 4626, 4715, 5106, 5202, 5203, 291


6703. BELBIN, R. M. The Discovery Method: An International Experiment in Retraining. OECD; 1969. Pp. 85. This report describes four experiments using the discovery method for older workers. The Austrian project was concerned with stonemasons, the U.K. project with locomotive drivers, and the Swedish study with the reading and interpretation of engineering drawings. In the United States, three case studies covered workers in machine shops, data processing, and electrical work. Belbin claims that these experiments prove the Discovery Method to be more suitable than traditional methods, especially for older workers. Moreover, it permits a shorter training period. With this method, tasks and problems of various grades are presented to the trainees according to their level of knowledge and progress. It is in solving the problems that the trainee can find out how things work and why. A progressive series of tasks and problems are presented to the trainee enabling him to master the increasingly difficult and involved skills and knowledge. Belbin concludes that the success of the method depends on the careful definition of the requirements of specific jobs and on their translation into an ordered series of tasks and problems. The training designer is therefore the key person in the program, and the wide use of this method depends upon increasing the number of such persons in each country.

A management-education planning approach called Computer-Assisted Subject Area (CASA) has been conceptualized as a framework for viewing, evaluating, and recording efforts to improve the effectiveness of a subject area to be integrated within an overall curriculum. CASA is a generalized set of models that feature the following: a hierarchy of activities in developing a subject area; an organizational library structure, or information repository, for noting and updating findings and working criteria for use in curriculum planning; and a network of cybernetic representation to highlight dynamic interrelationships between various human and machine elements. Use of CASA is illustrated in planning a series of non-formal education programs to give practicing managers a broad but concise introduction to computer technology. Eleven teaching/learning modules were developed, with attention to features and limitations, panel discussions, and other methods and media. Two experimental computer programs (Leisure and Architect/Client) led to the conclusion that persons untrained in computer use could readily gain a basic understanding of computer-augmented teaching.


Button presents a guide to a heuristic method of training people—especially professionals—in essential social skills. The students' personal discoveries and experiences are utilized as the core of the non-formal training efforts.


This paper deals with job analysis for the preparation of job-training programs. The analytical approach involves the following five steps: enlisting support, examining the job, describing the job, analyzing training requirements, and planning the programs. Appendices include methods of producing training schemes—the simple job breakdown, straightforward analysis of a job of medium complexity (the loading gateman in a crushed stone quarry), and detailed analysis and breakdowns of a complex job (face shovel driver in a quarry). Also included is a case study of job analysis in a company employing 800 people.

This paper presents a method for assessing training needs, deals with various phases of training, and points out the importance of outside specialists, the recording of information, and the use of alternative methods. Then, five illustrative case studies are presented.


This project was developed to compare achievement at three levels of instruction (grades 0-3, 4-6, 7-8) in an adult-learning laboratory and in a sample of additional adult basic education (ABE) classes. Classes, stressing prevocational readiness and personal growth, had similar class hours, numbers of students, and a representative sample of out-of-school youth and adults in the Cincinnati public schools ABE program. The classes, which focused on the non-formal learning of skills offered 100 hours of instruction in language arts, arithmetic, and general education based largely on printed materials. The learning laboratory provided for independent study and individualized instruction through a variety of programmed and self-instructional materials as well as audio-visual aids. Much study was accomplished at home in leisure hours. Two major findings were that average gains in test scores showed educational needs were being served by both approaches, but that Level 3 gains, being somewhat lower than anticipated, indicate a need for more of both traditional and programmed materials.


The period of this study extended from August 1968 through June 1969. New York University provided a study team to refine the methodology to be used in the study, to collect and treat relevant data, and to prepare this final report containing findings and recommendations. The library systems provided data on existing programs for "disadvantaged" blacks. The purposes of the study were
as follows: (a) to evaluate existing outreach programs for the disadvantaged; (b) to determine, portray, and summarize the personality characteristics in cognitive style of the disadvantaged population that should be viewed in the planning of library or educational projects or programs; (c) to summarize and present demographic data on the unique characteristics of the depressed areas of each city included in the study; and (d) to derive realistic recommendations that can be implemented. The report includes findings and recommendations, a philosophical position on community control of the library, characteristics of the disadvantaged group the library strives to reach, and separate discussions of the situations in Buffalo, Rochester, and Syracuse.


This study analyzes the range of objectives, roles, employment patterns, and settings in British community work; identifies future objectives and roles, especially in such areas as psychology and sociology; and recommends methods and subject content for non-formal professional community-worker training. Existing training provisions— in-service training, further education courses, refresher courses, and the like—are varied but limited. Accordingly, short-range and long-range steps are proposed to use scarce resources to meet differing needs of full-time community workers as well as of teachers, social workers, clergy, health workers, architects, and others with an element of community concern in their work.


This historical and comparative study examines the folk high school movement in Denmark from the standpoint of the new humanism as expressed in the writings of Carl Rogers, Abraham Maslow, Sidney Jourard, and others. These schools are unique among the many non-formal educational forms and institutions Western man has developed. As private, nonprofit residential schools, with a term of five months, accepting students over age 18, they offer neither examinations nor diplomas. Their goal is primarily the "enlivenment" and only secondarily the
"enlightenment" of an individual. They seek to bring students into contact with their culture in both their community and the wider world and to make them aware of their place in that culture. Their method is the "living word," i.e., whatever goes on in a seminar or some other activity must have meaning for students. Fellowship among students and between students and teachers is an essential part of the experience. The author concludes that folk-school practices and philosophy are congruent with the new humanistic view of man and that the success of the movement attests to the value of humanistic principles as a basis for education.


