MOBRAL

ANALYSIS & DOCUMENTARY INFORMATION
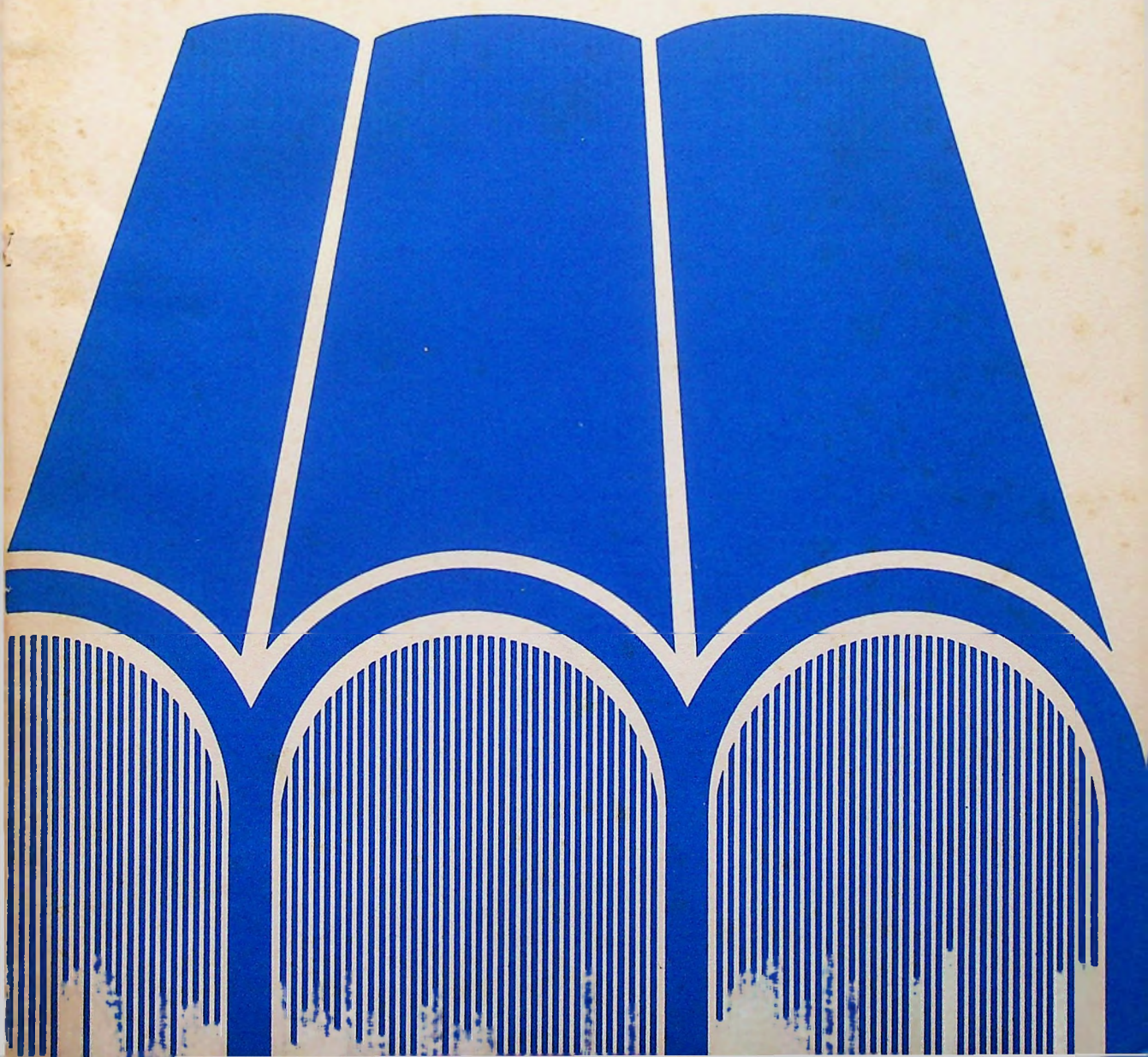
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ANALYSIS AND DOCUMENTARY INFORMATION
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1. TECHNICAL COMMENTARIES

CORRÊA, Arlindo Lopes. *Educação: onisciente, onipotente, onipresente.*
    Rio de Janeiro, MOBRAL, 1979. 5f. (mimeogr.)

Education is omnipresent as it permeates all manners of relating which
exist among human beings, and between the latter and their social
environment. During the last decades; however, it became clearer and
clearer that, despite efforts on the part of educators, education is not
omniscient; likewise, the illusion of its omnipotence has faded away in
recent years.

That education is not omniscient can be inferred from its inability to
keep pace with the bustling scientific and technological evolution
responsible for the rapid changes occurring at all levels, from
production procedures to scales of values. Failure to immediately
transfer advancements in knowledge and skills to the educational
systems, is due to inadequate information and dissemination mechanisms,
scarce techniques for adapting the material to learners and, finally,
to chronic inertia, which pervades the administrative procedures of
education. Furthemore, education's isolation from the community, in no
way contributes to keeping it up on social phenomena. Thus, it is
consistently at variance with respect to "science and consciousness."

Education is not omnipotent because its effects on human beings are not
strong enough to withstand the multiple and varied influences exerted
from such other areas as health, nutrition, labor market and others.
Thus, illusions concerning the power of education to democratize are
gradually falling apart, while such notions as educational ability to
redistribute income, achieve general welfare and establish meritocracy
are likewide being discredited. But, despite these disillusionments,
it may be said that education is increasingly becoming the most
important element when it comes to defining the status of human beings
in society.

To a great extent, this frustration, stemming from the awareness of the
inadequacy of education to guide the future of human beings, derives
from an inability to understand that the educational process, *while
neither omniscient, nor omnipotent, is inexorably omnipresent.*

Thus trying to correlate an individual's educational level with his/her
income, occupational standing or socio-political status leads to naught
as long as the approximate number of completed school years is taken as
a yardstick whereby educational standards are measured. This is so
because, while many still insist in associating it exclusively to
school—space traditionally considered as holding total monopoly over
it—, education is to be found in the family, in the neighborhood group,
at the club, at work, in the street, on television, in the movies and in
routine daily activities.

A recent research carried out in Warsaw among individuals of post-war generations who had never left that city—rebuilt according to communist standards, that is, providing the same type of housing, public services and schools both for skilled and unskilled workers and for members of the professions—, revealed an important facet of the omnipresence of education. Like every research conducted in capitalist underdeveloped countries, the highest correlation found for intelligence levels coincided with parents' profession. Standardizing the environment led nowhere. Family atmosphere, intellectual stimuli and interpersonal relations, stood above all other influencing factors, and children of members of the professions obtained the best results.

The opportunity to educate and be educated makes its presence felt at all places, moments and situations.

For argument's sake and with no special concern for scientific accuracy, let the notion of *the objective educational content* of an activity be introduced and let it be the relative weight of the activity's explicitly instructional content. While assimilation of such content might at times be tied to previous learning, skills and experience, let it be assumed, as a general principle, tnat anyone who partook of this particular activity is capable of grasping its objective educational content.

The subjective educational content of an activity can now be defined as the relative weight of the non-explicit instructional content, which is tied to the participants' cultural level, sensitivity and motives.

At all places and times, human beings face both instructional contents: the objective and the subjective. Furthemore, all situations contain a *residual educational content* which stays with the participant and is tied to his/her peculiar conditions and motivation at the time of the activity. Thus, it is convenient to associate high educational content with leisure activities, activities of great interest to the community, etc. as these are highly motivating.

The following are examples of objective content found in a play on the discovery of Brazil: information regarding the number of vessels in the fleet, the landing date and the chronicler of the expeditions. The frequency in the occurrence of such contents in the play determines the latter's objective educational content.

While the objective educational content is the same for the entire audience, the subjective educational content varies from one person to another. A simplistic or absentminded view of the play would reduce it to a human adventure marked by courage, daring and luck. Another viewpoint would consider the economic effects of the historical event upon life in Portugal, as well as its contribution to the expansion in boundaries of the tiny kingdom. Some would see the play as representing

the actual climax of a great scientific and technological effort brought
about in the Iberian Peninsula. There would also be those who would
visualize the political and religious consequences of this new conquest
of a catholic country. Whatever is retained by the audience once the
play is over becomes its residual educational content.

In order to conform to the particular approach adopted, an educational
content might be broadened and made more profound. Thus, the observation
of a tree and explanation of the functions of the root, trunk, etc.
will lead to the introduction of a certain degree of botanical objective
content. A survey from the ecological standpoint, however, would
introduce more general and distinct postulates. On the other hand, if
viewed as an architectural streuture forced to bear its own weight,
withstand the wind and attach itself to the ground, the image will yield
useful and often unexpected information, not only in the field of
engineering but also in the areas of evolution theory, genetics, etc.

Education is omnipresent. But, unfortunately, we are not making the
best of this characteristic. As an apparent resistance to it,
traditionalists attribute status to the school institution exclusively,
and view supplementary instruction, MOBRAL, the National Service for
Industrial Training, referred to as SENAI (Serviço Nacional de
Aprendizagem Industrial), and others, as second-rate types of education,
"fit only for other people and their children."

So that Brazil—or any other country for that matter—may benefit from
an educational system adequate in standards of quality and appropriate
in quantitative reach, the omnipresence of education must be fully
taken advantage of. Every event must be seen as an opportunity to
increase the education of the people. It is up to the Authorities to
systematically raise the objective educational content of events,
thereby triggering a process for the population's cultural improvement.
This also results in a higher subjective educational content—
increasingly a function of this cultural level.

All social programs of the Government provide opportunities for
educating the population. Thus, people queuing up for medical
consultations at the National Institute for Medical Assistance and
Social Security, known as INAMPS (Instituto Nacional de Assistência
Médica e Previdência Social), might be taught notions of sanitary
education in a motivating manner; information about nutrition might be
transmitted while food is being distributed by the National Institute
for Food and Nutrition, or the INAN (Instituto Nacional de Alimentação
e Nutrição), as it is referred to; the housing programs might serve as
an excuse to train borrowers in occupations connected to building. The
possibilities are endless. A gymkhana can be—and usually is—a purely
leisure-oriented activity. However, if its itinerary includes
interesting spots in terms of the city's historical heritage, it may

become a lesson in history, civics and art.