The authors evaluate existing knowledge and experience in the area of human-relations training, especially its rationale and its uses and applications, in order to determine its relevance for training Americans to work effectively in overseas settings. They review existing knowledge and experience in human-relations training to determine its relevance to preparing personnel for the cross-cultural aspects of overseas assignments; examine the training techniques of training groups (T-groups), role-playing, and case studies; and treat each with respect to general description, evidence as to its effectiveness, its applications in area training, and possible modifications for its use in training people for overseas work.


The author, project director of Rural Family Development (RFD), argues that in adult basic education (ABE) the crippling absence of ABE instructional materials—most are merely adaptations of elementary school texts—will only be overcome with the creation of a national center for ABE materials development. The center, he suggests, should carry out research, produce experimental material...
and work closely with commercial problems as a central coordinating agency. It should include content, development experts, research specialists, evaluation experts, and communications professionals. Frank concludes that "the sooner, we divorce ourselves from traditional elementary youth-centered criteria for education improvement, the better off we'll be. Let's develop our own system of ABE criteria that are directly related to needs of our special clientele."


The development and implementation of a course curriculum for the non-formal training of youth officers in both statutory and volunteer employment is the subject of this document. The twin principles underlying the course were the systematic use of the combined talents of the staff and the implementation of a "student centered" course seeking to meet his needs, deal with his problems, mobilize his interests, and tap his existing resources. In all, 57 persons participated--45 males and 12 females. Of these, 39 were statutory, and 18 were volunteer youth officers. The students were actively engaged in the planning and the working of the course in a variety of ways--drawing up the syllabus, devising a work program for projects, supporting each other, and selecting what they would study. The first two weeks of the five-week course were spent in studying objectives, and the remaining three weeks were spent on a selection of aspects of training, administration, evaluation, inquiry, and community development. All members undertook some project work on a topic of their own choice. Students' views were sought during the course by a weekly questionnaire and afterwards by a follow-up assessment of the course by participants. The predominant feeling of respondents was that of satisfaction, particularly with the students' participation in decision-making processes.


This volume includes 37 selected articles and extensive editorial comments on the laboratory approach to sensitivity
The book illustrates basic T-group dynamics, suggesting their tone and texture, and analyzes the processes of group development, providing theoretical frameworks to aid understanding. Moral and ethical issues are also raised.


This book is designed for an adult-literacy training course to be given orally in the language of volunteer teacher candidates. Basic principles of arousing interest, of the psychology of adult learners, of methods of teaching, and of class organization and records are dealt with succinctly and clearly.


This book presents a critical analysis of theoretical approaches to the subject.


In an attempt to determine the effect of an intensive four-week experimental non-formal education program on the behavior of agricultural occupations teachers, two independent samples were selected consisting of an experimental group of eleven high-school and seven junior-college teachers and a control group of eleven high-school teachers. Only the experimental group received an organized program of in-service education, instruction, and structured on-the-job occupational experiences in agricultural firms. Three pretest instruments were completed by the junior-college teachers. 
instructors, and all the teachers completed the posttest at the conclusion of the experiment. In addition, ratings and descriptions of program effectiveness were collected from participating businessmen. The mean posttest scores of the experimental program were significantly higher than their mean pretest scores. The overall reaction to the programs by the teachers and businessmen was excellent to good. Mannabhach concludes that agricultural education should continue to develop and offer short-term in-service non-formal education programs and that more emphasis should be placed upon developing instruments to evaluate new and innovative programs.


This article describes a crash course in literacy based on learning the 600 basic characters, or ideograms, used most frequently in Mao’s works. It claims that, "by spending 200-300 hours of their spare time over a period of 6 months, illiterate workers and peasants can apply this method to study and understand Chairman Mao’s works."


This evaluation guide advises on the creation of a decision-making profile covering the characteristics of and the differences among instructional materials. It is organized into a discussion of the evaluation process, a section on setting operational objectives, a specific plan for a group practicum experience, various forms for rating materials, and a reaction sheet. This is a helpful guide for reviewing materials precisely and objectively, for pointing out real differences that are important, and for providing the reviewer with a facility for going back to check his previous profile decisions concerning certain materials.

In this much-revised edition of *Diffusion of Innovations* (1962), the authors examine how innovations (defined as ideas, products, and practices perceived as new by an individual) diffuse in social systems. They present 103 generalizations, or propositions, drawn from over 1,500 publications, which attempt to synthesize existing knowledge of how innovations spread and factors influencing adoption or rejection. The transfer of new ideas through a variety of non-formal learning situations is discussed in detail.


Thompson defines the role and elements of a systems approach for the non-formal training of administrators; develops a model to serve as a guide for educational and training planners; and provides a set of criteria for the optimum utilization of resources. The literature is reviewed, specific graphic and mathematical analysis in education and training are analyzed, and a new synthesis is devised for modeling and evaluation. Thompson found that a substantial deficiency existed in the use of systems approach in training, that task analysis was the method for achieving systems feedback to control and stabilize the optimum training system, and that graphic analogs are valuable tools for analyzing existing institutions and for constructing new ones. He recommends that systems design should become a recognized discipline in training and design development.