The most practical solution would be for the formal teaching system to initiate the process leading school and students to active participation in community life. Society's systematic permeation by education would then take place naturally.

Even in their pre-school years, children should be raised in the light of educational opportunities existing in the community. A "Tree-planting Campaign" with children themselves planting and caring for the trees would be a valuable way of conveying a sense of belonging in a community and as part of a larger universal group living on a finite planet, whose preservation for the coming generations should be the duty of every individual. The planting of a tree also leaves open the possibility for teaching all that has been mentioned above.

In elementary schools these opportunities become even greater. Millions of out-of-school children could be the target of a national mobilization whose main agents would be students between 7 and 14 years of age. They would be in charge of—and receive corresponding educational credits for— contacting those who do not attend school, of getting acquainted with their problems and searching, with the community, for a way to provide them with the necessary schooling.

Canvassing illiterate persons could be done in a similar, systematic way. Actually high school students have on several occasions and in various states, carried that out for MOBRAL through house-to-house surveys. But, at the pre-college level, tasks assigned to students could be more complex. In like manner, and for even more legitimate reasons, college students participating in such projects as RONDON or CRUTAC,* would be in charge of increasingly more complex activities. By performing these tasks students would eventually acquire notions more specific to their chosen profession, while allowing unprivileged populations to benefit from the results.

To conclude, every space in a community would correspond to a space in education. This means that, *beyond the lifelong education concept there would be an education for everyone, lasting for a lifetime and capable of turning each event into an opportunity for learning: omnipresent education.*

*CRUTAC - Centro Rural Universitário de Treinamento e Ação Comunitária or University Rural Center for Training and Community Development.

2. ABSTRACTS

2.1 MOBRAL: PUBLICATIONS

- *Coleção "Cada Cabeça é um Mundo..."* -

- *Programa Tecnologia da Escassez* -

The Collection "Cada Cabeça é um Mundo..." (Each Head is a World of its own) encompasses the series of publications which make up the basic material of MOBRAL's "Technology of Scarcity Program," whose general objective is to translate into non-formal educational processes the true technology created and accumulated by popular culture in such diverse fields, among others, as utilitary crafts, refuse recycling, soil cultivation, housing, food preservation, popular pharmacopoeia and domestic utensils.

Through recording, disseminating, transmitting and socially recognizing these techniques created by popular culture, the Program purports to contribute to the strengthening of the cultural identity and the betterment of the standards of living of Brazilian communities.

Elaboration of this Collection included bibliographic and field researches followed by an analysis of the entire material by professionals of various categories (biologists, medical doctors, pharmacists, agronomers, engineers, sociologists, etc.). The fascicles, which make up the Collection, were the object of careful visual programming and they assemble many of the popular methods and techniques researched. Each method presented carries illustrative drawings to show the reader which materials and steps are required for the obtainment of a desired product. Thus, the Collection will be of use in discussion groups, meetings, in the organization of bees and for demonstrations of methods and results.

The foreword by MOBRAL's President appears in fascicle No. 1 and through it, it is possible to infer clearly how the Foundation became interested in popular technical culture: "After recognizing that each and every human being has a life experience to be considered /.../ stemming from a deeper and deeper acquaintance with everything that relates to our country, MOBRAL's interest in the technical culture of our needy population emerged alerted by reports from our system of supervision and our Municipal Commissions."

Using colloquial language each fascicle begins by listing its contents and presenting a short introduction to describe the set of methods and techniques discussed later in the publication. The inside of the cover of each fascicle carries a table of measurement conversion of length and volume.

The preface to the Collection—common to all fascicles—explains why that specific title was chosen to describe the entire work:

"Each head is a world of its own and, many heads united, create
popular wisdom—a wisdom which carries down from parents to children,
over the years..."

Already published in the series are the *Roteiro do Orientador*
(Guidebook for Monitors) and the six first fascicles described below:

a) FUNDAÇÃO MOVIMENTO BRASILEIRO DE ALFABETIZAÇÃO
     Roteiro do Orientador, Rio de Janeiro, 1978. 24 p. (Cada cabeça
     é um mundo...).

Considering the objectives of the Program, it is of the utmost
importance to determine the way in which the fascicles will be
utilized. It was that initial concern which prompted the elaboration
of the *Roteiro do Orientador*.

This Guidebook describes the Collection, and explains why it was
written. It offers suggestions and explanatory notes on how to best
make use of it. And, finally, it lists the subjects included in the
fascicles.

Standard questionnaires are included as well as notes on how to fill
them. One questionnaire aims at evaluating the Program in the field and
is addressed to those responsible for it. The other three purport to
promote the reader's direct participation in the recording,
dissemination and evaluation of other methods and techniques so as to
provide the Program with feedback. They are the following:

• a form to be filled by the reader with those methods and popular
techniques with which he/she is familiar;

• a guide for interviews which the reader applies to neighborhood
groups, relatives and fellow workers and in which he/she enters the
methods and techniques in use locally;

• a questionnaire to be filled by the reader with suggestions for
improving, diversifing and/or integrating the methods included in the
Collection.

The final section, as well as the inset to the Guidebook, both carry
suggestions of activities helpful in making the Collection widely
known and extensively used.

That the Collection should serve to support various MOBRAL programs is
clear from the fact that the fascicles making it up can be utilized
among other places, at Functional Literacy and Integrated Education
classrooms, at meetings of the Sanitary Education Program and of
the Community Action Groups.

b) FUNDAÇÃO MOVIMENTO BRASILEIRO DE ALFABETIZAÇÃO. Programa Tecnologia
da Escassez. *Sua aula, sua palma*. Rio de Janeiro, 1979. 1v. il.
(Cada cabeça é um mundo, 1).

Themes included discuss such subjects as: the need for light to study;
how to make chalk sticks; liquid fish glue; how to build
blackboards; billboards; flannel boards useful for illustrated teaching;
mimeographers, etc.

c) FUNDAÇÃO MOVIMENTO BRASILEIRO DE ALFABETIZAÇÃO. Programa Tecnologia
da Escassez. *Vivendo e aprendendo*. Rio de Janeiro, 1979. 1v. il.
(Cada cabeça é um mundo, 2)

From fascicle No. 2 to fascicle No. 6 techniques are no longer grouped
according to the content of the theme, but rather according to the
types of procedures employed. Thus, *Vivendo e Aprendendo* (Living and
Learning) includes the so-called *isolated techniques* which are developed
in linear fashion, evolving rapidly to the final product.

Among the subjects carried by this fascicle the following are worthy
of note: the sharpening wheel; bamboo traps for insects; insect
repellent; fresh water fish traps.

d) FUNDAÇÃO MOVIMENTO BRASILEIRO DE ALFABETIZAÇÃO. Programa Tecnologia
da Escassez. *Uma coisa puxa a outra*. Rio de Janeiro, 1979. 1v. il.
(Cada cabeça é um mundo, 3)

As indicated by the title, which means "one thing leads to another",
these texts refer to other texts in the same Collection. They encourage
research and make possible the integration of two or more techniques in
what corresponds to the set of *integrated techniques*.

Examples include: tool to cut drums; a shovel used by two men;
combatting erosion; how to prepare a good fertilizer; spray; a bamboo
snare for fish.

e) FUNDAÇÃO MOVIMENTO BRASILEIRO DE ALFABETIZAÇÃO. Programa Tecnologia
da Escassez. *É só fazer depois contar*. Rio de Janeiro, 1979. 1v.
il. (Cada cabeça é um mundo, 4)

This fascicle includes *diversified techniques* which allow for the
diversification of one process through various others—a road leading
to new discoveries.

Among the examples included are: the uses of bamboo; tires and what can be done with them; how to cut bottles; how to make candles.

f) FUNDAÇÃO MOVIMENTO BRASILEIRO DE ALFABETIZAÇÃO. Programa Tecnologia
   da Escassez. *Um conto com muitos pontos*. Rio de Janeiro, 1979.
   1v. il. (Cada cabeça é um mundo, 5)

Fascicle No. 5 groups the *chained techniques* which, along the process, include various subproducts before arriving at the final product.

Thus, techniques for conserving fish and meats, in their respective dismembered parts, are included in this fascicle.

g) FUNDAÇÃO MOVIMENTO BRASILEIRO DE ALFABETIZAÇÃO. Programa Tecnologia
   da Escassez. *Você sabia que...* Rio de Janeiro. 1979, 1v. il.
   (Cada cabeça é um mundo, 6)

Presents the *innovating techniques* which adapt to popular techniques procedures peculiar to sophisticated technology.

Examples: oven; manual grass mower; raft; sand filter.

A few more fascicles should appear later this year. Some are still in elaboration, while others are ready to be published.

2.2. BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS

COOMBS, Philip H. *A crise mundial da educação*. São Paulo, Perspectiva,
   1976. 327p. (Coleção Debates, 112).

As explained in the introduction, this book is the result of a document
prepared for the International Conference on Education at Williamsburg.
It represents a straight forward and up-to-date diagnosis of world
education, beginning with an analysis of the principal problems of the
social, economic and pedagogical framework of educational systems in
various countries of Europe, the Americas, Africa and Asia.

One of its salient features is that the Author works out indicators as
well as innovative strategies and solutions to clear up the difficult
problems of education throughout the world.

In the foreword to the Brazilian edition, the Author sums up in a single
statement the entire width and breadth of this difficulty, especially
in the countries of the Third World: "It is infinitely more difficult
to provide schools to hundreds of millions of children here on Earth than
to place a few astronauts in the Moon".

The publisher of the Brazilian edition calls the attention of the reader
to the pitfalls in translating into Portuguese a number of terms used
by Coombs, such as *educational system, education, formal education,* and
non-formal education, considering that their specific meanings are often
altered or lost when rendered into another language.

This observation is very relevant because these concepts belong within
a broad and open notion of education, involving many processes and
taking into account the multiple aspects of the very evolution of the
individual.

This book carries seven chapters, plus Addenda where problems are
identified and solutions are objectively and concretely proposed.

In the first chapter, the standpoint adopted views the crisis in
education as bearing a relation to such words as "change," "adaptation,"
and "maladjustment." In fact, it would be appropriate to investigate if
faith in (educational) systems is blind and dogmatic or if it is being
clarified by rational analysis, reflection and imagination.

There are millions of illiterates, and dropping out of school occurs in
every country, especially in the less developed ones. It is, therefore,
necessary to broaden the scope of permanent education and to deal
specifically with the problems of adult education.

Of course education is not a panacea for all illnesses of the world, but it is undeniably an essential component for the social, economic and political development of all peoples.

The Author sums up the causes of world maladjustment through the following points:

• abrupt raising of popular aspirations for education;

• acute scarcity of material and skilled human resources;

• inertia inherent to educational systems;

• inertia of society itself.

The first chapter also includes three charts dealing, respectively, with topics bearing the following heading: *The analysis of educational systems and teaching processes; Interaction between an educational system and its environment and social milieu;* and, *Interdependence among educational systems in the world.* From these topics it is obvious and unmistakable that each country should make an objective and systematic self-diagnosis, and through it seek enlightenment, inspiration and orientation for the planning of its educational future.

The second chapter regards students as *inputs* to educational systems.

It stresses the humanistic aspect of education as an end in itself. In that aspect, the two dimensions of "consumption" and "investment," are considered as compatible though not always harmonious, particularly after World War II. Social demand for education reached explosive growth, and the reasons for this are analyzed. Increase in population rates, above all in less developed countries, adds to the graveness of the situation.

Teachers are regarded as another *input* to educational systems, and an analysis is made of their educational background and training. Topics regarding teachers' salaries and social status are exhaustively discussed to provide the reader with a worldwide view of the problem and of the need to reassess the role of teachers and their contributions to society.

The third chapter bears on the *outputs* of educational systems and the answers found to particular needs.

The inadequacy of most educational systems to the needs of today and of the future is quite obvious. Education and manpower are continuously out of step with each other. The relationships between employment and unemployment, student dissatisfaction with courses at all levels, are but some of the difficulties which tend to get worse as time goes by. The Author asserts that this issue gathers within itself a political

storm, and that it presents a challenge not only to economists, but also to educators.

Attitudes and social changes are tied to the culture of each particular people, but the survival of Man on Earth will surely be the common concern of educational systems in all countries. Education and society, for quite some time ahead will have to strive together for social and economic changes, as these are both instrumental to the improvement of living condition in all communities, particularly the needy ones.

In scanning the core of educational systems, the fourth chapter discusses democratization, the internal struggles between modernists and traditionalists, and the difficulties to establish priority goals.

Problems related to methodologies and techniques—of an administrative nature or not—,are often a hindrance to development, particularly in the case of formal education.

Non-formal education, in its aspects related to remedial training, updating, and upgrading, is the theme of the fifth chapter. Special attention to this type of education is considered by the Author as essential in Third World countries, chiefly because it opens the way for innovation and creativity which are elements capable of strengthening and enhancing the educational process.

The sixth chapter stresses the need for international cooperation as a way to deal with the crisis.

The proposal for a world education common market is set forth.

An analysis is made of the quantitative dimensions of the needs of countries, particularly of poor countries, where self-support is a matter of utmost importance. In looking into the future, attention is drawn to the serious question of uncontroled population growth.

The role of the United Nations, particularly of UNESCO and UNICEF, is viewed as a stimulating force. Technical assistance and bilateral programs are pointed out as having yielded satisfactory results in the past.

Suggestions for a strategy, drawn on the basis of a review of the previous subjects, make up chapter seven, which in addition, through a systems analysis approach brings to foreground the historical convergence of five factors responsible for the world crisis in education. They are: the overwhelming numbers of students; the acute scarcity of resources; increased costs; inappropriateness as to products; inertia; and inefficiency.

As a result of this diagnosis, the Author proposes the following priority goals: modernization of school administration; modernization

of faculties; modernization of learning processes; strengthening of
educational financing; greater attention to non-formal education; and
international cooperation.

Graphs and charts.

CUNHA, M. A. Versiani. *Didática fundamentada na teoria de Piaget*. 4. ed.
Rio de Janeiro, Forense Universitária, 1978. 95p.

In the introduction to this book, Prof. Lauro de Oliveira Lima lays
stress on the fact that Jean Piaget made archaic what he labels
ratology, that is, experiments with rats and pigeons upon which
behavioral theory is based (S-R* experiments). Piaget, "perhaps for the
first time, conducted actual experiments with children in his own
psychology laboratory."

He also remarks that this book adheres to a Piaget-inspired teaching
methodology, according to which the role of the teacher is to provide
feedback to students.

Reference is also made to the fact that Piagetian psychology is of a
"philosophical" nature. Its basic underlying question might be: "What
kind of a man do you wish to make?"

Considerations are drawn as to what will happen if the choice is to
develop autonomous, critical and creative thinking. It might be that
curricula, programs, lessons, timetables, school organization, etc.,
shall all be done a away with.

But this is followed by the warning that, unless sequential
constructivism—to use a term currently applied to Piaget's theory—is
adopted, such an attitude might lead to anarchy.

Such subjects as, the ways to encourage organizational equilibration
and how to enrich learning situations to enlarge the mental picture,
are being examined at several universities in the United States and in
Europe, with the result that the S-R type of learning is becoming
outdated.

Piaget regards the social factor—group dynamics in pedagogical
terminology—as one of the basic elements of mental development. As for
the formation of moral judgment, he considers it based chiefly upon
activities related to playing.

The work comprises ten chapters dealing with didactics and the
application of Piagetian theory to what teachers refer to as "classroom
work."

* Abbreviation of Stimulus-Response.

Factors of mental development, such as, maturation, physical
environment, social environment, and progressive equilibration
(development of logical structures), are examined in detail. Examples
are given liberally and should serve as an aid principally to
nursery and kindergarten teachers.

Notions of time and space within the notion of relativity are
experimented with and learned in simple and concrete situations which
lead children to become interested and to assume their own learning
process. This way they are able to assimilate reality in accordance
with their specific developmental level and are not subjected to the
imposition upon them of arbitrary objectives.

While clarifying the issue of pre-established curricula and methods,
the work also shifts our focus of attention from the product of learning
to the process itself, so that children might actually "learn to learn".

Charts and a bibliography.

IRONSIDE, Diana J. & JACOBS, Dorene E. *Trends is counselling and
    information services for the adult learner.* Ontario, The Ontario
    Institute for Studies in Education, 1977. 99 p.

Commissioned by Unesco in 1974 to carry out a research project on
existing counseling and information services related to adult education,
the Department of Adult Education of the Ontario Institute for Adult
Education undertook a thorough examination on the material found on the
subject. This investigation resulted in the essay and the bibliography
which make up this publication.

The main difficulties encountered by the group in charge of the project
could be summed up in a lack of bibliographic control of foreign-
language materials on the subject and in a poor estimate in terms of
time needed to carry out the project.

Although the essay refers mainly to the Canadian and the United States
experience and expectations, much of what is discussed applies to less
developed contexts as well.

To introduce their subject the authors trace the history of adult
education from its early beginnings at the dawn of industrialization,
relating the increasing needs for this type of learning to the extensive
societal changes which took place in the last quarter of century.

Their examination of the existing material on lifelong learning carries
the reader through such documents as the study commissioned by the
Council of Europe's Committee for Out-of-School Education and Cultural

Development, the Faure Report and Unesco's survey of adult education during the twelve years between the 1960 Montreal and the 1972 Tokyo International Adult Education Conferences.

Essentially, these reports relate new learning needs to the "scientific-technological revolution" following the earlier industrial revolution (Faure Report). They stress the need for alternatives, and conclude that concentrating investments on the exclusive education of children is a disastrous policy as it encourages further imbalances in all societies (Thomas on the North American experience).

Disenchantment with the results of conventional education as it relates to the normal development of particular countries has led to a serious reappraisal of education policy and programming. Extensive research has shown that since World War II an ever larger sector of the population made up of middle class adults is seeking further education. But special concern surrounds the large groups of people living below minimal standards and whose needs and demands are far from being met.

In relation to the reports mentioned above, this study reveals that most of them fail to mention the need for counseling and information services and when they happen to point this out it is in a sparing manner hardly corresponding to the significance of the matter.

However the rare reports which stress this need are worthy of mention.

Thus, positive concern as to this aspect of lifelong learning exists in Zambia, Indonesia and Australia. Irma Salas in "Education in Latin America between its Past and Future" discusses guidance as a fundamental aspect of learning.

The study focuses on specific learning groups such as women, the unemployed and the disadvantaged.

Such groups have specific learning and survival needs. As Thomas and Hutchinson point out, in general, individuals in adult education programs are as concerned with learning to learn, that is, learning the new role, as they are with learning the material itself. Specifically in relation to the disadvantaged we are often dealing with learning to cope. In their study of education services for disadvantaged adults, the Appalachian Adult Education Center in Kentucky, U.S.A., developed a Coping Skills Categories list which includes such subjects as health, education, relocation skills, jobs and income.

For a long time dissemination of information on adult education had the objective of recruiting the largest possible number of enrollees for particular institutions. As of recently this aim has extended to making available information on the existing possibilities of education in general and adult learning programs in particular.

This spread of information takes place through libraries, resource
centers and comprehensive listings on adult offerings. Satyen Maitra in
"Public Library and Adult Education in India" sees the public library
as an agent of social change assuming a counseling role in order to
help people out of their slumber into awareness of their participation
in the transformation of society.

Charles Bourne's study carried out through the Institute of Library
Research at the University of California for the U.S. National
Commission on Libraries and Information Services is highly important
in this context.

Defining the regular library user as young, white, middle class, single,
female and well-educated, this study set out to locate a population with
different library or educational needs. Bourne identified 19 subgroups
among which the foreign-language-speaking or -reading people, American
Indians, blacks, women, rural people, the physically handicapped, the
mentally retarded and prisoners.

While little concern is shown in the report for the need of counseling
to help individuals locate required materials, and practically nothing
is mentioned with regard to providing information about adult learning
programs, Bourne does point out that the "National Library Commission is
charged with planning and evaluating library and information services
on a nationwide basis."

As an example of a resource center the study discusses the proposed plan
of the National Counseling Service in Botswana. The service plans to
assemble information primarily related to job and education
opportunities in a form easily usable by regional centers.