Vaughterin advocates new roles for public-school teachers in the non-formal instruction and training of "elected workers' leaders to cope adequately with their responsibilities and to tackle their own problems." First, teachers "must recognize that they are workers linked to other workers by the common interests which bind together the trade-union movement." The author notes that, in addition to good will...
teachers need special training in methods and techniques of workers' education—such as group discussion and the use of audio-visual aids—as well as an awareness of a number of psychological obstacles arising in part from differences in social levels and in amount and type of schooling on the worker's part—and from paternalism and authoritarianism on the teacher's part—which tend to estrange the worker and the teacher.

The author argues that if such exchanges between workers and teachers—be they rural village teachers or professors—can be developed, then institutions of learning can be brought into closer contact with life and reality and educators with the world of labor, while the trade unions will get the training they so eagerly seek.


Ward discusses how instructional technology can help non-formal education programs to clarify objectives and deal with matters of "how, where, and using what" to accomplish educational objectives and assess results. He also comments on applications in ethno-pedagogy ("the study of relationships between culture and styles of teaching") and proposes three research problems relating "studies in ethno-pedagogy to the matter of non-formal education." A six-page paper entitled "Non-Formal Education as a Problem of Educational Anthropology" by the author is a companion piece.


The authors question whether non-formal education is a fad, another attempt to "find utopia through putting new labels on the status quo." They note that the problems of alternatives to formal schools rarely hinge on the degree of formality of the educational operation, but rather on considerations of costs and objectives-reaching performance. Thus, the pedagogies of formal education may be appropriate for non-formal education to the extent that they can help reach new objectives at lower cost. They conclude that the most demanding task is in designing effective learning.
programs in the non-formal sector are to relate properly instructional programs to the learners' characteristics and life experiences and to develop administrative and evaluative frameworks that will assure "the continuous refinement of the system." This is a helpful, provocative study.

Weaver describes how the British Volunteer Program has systematically used rural theaters "to open new horizons for children and give them more confidence in their ability to develop their own community."

When Congress passed the 1968 Vocational Education Act with its special provisions for cooperative education, they highlighted the value and rapid growth of non-formal, on-the-job education programs. With increased emphasis on cooperative education comes the need for investigating the present practices of selecting and preparing the on-the-job trainer assigned to a student-learner. For the most part, data for the study was gathered by reviewing related literature and visiting a sample of nine two-year institutions to interview teacher-coordinators. An analysis of the interview findings led to the conclusion that the selection of the on-the-job trainer was under the control of the teacher-coordinator through his approval or disapproval of the cooperating employer. It was also concluded that the on-the-job trainer was given little, if any, planned preparation before he undertook his teaching task. Wilson recommends that teacher-coordinators must take advantage of their responsibility and position to control the selection and preparation of the on-the-job trainers.
7100. BIBLIOGRAPHIES AND DIRECTORIES


This extensively annotated list of references "for AID technicians" is organized in four major sections: (1) Definition and Scope of Non-Formal Education, (2) Functions, (3) Delivery Systems, and (4) Target Areas.


This annotated bibliography presents 86 entries on in-service training classified into the following sections: Regional Conferences (National Institute of Mental Health planning conferences on in-service training held in 1963); Multidiscipline, Multilevel Training; Professionals (administrators, psychiatrists, psychologists, and psychiatric nurses); Child Care Workers; Aides, Attendants, Technicians; and Volunteers.


Lists numerous reports of non-formal educational efforts resulting from the joint "Vicos Project" of Cornell University and the Peruvian National Indian Institute during the 1950s and early 1960s.

This volume includes selected materials on out-of-school educational and training programs.


The authors review the literature and propose a research agenda on questions of motivation, planning, curriculum, media, teachers, organization and administration, evaluation, and linguistic problems in literacy programs. Sixty-four items are critically annotated in the bibliographic section.


This annotated bibliography includes books, documents, and periodicals covering educational planning, administration, and programs in both formal and non-formal education sectors.


This very extensive cross-referenced work is divided into major sections on general theory, industrialization, urbanization, and rural modernization. It includes many case studies either directly or indirectly concerned with problems and processes of non-formal education in both
urban and rural settings. Current to the mid-1960s, this is an excellent reference work.


The bibliography is divided into four sections: history, philosophy, and strategy; selection and training of personnel, teachers, supervisors, and advisors; students or trainees; and materials, systems, and programs. It deals mainly with literacy training but also considers other facets of adult basic education. The annotations are extensive and include other resources on literacy programs and problems, for the most part in Latin America.


A helpful compilation of current publications on the non-formal training of paraprofessionals for formal schools.


This Volume lists books and periodicals dealing with educational change and alternative models. Each entry includes a brief description. Numerous items on non-formal education programs and possibilities are contained.


This annotated bibliography, on literacy training in rural areas of Latin America includes numerous items on non-formal educational aspects of teaching literacy, on training staff, and on materials and audio-visual aids found to be of value in such efforts.

Items are extensively annotated. Any propositions that the material might contain are listed following the annotation with a comment on evidence presented. The work is organized into seven major coding categories: geographic, economics, agriculture, social change, education, and politics and government. Items concerning non-formal educational programs are included in Sections 6.08 (agricultural schooling and extension), 6.09 (adult and fundamental education), 6.10 (education through mass media) and 6.16 (human-resource development).

The coding indexing and search systems used are highly complex and limit the work's utility. This is unfortunate as many special items are included and well annotated. The propositions presented are often provocative and always of interest.


Not more than 2 percent of the 5 million physically and mentally handicapped children in the developing countries in the Commonwealth are known to be in school. Governments burdened by more pressing problems, it would seem have been unwilling or unable to regard the provision of education for handicapped children as more than peripheral. Moreover, the number of handicapped children is rapidly increasing as medical care becomes more widely available and the problem is likely to intensify in the future. This directory takes stock of existing provisions in Commonwealth member countries in both special schools and in non-formal education training facilities. Data are organized into eleven categories: responsible authority, other public or private bodies involved, publication and reports, schools and institutions, staffing, teacher-training faculties and arrangements, aid, finance, legislation, incidence of handicap, and other information.

These complimentary annotated bibliographies cover the following areas on continuing professional education: surveys, bibliographies, and general works, engineering and technical education, chemistry and clinical psychology; medicine and health; in-service education and retraining for teachers, administrators, and other educational personnel; the clergy; public administration; the armed forces; social work; library science; and law. Professions examined in the greatest depth are engineering, medicine, education, and administration, but whether the reason for this is that they produce the greatest number of programs and the most research or merely that they are the most accessible is not made clear.

A number of common features emerge in particular non-formal programs and across professions. Some of the concerns in the engineering studies include obsolescence, motivation to participate in educational programs, lack of program evaluation, management training, the correlates of participation in educational programs, and job advancement. In the medical and health studies, there is greater emphasis on the need for evaluation. A survey of medical care and continuing education of physicians by G. E. Miller (Current Information Sources, No. 24, p. 23) reveals that several studies on the effects of postgraduate non-formal education upon physicians' behavior indicate that there is little influence on subsequent practice. It is suggested that a physician's further education should be concentrated on relevant medical issues rather than on what appeals to the practitioner, that it should be conducted through practical, structured clinical demonstrations, and that it should be evaluated by changes in the physician's practice rather than by the number of participants or emotional feelings toward the instructor. The studies in the education group indicate increasing use of sensitivity training, concern for rigorous research, and the use of a greater variety of teaching techniques. Across professions, one of the common features is that those who participate in non-formal continuing education programs are generally younger professionals, with higher academic achievement and with involvement in other educational activities that is more recent than that of the nonparticipants. Lack of time and financial support are cited as the major obstacles to participation in continuing education programs, but relevance to perceived needs is often noted as an important motivating factor.

7118. COPENHAVER, Christina, and BOELKE, Jane. Library Service to the Disadvantaged: A Bibliography. Bibliography
Many of the educational services reported take place in structured, non-formal education projects outside the formally age-graded school system.


This bibliography contains citations, abstracts, and ordering information for 505 dissertations pertinent to the non-school education or training of adults. Studies are classified by broad subject headings used in the ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult Education. The principal subject areas are: types of programs, institutional sponsors, adult education as a profession, process of program planning and administration, and learning environments and instructional methods or techniques. Also represented are adult learning, education for particular clientele groups, personnel and staff development in adult education, comparative or international adult education, and kinds of devices, materials, and facilities used.


This annual register of research on educational programs for adults includes 253 abstracts collected and reported by the ERIC system in 1968. This is an excellent research and reference guide. It indicates something of the progress made in the past few years in securing greater rigor and sophistication in adult-educational research.


This volume lists almost 1,000 periodicals, with a circulation of more than 100 million in 50 countries, many of which are published by organizations offering non-formal education programs for youth.

This work includes some materials on non-formal education programs.


Items are organized into four categories; General References, Adolescence as a Stage of Development, Youth Movements and National Organizations, and Empirical Studies Related to Youth Organizations. This is an excellent, if somewhat dated, reference tool. Items are well selected and succinctly annotated. In a short introduction to the work, the compilers list six general “hypotheses” based on the literature reviewed as follows: that youth organizations and non-formal education are incipient and most often discussed in an ancillary fashion; that U.S. writers, in contrast to Israel and the U.S.S.R., tend to ignore the role of youth organizations as formal organizations and as developmental influences in adolescence; that youth organizations are adult controlled to influence the oncoming generation, not youth controlled to influence their elders; that educators often see youth organizations as a mechanism by which a social system can reach marginal youth who might otherwise fail to be integrated into society; that U.S. youth organizations are widespread, diverse, voluntary, and their appeal is largely to middle-class segments of adolescent society; and that youth groups are a part of a complex network of institutions concerned with socialization. The report concludes that little is known about the impact of their non-formal education activities and methods, especially in comparison with formal school programs.


A wide variety of materials on Church-supported educational programs is presented.


7126. GOLDSTAUB, Jesse, ed. Manpower and Educational Planning: An Annotated Bibliography of Currently Available Materials,
Although the majority of entries in this highly selective bibliography are concerned with manpower and the formal educational system of the elementary, secondary, and higher levels, materials covering on-the-job training apprenticeship programs and military training, among others, in the non-formal sector are included as well. Each item is extensively and critically annotated. Organization is in eight parts: demography; economic development and manpower planning; agricultural development, rural education, and manpower; general educational planning and primary education; secondary education and mid-level manpower; tertiary education and high-level manpower; educational administration and the "economics of education"; and media and curriculum. This is a helpful but somewhat difficult-to-use work, as it uses neither pagination, a table of contents, nor an index.