Resource directories, for their part, provide information on educational
opportunities thus serving "those people who seek to continue their
education, to refresh themselves, to learn new skills for vocational or
leisure purposes and who are not certain where to look for the
information they need."

In terms of innovations in counseling and information services the
existence of a tendency towards increasing "openness" is pointed out.
This manifests itself through four broad areas: (1) the use of
person-centered, non-institutional settings for the provision of the
services; (2) the more imaginative use of staffs and the increasing use
of peers and non-professionals as staff resources; (3) the development
of networks, human and mechanical, to aid the counseling/information
giving transaction; and (4) the harnessing of media and technologies to
help learners.

To conclude, it would be important to point out some of the issues
discussed which relate to counseling and information as services, and to

the counselor him/herself as a person.

The counselor is most often tied to the learning institution and thus can only be approached through it. In some case, however, the counseling/information function is located outside it in some conventional or novel agency.

Counselors are seen as individuals who should be familiar with all kinds of learning resources as clients might be seeking education that is not part of a formal program. In addition, Hutchinson points out that counselors need to have diagnostic skills, knowledge of the total educational system and of the standards demanded by academic and training bodies, recognition of the difficulties of the student, etc.

With respect to the recipients of such "delivery systems" as health, justice, education, to name a few, the study points out that in most Western societies the meaning associated to their roles has been undergoing change. The definition of such roles usually carries a connotation of "dependence."

Learning, however, is a growth towards self-determination.

Specifically in the case of the adult, a self-directed learning process takes place of which the sensitive counselor must not only be aware, but which his/her training and the location of his/her services should take into account.

As a concluding note, the study mentions the real need for the emergence of "independent" counseling services with adequate financing, protection and evaluation, and suggests further experimentation, studies for comparison and the discussion of what it terms the "sociology" of education counseling.

KOWARICK, Lúcio. *Capitalismo e marginalidade na América Latina*. 2. ed. Rio de Janeiro, Paz e Terra, 1967. 118p. (Estudos latino-americanos, 3).

The question of urban marginality in Latin America has become a subject followed with interest in the most diverse sectors of Brazilian society in view of a generalized concern with a theoretical and practical problem related to everyday life in big cities: the proliferation of urban slums and the systematic increase in the mass of underemployed and unemployed.

The work of Professor Kowarick, presented as a doctoral thesis at the College of Philosophy of the University of São Paulo, represents an important contribution to the theoretical field of the concept of

'marginality.' A significant aspect of the task is the persistent referral through it to concrete examples in Latin American societies.

In criticizing the limits of the 'modernizing' theories or of the 'not all-embracing' theories, the author aims at analyzing the problem of marginality from the viewpoint of the integration of man in the productive social structure and as based on the dialectic method of historical interpretation.

"This theme will be examined in its connection to problems surrounding work, which means that marginality will be characterized from its position as element inserted in the structures of production."

In relation to this theme the causes considered essential are those related to economics, that is, to man's organizing ability in the production of the means needed for his subsistence.

The 'not all-embracing' theories:

Having elaborated on the evolution of the theory of marginality in the recent history of Latin America at the beginning of the work, and having spared no criticism to the 'physical-ecological' and 'socio-economic' interpretations, the author extends his discussion to the so-called 'not all-embracing' theories, which include as most important contributions the works of Robert Park, of Stonequist and, from another viewpoint, of Oscar Lewis.

As viewed by Park and Stonequist marginality stems from maladjustments tied to distinct and conflicting patterns. The characterization of the 'marginal man' has as referentials psychological explanations based on concrete studies on immigrants residing in the North American society. An immigrant, carrier of personal cultural practices, is in conflict when attempting to become integrated in a culture foreign to his own. According to Stonequist "the individual who, through migration, education, marriage or other influences leaves a social group or a culture and fails to adjust satisfactorily to another group, is at the margin of both and therefore not integrated in either. He is a marginal man."

The criticism to this type of interpretation is based on the principle that maladjustments and their consequences are, in the last instance, tied in terms of their causes, to the place taken by the individual in the social structure. It is important to keep in mind that there is a logic behind the process of privations and, in most cases, this logic leads the dominated in a social hierarchy to become deprived of the primordial—material or psychological—conditions of life required by any citizen.

The theory of modernization:

The author's critical considerations extend to theoreticians of
marginality adept at explaining the problem on the basis of an absence
of participation in society by specific groups. According to him,
internal lack of organization peculiar to these groups prevents them
from claiming   their most felt needs from centers of power. This,
in turn, leads to the situation of marginality. The solution in this
case, would rest at the individual level. The disappearance of basic
reciprocal antagonisms would lead to the perfection of social
development mechanisms into models capable of allowing marginal workers
to become integrated in a global social world. The main elaborator and
disseminator of this interpretative model inspired on functionalism was
Latin America's Center of Economic and Social Development, known as
DESAL.

"The characteristic feature of this style of interpretation is
apparently the persistent denial of a notion of social structure
corresponding to a category wich includes global phenomena, is at the origin of the
marginalization process and offers a tool by which to analyze the latter."

The main flaw to this interpretation according to Kowarick lies in its
inherent assumption that given some internal transformations or reforms
in marginal groups, social structure remains always open to absorb them.

Capitalism, Dependency, Process of Accumulation and Urban Marginality

According to the dialectic interpretation of the historical process
used by the author as his theoretical framework, marginality represents
a phenomenon inherent to the capitalist mode of production and which
tends to grow in dependent countries.

Its causes rest in part within the limits of an exclusion system
peculiar to capitalism which combines ancient modes of production
coexisting with capitalist relations in rural zones of societies in the
periphery.

In his effort to view marginality as an insertion of the working class
in the productive structure, Kowarick disregards such classifications
as 'low remuneration' and 'level of life' with respect to the
characterization of the 'marginal man.' Considering the scientific
possibilities of this type of concept formulation as vague, he views
the 'industrial reserve army' as the separating line between the
marginal worker and the worker integrated in a market economy.

In a society where capital establishes the functioning rules at the
economic and political level, the Formal Market (FM) and the
Non-formalized Market (NFM) categories are introduced so as to provide
a better frame to the theoretical picture. The Formal Market would be
based on a legal type of work relationship, where the employee by
selling his/her work to a sole employer, would in turn be entitled to
a certain regularity and stability peculiar to the condition of
employment. The FM workers would be those tied to the system's main

production units, namely, factories, capitalist agricultural properties, etc.

The NFM includes the so-called odd-jobbers and the craftsmen, that is, those with no stable ties to a job, no work permit, and those who sell their work to several 'bosses.' The 'industrial reserve army'—surplus crowd of worker, needed by capitalism in its effort to maintain salaries within the bounds of maximum contention as a way to open the doors to the inlimited expansion of capital during its moments of full development—holds the gordian knot of urban marginality.

"The industrial reserve army groups that portion of the working class, partially employed or unemployed, which presents itself in three modalities: 'fluctuating labor,' 'latent labor' or 'stagnant labor.' The first one, in its essential aspects, refers to the expansion-retraction motions of the economic system whose corolary is the incorporation or repulsion of workers. The 'latent' labor modality corresponds to the penetration of capitalism in rural areas, a process responsible for the displacement of available rural labor to the lines of the urban-industrial proletariat. 'Stagnant' labor embraces labor with entirely irregular occupational conditions characterized, among other things, by a minimum of wages and a maximum of work."

Marginal workers are considered to be spread throughout these three modalities.

Marginality in Latin America and in Brazil

The concrete cases of Latin American societies and more specifically of Brazil, are presented with statistical tables displaying the realities of the urban marginal population.

Examples relative to Brazil stress the role of the economy's growing monopolization and of the migration from rural areas to the city, at the same time as it analyzes the history of the social transformation process which took place in this country in times not so remote.

The interpretative scheme presented by the author highlights, among others, the disintegration which occurred in the production of crafts, the penetration of capitalism in rural areas and the dependent character of national industrialization.

Contain graphs.

PERLMAN, Janice E. *O mito da marginalidade*. Rio de Janeiro, Paz e Terra, 1977. 377p. (Estudos Brasileiros, 18).

In his preface to the above work, Fernando Henrique Cardoso both

clarifies and, to some extent, adds to the author's own contribution.
His last sentences sum up the central ideas of the work as follows:
"The discovery that such a situation is mythical and that the slum
is probably the most typical example of a much wider form of social
exploitation in which it is integrated, represents the first step in
the direction of breaking a prior—static and guilty—view of
marginality. Next, an analysis gives rise to the dialectic relation
between this world of the disinherited and the poles of dynamism and
economic growth of the system. In historical terms, the slum proper
only became a problem when economic growth and urban development brought
the immigrants *en masse* to the cities. Somehow, the misery of rural
areas—though filtered through and gradually adapted to the 'urban-
industrial civilization' thanks to a migratory pattern—invaded the
metropolis forcing governmental and church authorities, politicians and
scientists to become aware of the scandalous way in which, despite its
dynamism, economic development maintains and intensifies the model of
social disparity characteristic of underdeveloped societies."

The book is divided into eight chapters, and a specific bibliography
follows each. The appendix contains a methodological description of this
research carried out on migrants and slum dwellers in Rio de Janeiro in
1968 and 1969.

The text is made up of the following three parts: The Setting and its
Occupants; The Myths of Marginality; and, The Power of an Ideology.

In her introduction, the author explains the reasons which led her to
struggle for over ten years in the search of answers to her initial
questions, and recognizes her advantages as a foreigner in the role
of examining and discussing social, economic and political aspects of
the task. Her detailed explanations on the research techniques employed
will surely benefit anyone involved in this type of work.

In the section dedicated to the theme "The Setting and its Occupants"
the phenomenon of urbanization is dealt with in a special way as part
of study encompassing Latin America, the controversies, the reasons
for the migration, etc.

A detailed study of a "low" *favela* (an urban slum at the level of the
streets) and of a hillside *favela, of zona sul* favelas* and of suburb
favelas, including a discussion of similarities and differences among
them, contributes to the comprehension of values, practices and habits
which the middle class rejects mostly because it is unacquainted with
them.

The second part of the work elaborates on the development of these

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*Zona sul or the southern part of the city refers to the districts made
up of middle- and high-class poupulations. In our days there still
exists an élitist notion to the effect that living in the *zona sul* is
the equivalent to being better off both financially and in terms of
social class.

concepts, on relevant ideologies and stereotypes, and on the ambiguity involved in the treatment of the subject.