7129. HOLCOMB, Beverly J. Training the Socio-Economically Disadvantaged: A Selected, Annotated Bibliography. Little Rock: Arkansas State Department of Education, 1969. Pp. 221. This work presents a collection of readings of interest to persons charged with the responsibility of planning programs dealing with the education, counseling, and socialization of poor people. Entries are arranged in categories including the following: Training the Socio-Economically Disadvantaged; Disadvantaged Groups and Hard-Core Unemployment; Hard-Core Unemployment, A Selected, Annotated Bibliography, School Desegregation, Changing Policies and Practices; and Other Bibliographies.


This directory lists some 1,800 voluntary agencies concerned "with the promotion of human welfare in all its forms." Four hundred organizations, many involved in nonschool educational and training activities, are described in detail concerning their programs, location, resources, grass-root support, and regional and international affiliations.


Kegley presents a highly selective compilation of materials on nonschool health-education programs in four sections: "Perspectives on the Developing World: Economic, Political, Social, Educational"; "Health in the Developing World"; "Development Analysis and Planning"; and "Area Background."


In the spring of 1969, the Institute circulated a questionnaire to individual researchers and institutions in the field. Over 300 replies are here organized into four major groupings as follows: research published since 1967, research in progress, research proposed, and teaching activities. A category of out-of-school, or non-formal, education is included in the first four groupings, but little work of importance is reported.

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Kulich lists 23 current periodicals published entirely or partly in English so as "to point out several useful contacts for adult educators interested or engaged in the comparative study of adult education."


Current, comprehensive, and international in scope, this directory is a valuable research tool for the study of the non-formal education sector in general and for the identification of agencies offering nonschool educational programs and activities to U.S. adults.


This thorough and comprehensive compilation is a valuable source for teachers of adults.


This is a short bibliography of 26 recent items covering non-formal education activities offered by religious organizations. Items were all selected from religious publications in the Pittsburgh Theological Seminary library.


This extensively and well-annotated bibliography of 936 items attempts "to sketch out the range of literature that is relevant to educational policy-making." It concentrates on materials containing forecasts, trends, and proposals or documents on current changes, future states, and "recommended states of affairs that ought to occur." Also described are 22 documents on adult and continuing education from "low-visibility institutes and centers."
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Although the 200 items presented are largely concerned with educational trends and futures, there is much here of interest to the student of non-formal education. This work is drawn from the author’s larger work, Shaping the Future of American Education (Syracuse, N.Y.: EPRC, 1969), Pp. 101 (539 items).


This document was prepared for use in university training of Peace Corps volunteers. It is organized into seven major categories: direction finding, social and cultural factors, operational problems and practices, program areas and technical services, political and economic implications, community development as a profession, and bibliographies. Most of the entries are from the mid-1950s to the early 1960s. Many of the entries are mimeographed documents and/or publications by ministries or other governmental subdivisions; several of the publications referenced are no longer being published.


Entries are listed both geographically—Africa, Near East, South and Southeast Asia, Far East and Oceania, and Latin America—and topically—general and comparative, community development, literacy, health education, agricultural extension education, vocational education, workers education, out-of-school youth programs, women’s programs,
liberal adult education, and others. Each item is cross-referenced. The bibliography is current as of January 1965. Materials cited in this comprehensive compilation fall almost entirely into the non-formal, nonschool sector. It is a valuable, if dated, research tool.


These partially annotated bibliographies by Nat J. Colletta cover the following: "Non-Formal Education in Anthropological Perspectives," "Non-Formal Educational Programs in Different Geographical Areas of the World," and "Select Topics in Non-Formal Education." Neither pagination, numbering, nor indexing is used.


This volume contains numerous items reporting attempts to prepare paraprofessionals, or "systematic links" from poor and ethnic groups, through non-formal education and training programs.


Molnos emphasizes implementation of planning and development of the agricultural sector in Africa. Items on, or related to, non-formal education activities are included.


Twenty-nine annotated bibliographies on vocational-technical education and vocational guidance are presented. They are divided into five sections that provide information on...
trade and industrial education, the disadvantaged child, work-experience programs, the dropout, and vocational guidance.


This directory lists 383 new schools, addresses, grades taught, and type of attendance (by children or adults). A supplement appeared in fall 1970 that added the names of 179 more programs. Many of these institutions are simply "progressive" or "more free" schools within the formal school system. Others are clearly nonschool (i.e., non-graded and nonarticulated) and fall within the non-formal sector. The directory notes that the groups most commonly participating in new schools are liberal upper-middle class whites, the new youth culture, and ethnic (black and Indian) minorities.


Published in separate English and French editions, the directory lists aims, staff, programs, income, publications, and so on of over 1,000 organizations offering development aid in Africa, Asia, Latin America, and Oceania. Development sectors covered include agriculture, cooperatives, education and training, health, social services, labor relations, communications and transport, industry, public administration, planning, and others.


O'Neil critically assesses 32 items from the United States, Europe, and the third world on non-formal educational efforts for out-of-school youth.

7151. PAULSTON, Rolland G. Educacion y el Cambio Dirigido de la Comunidad: Una Bibliografia Anotada con Referencia Especial al Peru. Center for Studies in Education and
This volume seeks to promote a more comprehensive and theoretical understanding of worldwide attempts to educate for directed communal change. It presents 266 items on the theme, most with extensive critical annotations. This work is taken from materials in English, French, Spanish, and other languages and is organized according to the following taxonomy: general works on the theory and doctrine of community development; works on community-development techniques; works on research methodology in community development; empirical studies of rural-development problems and projects; case studies of specific community-development programs; texts, documents, and educational materials; evaluations of community-development programs; bibliographies; and periodicals, publications, and yearbooks. Each chapter is divided into work referring to Peru and to other areas. It reports on a wide variety of non-formal or nonschool educational and training efforts on an international scale. Also included are much material, especially for Peru, on efforts to base community-development and related non-formal education activities on the formal school system.


Published by Carleton students and faculty, the index facilitates access to material being produced by the "alternative culture," to "publications which amplify the cry for social change and social justice." This is a comprehensive source of information on the aims and activities of non-formal education programs that seek "revolutionary" goals.


This survey of major African non-formal education programs contains an extensive bibliography and reports 37 case studies of training in industry, agriculture, national youth service, and other areas. In Chapter 15, "Conclusions," the authors characterize programs, assess their impact, examine relationships between formal and non-formal education, and present an agenda for further research.
They conclude that "further systematic evaluation of non-formal education is urgently needed to provide the basis for the sorts of policy decisions which African governments and external donors must make." This is an exceedingly valuable source book on non-formal educational programs in black Africa.


Subject matter included covers the standard range of subjects in the U.S. adult basic education curriculum. It is divided into three sections--for introductory (grades 1-3), for elementary (grades 4-6), and for intermediate levels.


A compilation of responses from 65 countries on "who is doing what . . . in the programmed instruction field." The directory, presented in English and French, is highly selective and covers "only those major efforts which represent serious long-term commitment." A number of bibliographic items included and activities noted are concerned with programmed-instruction activities in the non-formal education sector.


This is a comprehensive compilation of book article, report, and other titles on the origins and current status of formal and non-formal education programs that seek to offer alternatives to "non-free schools."


This excellent guide covers 2,281 "schools" in fifty
states offering over 50,000 formal and non-formal education courses for adults. "If you can't find what you want at a school convenient to you, the Times will give you your money back."


This Volume contains over 2,500 entries dealing with non-formal language instruction in some 300 less common spoken languages. Items cover general works, articles and monographs on specific languages, and instructional materials such as primers, histories, and story books.


This Volume contains 4,927 items on educational planning techniques and experiences throughout the world. It includes items on "the internal planning of formal school systems" as well as "other instructional systems and training arrangements." Also covered in detail are "those interrelationships of education, economy and society which most directly affect educational planning." Organization is in six parts: The Planning Context: Education and National Development; Comprehensive and Partial Planning; Financial; Educational Plans; influences on Plan Targets; Productivity and Efficiency; and Bibliographies. Part IV, especially, contains numerous items concerning particular kinds of education for particular groups or environments. Much of this material is directly relevant to a study of the non-formal education sector. Separate author and country-region indexes are included.

Section 13, "Innovative Approaches," includes a number of items on attempts to create non-formal alternatives and supplements to formal schooling.


This compilation was prepared in cooperation with the International Cooperative Development Service of AID. See especially the section on non-formal adult and extension education. The bibliography is international in scope and includes many items from third-world publications. A list of periodicals dealing with cooperatives is included on p. 91.

Other items related to Bibliographies and Directories are 4606, 4716, 5301, 7219, 7235, 7308

7200. SERIALS AND PERIODICALS


This publication contains reports on local conferences, news items, and occasional articles. Its focus is primarily on non-formal education programs for adults and out-of-school youth in East Africa.


This newsletter describes non-formal education courses on union management and trade-union principles offered in
the United States and Latin America by the Institute in collaboration with AID and others.

7205. American Society for Training and Development. *Training and Development Journal* (Fairfield, Conn.). Monthly, 1945-

This journal incorporates Training Research Abstracts.


The Handbook for Boys, a companion publication, also began in 1910 and is revised periodically.

7208. Center for Educational Reform (National Student Association) *Edcentric* (Washington, D.C.), Monthly (except August, September, and December), 1969-

The Center supports efforts in higher education, in community-education projects, and in high schools seeking to create educational forms that "will meet the needs of all people and oppress no people." It believes that "the most necessary form of educational change is that which stems from the demands and actions of those directly involved in the process." It accordingly encourages "all students and faculty to begin programs, both on and off the campuses, to change education." The newsletter reports on these programs in the formal and non-formal education sectors that are working toward "radical social change in America.


This occasional paper frequently reports on non-formal educational projects, local alternatives, and new material in U.S. urban education.

7210. *Community Development Journal* (Richmond, G. B: Oxford University Press) Quarterly, 1966-

Founded in 1966 as a successor to "Community Development Bulletin," this journal is "practical" (i.e., noncritical and nonempirical) in approach and publishes articles, notes, comments, and book reviews on community development. Both developing and developed countries are covered with particular emphasis on the former. Deals with related aspects of development, such as agricultural extension,
functional adult literacy, and techniques of adult teaching and communication are dealt with.

7211. Concordia Publishing House. Interaction: for Sunday Church School Workers. (St. Louis, Mo.). Monthly, 1960-


This publication notes that "continuing education used to be synonymous with 'adult education' and it usually had a derogatory connotation... today it is geared to a higher level student, the alert professional." This journal carries articles on professional improvement and educational technology for executives, educators, and professionals in science, technology, medicine, and management. It lists appropriate formal and non-formal educational courses and workshops in each issue.


7214. ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult Education. Continuing Education in the Professions. Current Information Sources, No. 24. (Syracuse, N.Y.): Occasional. September 1969-


7216. Indian Education Center, College of Education. Journal of American Indian Education (Arizona State University, Tempe, Ariz.). Triannual, 1968-

7217. Indian Inter-Ministerial Coordination Committee of Farmers' Training and Functional Literacy Program. FTL News (New Delhi). Quarterly, 1968-

Published to create an informal medium of communication on the project between the central committee and state governments, this newsletter is available free of charge from the Farm Information Unit, Directorate of Extension, Ministry of Food, Agriculture, Community Development and Cooperation, New Delhi.