The text is filled with descriptions of facts, situations and experiences and it exposes with fidelity the main principles and the internal logic of chief trends as they contribute to the theory of marginality at the socio-economic level.

The following quotation from an article by Robert Park (1928) appearing as part of the psychosocial approach apparently summarizes the concept of 'marginal,' which he describes as a 'cultural hybrid:' "An individual living at the margin of two cultures and two societies which never interpenetrated or totally merged."

Each school is mentioned and its various related interpretations are described succinctly, but sufficiently enough to establish the differences in approach to the theme. Thus, the following are listed: the Architectural-Ecological School, the Ethnographic School, the School of Traditionalism versus Modernization, the School for the Culture of Poverty, the Participation 'Theory' defended by the Center of Economic and Social Development in Latin America known as DESAL, the Social Theory of Radicalism, and Marginality.

The study of various situations is followed by a series of information and data (from official organs), which allow the author to clarify positions taken with reference to the problem.

The third part—the Power of an Ideology—studies, analyzes and describes the rehousing of *favela* dwellers and interprets the process as the erradication of a culture.

Janice C. Perlman's book is for those interested in the Social Fact and who consider it as equal to, or more important than the Economic Fact. But, it is above all for those who see the Political Fact intervening with both positions.

PIAGET, Jean. *Seis estudos de psicologia*. Rio de Janeiro, Forense - Universitária, 1978. 146 p.

The above text is made up of the following six chapters on the psychology of Piaget: The child's mental development; The child's reasoning ability; Language and thought from a genetic viewpoint; The role of the notion of balance in psychologic explanation; Problems of genetic psychology; and, Genesis and structure of the psychology of intelligence.

Examples and details cut through the highly technical tone of the accounts rendering their comprehension somewhat less difficult or tiresome for readers not familiar with the specific terminology of psychology and research.

The concepts and observations presented below were extracted from the text as a way of illustrating the fact that the book is of interest to all those who are dedicated to education:

—"Development is a progressive equilibration, a continuous passage from a state of lesser balance to a state of higher balance."

It is easy to see that such gradual stabilization occurs not only with respect to intelligence, but also as related to emotions and social relations.

—"Human activity corresponds to this continuous and perpetual movement of readjustment or equilibration."

Presenting a detailed analysis from birth to the age of seven, Piaget stresses such aspects as the socialization of action; the origin of thought; intuition; and, emotions.

Next, the period between seven and twelve is discussed with a focus on rational operations and emotions.

The chapter on the child's reasoning ability displays the difference between the mind of the child and that of the adult. The chapter ends with a discussion of cognitive structure and genetic psychology and epistemology, thus clarifying aspects related to the development of the child's and the adult's reasoning ability.

The symbolic function—origin of thought in Piaget's terminology—and its development are among the most interesting aspects of the book, and Piaget concludes that "thought precedes language, the latter limiting itself to deeply transforming the former and helping it attain its states of equilibrium through more developed styles of organization and a more flexible abstraction."

Piaget uses the example of the logical-mathematics structure based on the experience with circular pieces of clay to demonstrate that, while neither of the three factors presented by psychologists in their current theories as maturation (structural but hereditary), physical milieu (the experience or the exercises) and social transmission, is by itself sufficient, each has a specific role to perform. And Piaget also introduces another factor which he refers to as equilibrium or equilibration.

It is based on the study of the phases observed in the development of the intellect that Piaget exemplifies and exposes his thought on equilibration.

ROBINSON, H. Alan. Reading instruction and research in historical
    perspective. IN: ——— *Reading & Writing instruction in the United
    States:* historical trends. Urbana, ERIC; Newark, IRA, 1977. p. 44-59.

H. Alan Robinson's chapter on reading instruction and research in the
United States summarizes much that has been written to date about the
subject. The text represents an attempt to reproduce the historical
trends in reading methodology, the content and structure of
instructional and supplemental materials, and, to a limited extent,
research activity, as they relate to that country.

To develop his subject the author borrowed primarily from Nila Banton
Smith's *American Reading Instruction,* published by the International
Reading Association in 1965.

Starting from seventeenth century colonial America, Robinson traces the
development of reading instruction and research through 9 periods which
reflect certain conditions and attitudes specific to this facet of
education as they relate to the main historical features illustrative
of the different stages.

As indicated by the author, the first and possibly sole method for
teaching the reading of English in seventeenth century America was
"the ancient classical method of having the child start with a mastery
of letters, then of syllables and finally of words and sentences."
(Mathews 1966, p.27). All subsequent approaches, however "new" carry
vestiges of the various preceding methods.

The first primers and texts used in reading instruction were imported
from Great Britain and focused mainly on religion.

Included among this initial reading material were the hornbook, a primer
for the beginning stages of instruction, the Psalter, a book of psalms,
and the Bible. The first spellers, concerned basically with spelling
instruction, also focused on the instruction of reading, religion and
morals.

Professional texts were nonexistent at the time and methods were
inspired on instruction as carried out in Great Britain.

The usual methodology consisted in moving from simple to more complex
units. Thus, the thorough memorization of the alphabet undertaken at
the beginning stages of reading instruction, was followed by the
mastery of organized groups of consonant-vowel clusters—the
syllabarium. Next, short words were learned as the necessary step
leading to the memorization of sentences and selections.

According to Smith and, in line with historical events, the years
between 1776 and 1840 emphasized nationalistic aims and centered
around the promotion of high ideals of virtue and moral behavior, and
the development of elocutionary ability.

While spelling was still taught at the time, sounds became important, articulation and pronunciation were stressed and, with Gallaudet's word-to-letter method, which shows a word under the picture of an object, sight vocabulary made its first appearances.

A new trend emphasizing meaning and thinking during reading emerged as a result of the introduction by Keagy of *The Pestalozzian Primer*.

The next period—1840 to 1880—focused on the search of more effective methods of teaching reading. Rather than placing emphasis on meaning, the beginning books of the period stressed sentences in their subservience to the phonetic elements used in texts for drill purposes However, the Pestalozzian movement encouraging the use of all senses and the development of thought in meaningful situations was reintroduced at that time by Horace Mann.

The syllabarium disappeared and the teaching of spelling now took place mainly through the concentration on phonetics, or phonics. Oral reading and elocutionary ability was still popular. As for special materials to assist the teacher, while some series carried instructions at the beginning of a volume, no teacher's manuals and few professional books had yet appeared.

The years between 1880 and 1910 witnessed the flourishing of taste in literature and corresponded to the time Smith referred to as the period of "reading as a cultural asset."

Reading instruction now based itself mainly on the teaching of sound/symbol relationships. The appearance of the word method, with emphasis on sight words and phonics, was followed by the sentence and story methods which stressed familiarization with larger language units before working on specific word-attack techniques, essentially phonics.

Research grew vigorously during this period focusing on problems children faced as they learned to read, as well as on the ever-growing significance of reading in daily life in the United States. These initial investigations brought new information on such aspects of the subject as rate in reading, distinctions between silent and oral reading, and individual differences in reading.

The period between 1910 and 1925 witnessed the advent of instruments of measurement and was, therefore, aptly named the "scientific movement."

True concern over the difficulty experienced by thousands of soldiers to follow printed instruction used in connection with military life, brought forth a renewed effort to perfect reading ability. Reading

tests appeared as of 1915 and a switch from oral to silent reading was the first true innovation emerging as a result of extensive research for the accomplishment of fluency and comprehension.

Reading instructors now were acutely aware of the need to attend to individual differences and, perhaps as a result of the fact that many intermediate children were unable to read well, a vague concern for providing special help to poor readers emerged.

According to Smith the period from 1925 to 1935 concerned itself with "intensive research and application." Special attention was directed at such aspects of reading as reading interests, reading disability and readiness for beginning reading. Diagnosis and remediation became chief topics of study.

Smith's "period of international conflict," lasting from 1935 to 1950, emphasized systematic instruction and reading in contemporary life.

Word recognition was broken down into phonics, structural analysis and context clues.

Individual needs still received special attention, and remediation was particularly focused on. Reading clinics developed fast during this period.

Smith chose to define the period between 1950 and 1965 as a time of "expanding knowledge and technological revolution."

Professional books abounded during these years and new and revised basals with extensive manuals spanned the elementary grades.

Authors and publishers had their moral and economic consciousness raised as a result of the civil rights movement. Individualized instruction gained a new conceptual framework and reading-readiness programs became evident.

Reading instruction, in general, incorporated all of the reading skills developed over the years. Phonics were still taught in basal programs.

Adult reading programs became popular during this period. Centered on the functionally illiterate or on those who wanted to improve their reading, these programs were offered in adult education centers, as well as in libraries and in business settings. Retarded readers sought care at public and private clinics.

Research improved and was prolific.

The sociology of reading emerged taking its place next to the already existing interest in the study of psychological factors associated with reading.

In terms of education, Smith divides the period between 1965 and 1976 into two separate halves: the first he defines as a period of hope and abundance; the second, one of uncertainty and poverty.

Reading instruction at this stage carried vestiges of all approaches used in the U.S. since 1840.

Materials were abundant during the first half of this period due to the availability of funds from various sources.

Minority groups received special attention and there were funds for additional personnel in the school system. Reading teachers were particularly in demand.

The latter half of the period registered new facts. A necessary restriction of budget caused by inflation and recession forced publishers to be more selective about their purchases.

School populations decreased due to "no growth" and the lowered national birth rate, and the result was the closure of many schools and the excising of thousands of teachers.

Communication skills (including reading)—capable of helping learners to cope in their everyday lives—became popular, and adult education programs now focused on consumer education, health, job-finding skills, and ecology.

According to Robinson the most significant "innovation" of this decade, or of a slightly earlier time, corresponds to the contribution to reading instruction made by linguistics, psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics.

As a concluding note, the following quote from Gunderson (1971) sums up the author's hopes for the future of reading instruction:

"A teacher who has an understanding of language and its structure, and who possesses the requisite skills to understand and to capitalize on a child's particular strengths should be able to provide the proper opportunity for children to learn to read."

ROGERS, Carl R. *Grupos de encontro*. 2 ed. São Paulo, Martins Fontes, 1978. 165p. (Pedagogia e Psicologia).

A personal document based on experience and observation, this book conveys the Author's viewpoint about what he refers to as "one of the most fascinating kinds of research of our time: intensive group experience."

In the introduction to the Portuguese language edition, Prof. J. L. Proença raises important points for the analysis of this text:

- encounter groups (or T-groups) are closely linked with Carl Rogers who pioneered them;
- groups open the way for wider and more direct relationships among people, in other words, they lead to what Rogers refers to as basic encounters, immediate person-to-person relationships;
- encounter groups emphasize such values as spontaneity, participation, interrelationship, expression of feelings, and solidarity. Such values are fundamental to Humanistic Psychology, and they are also stressed by Maslow and May;
- Rogers considers encounter groups as the most powerful and widespread social invention of this century;
- utilization of encounter groups in the various areas of human activities may activate evolution and give rise to more creative changes;
- Rogers acknowledges criticism of encounter groups as long as it does not preclude their participation in the awakening of ample social changes at some future date.

In the preface, the Author talks about his experiences in individual counseling and psychotherapy as the elements that built up his professional background.

This book is divided into ten chapters, and there are charts and suggestions for questionnaires and evaluation sheets.

The Author calls the reader's attention to the fact that although there have been and will always be groups so long as man exists on this planet, the experiment discussed in this text is planned and intensive, and it is "the greatest social invention of this century, in the form of T-group, encounter groups, sensitivity training, human relations laboratories, leadership, education or counseling workshop." In the specific case of drug addicts, the group is often referred to as "synanon."

Thus, considering that encounter groups have been used in industries, universities, religious institutions, government agencies, educational institutions, and penitentiaries, it is possible to say that their reach is wide.

Kurt Lewin (a psychologist of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology—MIT—) developed this idea which only became a reality after his death, in 1947. Besides MIT, the University of Michigan has also been engaged in studies of groups, and Bethel, in Maine, became a famous center as well.

The National Training Laboratories dedicated specifically to industry, were set up. Following World War II, Rogers and his collaborators started work at the University of Chicago treating soldiers returning from war, at the request of the Veterans' Administration. The purpose of this treatment, according to Rogers, was to arrive at a process of therapeutic value to soldiers by joining experiential to cognitive learning.

The Author also mentions the fact that experiences carried out at that time were based on ideas taken from Kurt Lewin, on Gestalt psychology, and on client-centered therapy. Contemporary work in the field has been influenced and modified by other theoretical components, other interests and indicators.

Several types of groups with specific objectives and centered on different aspects of personality, are listed. This diversity, however, is tied together continuously by a common thread whose features may be described briefly as follows: convergence through intensive group experience; small, relatively non-structured groups made up of a minimum of eight and a maximum of eighteen persons; personal selection of particular objetives and directives; a minimum of theoretical information on the subject; participation of a facilitator whose main task revolves around encouraging the expression of feelings and thoughts, and acting as a support for interactions among group members.

In addition to these characteristics, there are certain easily recognizable practical hypotheses.

There is an atmosphere of security, freedom of expression, and mutual trust, which is progressive and all-embracing. There is also a feedback movement, which in this case refers to the reaction one person causes on another.

The reason for the rapid spread of encounter groups, according to the Author, lies in the hunger for intimate and genuine relationships where feelings and emotions can be expressed spontaneously, without prior censoring and control, and where a person has reached a point at which everything is known and accepted, so that a greater evolution is possible.

This, in sum, is the message conveyed by this book—a message which coincides with the purpose of all kinds of groups, regardless of whether they are applied in industry, education, religion, or other areas. From among the various more or less violent types of criticism raised to this work, the Author cites the Nazi aspect of the experience which several psychologists and sociologists have already brought to light.

Criticism of a more violent nature proceeds from individuals in the extreme right who are often domineering in character, and are

permanently in quest of "the enemy," who once was the witch, the devil, the communist, and who now is sex education, sensitivity training, non-religious humanism, and other such "enemies" discovered and hated. This explanation, based on studies and documents, has been put forward by James Harmon.

The Author accepts it and believes that encounter groups, because they lead to greater personal independence, a lesser amount of covered up feelings, a greater interest in innovating and greater opposition to institutional rigidity, produce constructive change, which is a threat to those individuals who are against modifications and are in favor of maintaining the *status quo*.

Along with his description of the various evolutionary phases of the process, the Author presents a great number of clarifying examples as well as a detailed analysis of all aspects, providing thus the reader with a thorough and detailed view of the work carried out through intensive group experiences. In conclusion, the Author points to the necessity of continued study and investigation.

The role of the facilitator, his tasks and performance are discussed in detail. The opinion put forward is that his participation though important, is not decisive, and that the group can occasionally do without him.

In a final analysis, the facilitator, as described, is someone capable of leading discussions, moderating, orienting, teaching, and knowing topics of interest to the groups. In addition to empathy and an unusual capacity for perception, he should have general knowledge and a great deal of patience.

One aspect thoroughly debated, and analyzed by the Author, in relation to which he quotes experiences with his daughter and his granddaughter, refers to physical contact among people in groups. Here are to be found testimonials of three generations: that of the Author, of his daughter, and of his granddaughter.

Behavioral changes occuring in persons and in institutions as a result of participation in encounter groups is also discussed. Examples are given, and the Author includes in the text a very interesting letter from a man named Joe who could be referred to as "The Changing Person".

The final part of the book deals with the various fields where encounter groups are applied, as well as with the qualifications of the facilitator.

Efforts of the La Jolla Program—the Center for the training of facilitators—are enthusiastically described, and Rogers submits proposals for greater dissemination of information on this experimental program and its objectives.

A key book to be included in the bibliography of those engaged in the preparation of human resources, this work considers the future, the human being emerging from encounter group experiences, and the kind of society everyone aspires after.

WARDE, Miriam Jorge. *Educação e estrutura social:* a profissionalização em questão. São Paulo, Cortez & Moraes, 1977. 190p. (Educação Universitária).

In his introduction to Miriam J. Warde's work, Dermeval Saviani describes it as an authoritative study and analysis of education for professional careers at the secondary school level, in pursuance of the recommendations set forth in Reports 45/72 and 76/75 by the Brazilian Federal Council of Education.

According to Saviani anyone interested in educational problems from the critical viewpoint will find this book worth reading.

Chapter headings are: Introduction; Comparative analysis between Report 45/72 and Report 76/75; Social factors causing a gap between theory and pratice in education; Gap between theory and practice in policies regarding secondary education for profissional careers; Contextual analysis; and,Conclusions.

In discussing Report 45/72, inferences are drawn regarding contradictions between general education and education for professional careers, and the contradictions between "humanism" and "technology," along with their attendant implications which for years have been hampering the organization of an educational system tailored to Brazilian reality.

A passage between pages 87 and 98 deserves being quoted since, through it, Ms. Warde succeeded in summarizing in a few lines the true nature of the dichotomy academic culture versus labor-oriented education, as well as the role played by Christianity which for a long period of time stood between these two,adding thus to an already serious problem.

"From this viewpoint (Humanism equals Christianity), Christianity is humanist. It is a misunderstanding to consider Christianity as opposed to technological education as if the latter were a kind of paganism in contraposition to classical culture which would be Christian. Truth lies elsewhere: the rebirth of classical culture was hardly Christian. On the other hand, the theory describing manual labor as unworthy of a free man stems from the heathen Aristotle. Christ was a carpenter."

The text includes transcriptions of legislation, reports and commentaries by members of the Federal Council of Education, as well a summary table of educational authorities responsible for the establishment of

curricula and of the nomenclature of courses of studies and their respective subject matter areas. It also includes a list of 130 secondary level professional qualifications, and examples of curriculum requirements for twelve of these qualifications.

In her conclusions, the author explains that analyses made regarding secondary education for professional careers are intended to contribute to in-depth studies of the differences between theory and practice in Brazilian education. It has been determined that such differences are due to the existing class structure in Brazil, where—as in society of classes ruled by the capitalist mode of production—institutions are strongly influenced by the interests of the dominant class.

The author presents a series of propositions through which she explores possibilities for changes within the framework of the current situation. This intermediate or transitional step toward a desirable stage, could be summed up in the words of Ms. Warde as transcribed from the Declaration of the UNESCO Conference in Venezuela in 1971: "The content of education requires a thorough revision aimed at providing a way toward the integral preparation of man as a total human being. That an individual be frustrated or deprived of the possibilities of development and self- fulfillment which education in any form should be able to provide, is both unfair and detrimental to society. Although integral education has always been discussed in the past, at this stage it should be interpreted in the light of the general characteristics of our time and of each country. It has to be conceived as the kind of education which fulfills the double function of preserving man's cultural heritage, while at the same time preparing for the future: an education comprising intellectual education, awareness of the value of labor, and the development of critical and creative capabilities. All this has to be oriented by moral education and by the willingness of the individual to dedicate his knowledge and efforts to the advancement of the society in which he lives, so that he may find his own personal fulfillment as a man and as a citizen of the national and universal community."

The author brings the book to an end with a simple and objective phrase:

"To educate integrally means to enhance the value of labor by including it among the fundamental pursuits of man, along with his way of life, his social contacts, and his survival."

2.3. ARTICLES

THE ADULT teacher and the gray boom. *Adult Education Clearing-House.*
Upper Montclair, Adult Continuing Education Montclair State College,
7(1): 8-11, Jan. 1979.

According to latest statistics approximately 32 million people in the
United States are age 60 or over. Many of these individuals are
politically and socially among the most active citizens in that
country.

This datum alone would be enough to prove that some of the common
beliefs on aging need a serious reappraisal.

Learning abilities do not switch off at any particular age, nor are
people less bright as they grow older.

The present article examines some such notions while elaborating on the
recent spread of educational programs intended to focus on the needs
and interests of the steadily increasing population of older Americans.
Learning ability, the article purports, is tied to physical health,
therefore, as the person's health declines certain physical factors
are likely to require particular attention from the adult teacher.

Between the ages of 42 and 55, for example, sharpness of vision declines
rapidly. Hearing as well becomes less acute as the person grows older.
For these and other reasons, often of a psychological order, the aging
student may be slower to learn and may need to be approached in a
different manner.