This journal consistently publishes articles, reviews, and information on non-formal education and training and on vocational and technical education problems and programs. The journal provides a valuable forum for scholarly examination and discussion of the role of education and training in enhancing production skills, employment opportunities, and income, as well as manpower and health and welfare policies as they relate to the labor market and to economic and social development. It gives priority to studies having empirical content.


"The ICVA News is the information bulletin of voluntary agencies engaged in humanitarian, social and development programs." It reports on ICVA member activities, programs, services, news of interest, bibliography, and conferences. See especially regular sections on health, social services, and non-formal education programs.

7220. International Institute for Adult Literacy Methods. Literacy Work (Tehran). Bimonthly, 1971-

Established by UNESCO and the government of Iran, the Institute formerly published Abstracts for Literacy Work and the Acquisition List. These have now been combined in Literacy Work, which seeks "to provide a more durable comprehensive journal." A current and helpful publication.

7221. Extension Journal Inc. Journal of Extension (University of Wisconsin, Madison). Quarterly, 1963-

7222. L’Institut National pour la Formacion des Adults. Education Permanente (Nancy, France). Quarterly, 1968-

This periodical contains short, philosophical, analytic essays on the training of adult educators, problems of method and "knowing," and national (especially French) adult-education programs. Articles often present vivid examples of theoretical, intellectual treatment of practical problems, i.e., of the continuing dominance of formal schooling norms, forms, and values on out-of-school education.

7223. Literacy International Committee. Literacy Today: A Pan of Adult Literacy (New Delhi). Bimonthly, 1970-
This journal contains articles on literacy developments in India and internationally, notes from readers, action news, news of voluntary agencies, and a bibliography.

724. Mass Media/Adult Education. (Ohio State University, Columbus) Monthly, 1961-

725. National Association of Public, Continuing, and Adult Education. Pulse, Swap Shop, Techniques. (Washington, D.C.). 8, 6, and 6 times a year, respectively

Pulse is a newsletter of current events in adult education. Swap Shop is a how-to-do-it publication for adult-education administrators covering federal legislation and its impact on local programs, the best use of local resources, methods of staff development; and so on. Techniques is a how-to-do-it newsletter designed specifically for teachers of adults in non-formal education programs. Recent issues of this extremely practical and useful teacher aid have concentrated on teaching technology, setting course objectives, evaluation of student performance, and research resources and their use, among others.

726. National Education Association, Department of Rural Education. Rural Education News (Washington, D.C.). Quarterly, 1968-


This ill-fated newsletter presented news items concerning efforts to establish a National Service Corps. The death of Robert Kennedy, a strong supporter of the Corps idea, youth revulsion over the Vietnam War, and the election of Richard Nixon all combined to stop what promised to be a most worthwhile innovation for both youth and nation.

29. New Schools Exchange. New Schools Exchange Newsletter (Santa Barbara, Cal.). 3 times a month, 1970-

"The New Schools Exchange is the only central resource and clearinghouse for all people involved in alternatives in education. The Exchange corresponds with thousands of individuals and hundreds of experimental schools and
education reform groups across the United States and Canada. Major spokesmen for education reform are contributors to the Newsletter, "which also includes sections on letters, recent publications, information centers, articles, and jobs offered and wanted.


Published in English, French, Spanish, or Russian, this journal groups short, straightforward articles in each issue around such themes as the education of out-of-school youth, continuing professional education, cooperative education, lifelong education, education of women, and leisure-time education. It provides a very wide international, if not analytical, coverage of non-formal education programs and activities. It has not to date dealt with the concept of a discrete nonschool educational sector, however.


This publication reports on the following four major programs of the Foundation in Latin America: the establishment of national development foundations; hospital and medical-care programs aimed at serving rural areas and marginal urban populations; Operacion Ninos, through which U.S. students aid local self-help efforts of Latin American children and their parents at the community level; and the Tools for Freedom Program, which channels equipment and tools for vocational training in both formal and non-formal education sectors.

7232. Portola Institute Inc. The Big Rock Candy Mountain, (Menlo Park, Cal.). Biannual, 1970-

This new publication, similar to the Whole Earth Catalog, is devoted to "resources for ecstatic education." It reviews free schools, teaching methods, toys and game publications, teaching labs, films, tapes, and records as well as providing information on nonmanipulative exploration encouraging new approaches "to make the student himself the content of his learning."

7233. Sage Publications. Youth and Society. (Beverly Hills, Cal). Quarterly, 1969-
REFERENCE MATERIALS AND PUBLICATIONS

This journal contains numerous articles on youth organizations, non-formal educational programs, and youth involvement in attempts to create alternative institutions in the United States.


"Although Social Policy presents many shades of opinion, we believe that the political, economic, and cultural failures of American society are rooted in its very structure." This journal contains incisive, well-researched articles on national issues, in particular on education. The journal is committed to the search for radical social reconstruction and is convinced that this can be realized only when demanded by large movements of people.

235. The International Cooperative Training Center. Handbooks of Cooperative Seminars (Madison, Wis.). Occasional, 1963-


This yearbook contains a membership directory, reports on federal legislation and officers, and up-to-date statistical information on adult-education enrollments, expenditures, and support at the local level, as well as other useful information.