Hints offered teachers for dealing with visual and hearing problems in
older learners include seating the student closer to the teacher;
standing still so the student may lip read; and, using simple, clear and
easy words for better understanding.

After indicating that the most difficult aspect of teaching in the case
of adults revolves around attempts to effect change in the latter's
behavior patterns, a list of characteristics of the older learner taken
from NAPCAE's source book *You Can Be a Successful Teacher of Adults* is
reproduced. The following are among the characteristics mentioned:

· the adult learner may exhibit strong rigidity in patterns of behavior.

· the adult learner is continuously aware of past successes and
failures, therefore, if threatened with feelings of inferiority or
insecurity, will probably "clam up".

· the adult learner may believe that he/she is too old to learn, which
in fact is not true. Providing reassurance will increase his/her
ability to achieve.

As a concluding note, the adult teacher is urged to discover the
special services available for older students in the community and to
encourage the latter to make use of them.

BEHÁR, Moisés. Uma doença que o homem criou. *A Saúde do Mundo,* Genebra,
    OMS, 5-9, maio 1977.

Moisés Behár's article centers on the problem of malnutrition in our
world of today, on the causes leading to it and on the necessary
measures for its eradication. In addition, the work develops a critique
on the strategies employed by countries whose efforts, rather than
seeking an end to the problem of inadequate nutrition, aim at achieving
national economic growth independently from social development.

Malnutrition presents itself as a social disease frequent in various
regions of the planet, particularly in the tropical and subtropical
belts, where an expressive size of the population suffers from it.

To the author the most significant cause of malnutrition rests on the
structure itself of contemporary society with its social, economic and
political levels.

The unequal distribution of food stuffs on both the national and the
international scales is described as the factor which fosters that
condition.

Behár attacks the thesis according to which malnutrition would be tied
to the scarcity of food on a global level, just as he is critical of
the view which describes the food crisis as the product of demographic
growth or of "ignorance" on the part of certain populational groups
with respect to fully taking advantage of foods.

It is known that the failure of some countries to produce sufficient
foods is related to socio-economic restrictions due to which the
populational majority is barred from the production and acquisition of
the necessary food stuffs. That many countries suffering extensively
from nutritional want are among those which export surplus products to
outside markets is also worth mentioning.

The various infectious diseases stemming from unsanitary environmental
conditions and attacking mainly the youngest section of the population
may also be cited as a factor encouraging inanition since these maladies
are accompanied by a reduction in appetite.

Solving the problem of malnutrition should not be tied exclusively to
the action of medicine since no medication or vaccine actually exists
capable of preventing, let alone curing the condition. Medicine will
only serve as an eradicating factor when used as part of a larger social

development plan which presupposes basic transformation in the agricultural, economic and social programs. "In sum, this means socio-economic development, but development geared to solving the problems of individuals and, essentially, of the neediest among these individuals."

Past experience has demonstrated that it takes more than the growth of national economies to put an end to the problem of malnutrition. Economic development unaccompanied by considerable changes in living conditions has proven inefficient in the effort to raise the level of the population. Improving the nutritional base cannot be set as an indirect objective, nor can it be considered a mere by-product of national economic growth. On the other hand, significant improvements in nutritional levels have not been accompanied by particularly great transformations in economic development when programs seek nutrition as a primordial objective.

As a result of numerous restrictive measures and due to the contemporary difficulties experienced in the promotion of a truly efficient nutritional program, some countries use palliative measures geared to minimizing the problem.

Nevertheless, the simultaneous development of a planning scheme, in the molds of those adopted by countries concerned with social progress and therefore attentive to the economic structure, is of vital importance.

BINAMIRA, Ramón P. Estudio de Caso. El Proyecto Compasión Filipinas: participación y servicios integrados. *Lea carneta de l'enfance*, Paris, United Nations Children's Foundation (39):47-77, juil./sept. 1977.

The "Special Meeting on the Asian Situation with Particular Emphasis on Basic Services," took place in Manila in May 1977.

Binamira, a specialist in rural development and author of the project "Compasión Filipinas," prepared an informative document about this plan, its elaboration and perspectives.

The document exposes the ways by which governments of underdeveloped countries, conscious of how rural migration and related urban misery can shake political and economic foundations, make it a habit to plan huge and costly development programs.

Well-meaning though they are, these plans are generally based on the sophisticated and overly expensive programs of industrialized nations which are hardly suitable for countries with scarce resources.

The above has troubled the minds of true contemporary planners who, in addition, stress the dangers likely to occur when planning focuses only on the economic aspect, totally disregarding the social issue.

While the criterium ruling that decisions should stem from the government still holds, the need for effective popular mobilization is becoming ever more recognized. And that precise idea originates from the philosophy of the "Compasión Filipinas" Project.

In the Philippines, rural population adds up to 30 million people, of which the great majority are spread out among the more than 7,000 islands of the archipelago, in conditions of extreme poverty and isolation.

Birth rate is high and so is death rate among children. The Phillipine government implemented four programs: The Green (agricultural) Revolution, Nutrition, Population and Environment. Integrated into a unique program, while maintaining their technical characteristics, they gave birth to the "Compasión Filipinas" Project.

Community volunteers form groups of facilitators whose job it will be to raise the consciousness of people with respect to their problems, so that they might find solutions appropriate to their particular possibilities and resources.

Children of rural areas are assisted first.

The Project operates on three levels: national, provincial and local. At the national level it is directed by an Executive Committee responsible for defining the policies of the Project. This Committee is made up of the heads of each of the four previously implemented programs, namely, Green Revolution, Nutrition, Population and Environment.

Operationalization is carried out by a Division of General Administration, but the techniques to be used and the material and financial resources applicable in each case are determined by each group in charge of the various programs. A Provincial Development Council plans and coordinates at the level of province.

Other provincial organisms presided by a Governor, Mayor or a special delegate each play their part in the Project. Some provinces have a Family Development Committee in place of this council.

At the local level, the structure is based on a network of district ("barangay") services tied to the Family Development Committee and encompassing 20 families. The group facilitators are chosen from among the members of these families.

The Project began with counseling seminars for Family
Development Committee members, Governors and Mayors. These meetings were
aimed at raising the consciousness of the participants with respect to
the need to bring together the various existing plans of development,
thus creating a single one.

Ten municipalities were chosen in each province and provisional plans
were organized for training at the municipal and district levels. In one
single year there were 9 provincial seminars and 82 municipal seminars.
Two thousand five hundred and fifty seven classes were held in the
villages, while in the districts 40,053 Development Committee members
received training.

Facilitators are trained by special instructors of which there are
three per province.

This training is given in the national language or in one of the eight
regional dialects. The methodology aims at identifying community
problems and at making facilitators aware that the solution to the great
majority of these problems lies in their hands.

Facilitators should conduct a survey on the daily routine of the
community and on the problems of the 20 families under their charge,
thus establishing parameters for future evaluations.Assisted by the
data collected and under the guidance of the instructors, each
facilitator prepares a plan of action with his/her own group.

These plans are later collected by the district's Family Development
Committee and grouped into one global plan, which will be the base for
the projects concerned with services rendered for the municipalities
and provinces.

Bees are formed to carry out community activities both in the case of
the construction of cesspools and with respect to tasks related to
gardening or farming.

When materials seeds or other products are needed, they may be
requested from the central authorities.

The evaluation is carried out at the level of homes, at the municipal
and provincial levels and at level of group facilitators. The system
is simple. According to the basic principle of the control and
evaluation system, all information is channeled to the appropriate
level for the required measures. Project Compasión, though recent —
operations began in November 1975 — has already yielded positive
results. The Nutrition Program has witnessed a rise of 966% in child
attendance. With respect to the Green Revolution Program there has
been a rise of 27% in the number of family gardens.

The most positive aspect, however, refers to the changes felt. In the field of nutrition, preventive activities are gradually replacing curative activities. Greater importance is given to nutritional education and to the production of foods in family gardens. Agricultural production was intensified with the introduction of more nutritive cultures and the installation of nurseries for the production of seeds and sprouts. Family planning became more elaborate; tree planting has become more intense and the construction of sanitary services has also shown an increase.

The difficulties faced by the Project are mostly financial in character and are due to the fact that the resources available are part of the global budget of the government. Its results will only be recognized years from now but, at this point, it is already possible to appreciate the fact that the Project itself is a great step towards solving the problems of the population, especially those concerned with rural poverty and pertaining to the most distant and hard to reach places.

According to the author, a Project of this sort should take into account the following:

1. active participation on the part of the population in the planning and execution of activities aimed at general well-being;

2. full use of local resources;

3. universalization — including every community in the country;

4. consistency with the social and cultural structure of the population;

5. restriction to the resources of the country.

Contains graphs.

CIRIGLIANO, Gustavo & PALDAO, Carlos E. La educación de adultos; hipótesis interpretativa y perspectivas. *Educación Médica y Salud.* Washington, OMS/Oficina Sanitaria Panamericana, 12(2): 101-18, 1978.

This article is centered on the concerns over adult education peculiar to the twentieth century and describes its various phases, particularly as related to Latin America.

Although the expression 'permanent education' was coined in England as early as 1919, the concept defining it emerged in the 60's, born from the actual pratice of adult education, which was soon to be recognized an indispensable condition for social survival.

As of recently adult education ceased to refer merely to suppletory
schooling, to updating in terms of learning or to a way of spending
free time. Nowadays it is seen rather as an aspect of politics and
social planning, with a definite role in national objectives leading
to a change in society and aiming at providing citizens with instruments
of social participation.

The last ten years witnessed an intensified concern over adult education
in Latin America. During this period adult education activities
included: traditional literacy (the teaching of reading, writing and
arithmetic); adult education (unfinished stages in school); basic
education (rules which permit marginalized sectors to perform their
role in development); functional literacy (as a component of social
and economic development); lifelong education (as an educational process
to last for an entire lifetime); education aimed at consciousness
raising (an education awakening the individual to a reflexive and
critical attitude about him/herself and his/her world, with the objective
of transforming both).

There are three phases in the development of adult education. While
they are not necessarily chronological in their order of appearance,
these phases clearly demonstrate the evolution of this modality of
learning in the history of education.