The Association also publishes an excellent series of textbooks and instructional materials. Titles include Administration of Continuing Education (pp. 448), Teaching the Disadvantaged Adult (pp. 100), Consumer Education (materials packet), Counseling and Interviewing Adult Students (pp. 24), How Adults Can Learn More, Faster (pp. 48), Teaching Reading to Adults (pp. 72), A Treasury of Techniques for Teaching Adults (pp. 48), In-Service Training for Teachers of Adults (pp. 24), and others.

237. The New School of Education (Berkeley, Cal.). Quarterly, 1971-

This new journal is concerned with alternatives and reform, mostly in the public schools, and the crucial need for changes in teacher education to further this process.
This journal's contents include informational and scholarly articles, research reports, and professional news. "The contents are directed towards the basic concept of coordinating all the resources of a community, both human and physical, to provide opportunities for individuals to realize their potential, and the collective betterment of their communities."


This newsletter's contents cover articles, information, events, statistics, and other "news from the literacy front.

7241. UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia. *Literacy and Adult Education in the Asian Region* (Bangkok): Semiannual, 1967-

This serial publication lists numerous reports and documents from international symposia on non-formal education and training activities in industrial development. Recent issues have included materials on in-plant training programs for industrial cooperatives, training workers for small industry, programs for extension workers, and the like.

7243. University College, Syracuse University. *Continuing Education for Adults* (Syracuse, N.Y.). 1969-
Published in cooperation with the ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult Education, this newsletter comments on significant study in the field and reports all ERIC publications in adult education.

7244. Vocational Industrial Clubs of America. *VICA* (Falls Church, Va.). Quarterly, 1966-

Other items related to Serials and Periodicals are

5816, 6114, 6627, 7108, 7117, 7121, 7142, 7151, 7152
7300. OTHERS

This volume of 1,108 abstracts summarizes the majority of important works on community development during the last ten years. Part I contains abstracts-of-periodical literature and is classified into 19 sections, including general-history, communications, community and area studies, decision-making, leadership, migration and settlement, social action, urbanization, and values-attitudes-beliefs. Part II contains abstracts of monographs, books, reports, and other types of printed literature arranged in alphabetical order. There is a subject index, a nation-tribe-society index, a periodical index, an author index, and a list of abbreviations.

This illustrated guide on contraceptive methods and materials, with a special section on infertility and what to do about it, was prepared for the use solely of physicians, social workers, and married persons who are seeking information on family planning . . .

The principal aims of this study were to identify, select, analyze, and describe educational programs for culturally disadvantaged children from preschool through grade twelve that had yielded measured benefits of cognitive achievement. A literature search (mainly through ERIC) and mail inquiries followed by telephone consultations constituted the identification and selection process for the programs. Sixteen programs finally selected (situated in twelve urban areas in eight states) were visited on site, and, as a result, five programs were eliminated. This report thus contains the descriptions of the remaining eleven programs, all meeting the criteria that no program was included unless data
available indicated that pupils in the program had achieved significantly greater gains statistically on standardized tests than had controls or had improved at a rate better than national norms. The programs described were mostly inner-city non-formal education projects for black children but two served mainly Mexican-Americans. Descriptions relate to the nature, methods, operations, and results of each program.


The Clearinghouse facilitates access to information useful in the education of adults and out-of-school youth. It conducts special projects on adult education and coordinates with all organizations interested in adult education.


This is a how-to-do-it manual with practical instructions on founding and operating new "schools." It provides useful clues for meeting and/or bypassing bureaucratic rules and regulations.


This manual was designed primarily for use by coordinators responsible for developing comprehensive nonschool community youth-opportunity programs for employment, education, or recreation. The material may also be of assistance to community and business leaders, educators, and others involved in expanding local opportunities for young people. The contents consist of five sections, covering planning, employment, education, recreation, and transportation, with each section providing information on the role of the coordinator, funding and resources, reference materials, and program examples. Listings of various contacts helpful to youth coordinators are appended, including voluntary organizations, local contacts and labor unions, regional contacts in the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, recreation and parks consultants, Bureau of Outdoor Recreation state liaison officers, national forest camps, 4-H youth camps, state distributing agencies of the consumer food program, and state councils on the arts.


This book presents "a simple listing of proposed alternatives to the 'schooling model'... with special reference to less developed countries." Non-formal education is seen as having three roles in relation to schooling—as a complement through extracurricular activities, youth movements, and soon, as a supplement through civic service, farmer-education programs, and so on, and as a replacement or substitute for schooling in youth settlement schemes, radio and rural youth clubs, and the like. Items are few but are described at length to explain non-formal education rationales, functions, and problems in five major categories—individualization strategies, education and work, community-based learning, technology centered, attitude-change oriented. This excellent introduction to the subject will be followed by a second edition.
Africa 1101, 1209, 1218, 2209, 2212, 2217, 2221, 2302, 2304, 4111, 4120, 4129, 4504, 4537, 5404, 5413, 5513, 5808, 6717, 7106, 7110, 7127, 7131, 7143, 7146, 7150, 7153, 7203

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Professor Paulston did his undergraduate work in cultural geography at UCLA and his master’s studies in economic geography at the University of Stockholm, Sweden; he received his doctorate in comparative and international education from Columbia University in 1966. He has published numerous books and articles in the United States, Europe, and Latin America on his research undertakings.