The first phase appears during the postwar period when the world
becomes aware that tasks of reconstruction and technological progress
require new methods of learning and training. This phase encompasses
literacy in underdeveloped countries, suppletory education,
professional qualification and reeducation from a perspective of
lifelong learning.

The adult education methodology during this stage is practically a
reproduction of the formal school system.

The second phase recognizes the difference between the adult and the
child, and researches new methodologies adaptable to the psychology of
the adult. Literacy becomes functional and new methods are rehearsed.
Historically, it corresponds in Latin America to the multinational
projects of the PREDE (Programa Regional de Desenvolvimento Educacional)
or Regional Educational Development Program/OAS, and to the Technical
Meeting of Directors on National Adult Education Programs, which took
place in Buenos Aires in 1970.

Towards the end of the 60's, adult education, as part of permanent
education, begins to be viewed as having precedence over all other
modalities of the educational system.

In this context, a relevant motto would be: "Any human being can learn
from reality and become educated as part of a joint effort involving

other human beings." The idea of *continuity* is stressed as the axis of
education and the limitations of formal schooling are brought to focus.
This particular phase raises questions at the same time as it generates
new modalities.

The Buenos Aires National Seminar on Lifelong Education (1970) is tied
to this phase. It discusses, among others, the following ideas: "it is
always possible to learn"; "any context of reality can be a source of
learning"; and, "schooling restricts the individual". If any context
educates, interacting with it means for an individual gaining direct
and critical awareness of its peculiar reality and of his/her role with
respect to it.

This third phase questions the institutions and the professionals
involved with them, and worries about the huge power of social
communication media which, though transformed into a parallel
educational system, do not represent a clearcut educational control.

The idea of a *learning society* emerges, syntheses and interdisciplinary
attitudes are sought, all media are brought to light and educational
research gets elaborate attention.

However, adult education runs the risk of becoming a formalized
learning system. Such a threat to the integrity of the permanent
education   ideal is duly pointed out; yet the most important aspect
of this phase, rather than being a sterile discussion of ideologies,
can be said to be the joint, shared and solidary search for solutions.

It is important to point out that in Latin America adult education
activities, in agreement with the stage of development of each country,
usually fit into one of these phases.

It is not a question of imposing a third phase onto countries with
serious illiteracy problems, to cite just one example. The formulae of
the first and second phases still apply in these cases.

The more developed countries seem to be headed towards a fourth phase
whose main ideas were included in the innovations of Argentina's
National Adult Education Direction, referred to as DINEA (Dirección
Nacional de Educación de Adultos, da Argentina), in 1971. They also
appear in Manuel Pereira Lopez's study (1976) and in the Tokyo
Conference (1972) according to which education should cease being a
formal process and be characterized instead as functional. This stage
demands the presence of a facilitator or social organizer operating
through experiences related to open education, a learning society and
education through mass communication media.

As to Latin America, it would appear to be legitimate to add a Latin
American content to lifelong education, freeing it from other contexts.

Redefining adult education would be based on popular need for health, culture, housing, work and nutrition, as part of a life project.

In 1976, Unesco in Nairobi refers to "agencies for services," as part of an interinstitutional network whose target, rather than actually focusing on teaching, would aim at the training of facilitators or social organizers, who would coordinate a particular environment to where people would bring their experiences.

The facilitator, organizer or coordinator would apply methods of planning aimed at facilitating group and individual programming. Educational planning has undergone the following stages:

1) planning according to social demand;

2) planning according to cost/benefit;

3) planning according to human resources;

4) planning according to international comparisons.

Such stages have been critically judged and presently microplanning, or basic planning, is part of accepted practice.

Three basic elements are stressed for their educational potential:
1) social groups [family, district (community) or club] ;
II) institutions (work, union, hospital, school); III) institutions susceptible to systematization (radio, newspapers, magazines, televisi movies). Microplanning is justifiable only in the case of the first item, while the other two would do better with macroplanning.

The authors conclude that it would be unwise to discard what has been accomplished to date by education and start anew from nothing.

To them, it is a matter of at one time preserving what, from past experiences, seems to work adequately, and moving ahead with an open outlook for the future.

ISELY, Raymond B. & MARTIN, Jean F. El comité sanitario de aldea; punto de partida del desarrollo rural. *Crónica de la OMS*. Ginebra, OMS, 31(8):343-52, ago. 1977.

Socio-economic development presents itself as a basic problem for rural populations. While no universal solution exists to make up for human and material deficiencies in the countryside, it is a fact gathered from experience that inhabitants of rural areas will only reach their goals once they become organized internally with a view to attaining objectives they can understand and set up themselves, and once they utilize local resources. In our days the concept which states that "organizing socio-economic development must come from the level of villages" is becoming steadily more acceptable.

The village sanitary committee is an example of adaptation to local objectives as well as of the utilization of indigenous resources. A priori the main function of sanitary committees would refer to the resolution of problems surrounding the sanitary question, however, other problems are brought to light as well. Thus, it is important to stress the significance of the committees both as agents responsible for encouraging resolutions related to sanitary questions, and as instruments for the valuing of man, since they create spaces through which the latter is able to participate in community life. This article focuses on the advancing and retrogressing steps of a project whose objective is the establishment and functioning of rural committees in the mid-southern region of Cameroon.

Rural landscapes in developing countries often reflect a relative lack of organization. The factors contributing to this vision are basically the following:

- In an economy defined as "modern," industrialization is stressed over agriculture and, within the latter, cultivation is developed mainly for commercial purposes.

- Preexistence of an elitist type education removed from real problems of the community.

- An imported scale of values whose main concerns are geared towards individual, rather than collective success.

- Centralization determined by the authorities in both the private and the public sector and due to which rural populations are made helpless insofar as solving their problems is concerned.

The following are some of the consequences highlighted: rural exodus, decadence with respect to many aspects of traditional life, weakening of the political power centered in urban zones and, lastly, nutritional want.

Although it is very difficult to solve problems of rural zones, it is fundamental that this be done in view of the significance of the country for the economy of developing nations: "...80% or more of the population resides in rural zones and produces most of the national income."

Since it is known that agricultural production will, in a not so distant future become the basis of national economy, rural life— particularly in villages— requires improvements which, in turn, require the participation of local populations.

The regional project for training in public health—joint enterprise undertaken in Yandí by Pittsburgh University and the Coordinating Organization for the Struggle against Endemies in Central Africa — defines the Village Sanitary Committee as an organization where leaders of a hamlet determine priority sanitary requirements for the prosperity and the comfort of the population.

The project did not appear solely for the promotion of health, but also
to prove to village populations that they could in effect solve their
problems with the aid of local resources. Success in one health program
becomes a stimulus for the solution of other problems. The criterium
of joint action might transcend to the health sector and reach the full
and integrated development of the rural environment.

Selecting pilot hamlets in cooperation with local administrative
employees was the first step taken in the implementation of the project.
A research on health-related attitudes and practices of the population
was developed throughout the four chosen hamlets. The second phase
involved training the itinerant agents to organize committees, assist
committee members through lectures at the beginning of the sanitary
action and spread the program to other hamlets.

The organizational activities began in mid-1973. By 1975 there were 40
sanitary committees. Some of the latter emerged spontaneously prompted
by requests from local leaders.

During the organizational phase the traveling agents tried to establish
a local base capable of performing with a certain autonomy. Some of the
activities geared to organizing locally include: meeting with the
leaders of the village or hamlet; socio-demographic and medical
research; choice of priority problems; selection of a problem for the
committee to act on; evolution of local resources, establishment of
graded objectives, distribution of responsibilities and establishment
of a schedule of operations.

The maintenance phase begins when the village committee is apt to
assume its own autonomy without the aid of the itinerant agent. During
this phase the function of the traveling agent revolves around studying
the progresses attained by the committee and establishing priorities and
new objectives, so that committee members may become familizarized with
the planning process.

Results can be estimated by figuring the number of committees established
and the measures which have materialized. The best way to judge the
work is by evaluating practical attitudes related to health and,
ultimately, by the population's new state of health.

Satisfactory results in the sanitary field led to other activities.
Ekali, one of the four pilot villages, is outstanding in this respect.
In a broad outline, the project aroused great interest with respect to
the situation of the hamlets and brought forth renewed pride in
indigenous undertakings.

The Health Ministry's cooperation in the supervision of activities
related to the project was sought through the appointment of itinerant

agents to health centers, as well as through participation by Ministry employees in the profits obtained from the project. In this manner, the Ministry would be in the position to follow the evolution of the enterprise.

The annual leaders' conference organized in 1974 and 1975 and of which Ministerial staff, itinerant agents and presidents of village committees participated, contributed greatly to the joint undertaking.

The Health Ministry evaluated the undertakings of the project by distributing premiums throughout the various villages. This initiative had an excellent impact over the populations of rural areas. Following Ministerial order, Ministry employees began paying periodical visits to the villages in order to follow the development of the project. Finally, during a meeting of leaders in 1975, Ministerial representatives assured committee presidents and traveling agents of the interest to expand the experience throughout the entire country.

The establishment of sanitary committees generally reflected the basic problems faced by rural populations. The authors set out by mentioning the rural exodus caused by lack of agreement in local decision making. Another obstacle consisted in the lack of interest in preventive measures on the part of the population, a fact stemming mainly from the latter's lack of information with respect to matters related to health and hygiene.

Physical and socio-political factors have also played their part in the project's development. In rainy seasons, the precarious state of roads made journeying difficult for the itinerant agent. Due to their work in the plantations, the population was less available to participate in the project. Thus, project-related tasks had to be carried out between the phases of planting and reaping.

Among the socio-political factors affecting the development of the project, it is important to stress the fear on the part of certain authority figures of claims by villagers concerning public services. Another obstacle refers to problems concerning the committees' organizational expenses.

Lack of initial support on the part of the Ministry has also contributed to holding up the project. Official recognition only came in 1975.

Among the important lessons useful in future actions connected to sanitary education, the following deserve notice:

- Organizing the community is in general a step in the right direction. The population has always responded positively to efforts brought about with the purpose of initiating organization.

- Time is a key factor in the organization of rural populations. No
specific time limit exists for the organization of a sanitary committee;
thus, initial stages require the constant support of itinerant agents.

- Even though sanitary problems go well with activities geated to
community action, it is preferable to adopt an integrated approach
encompassing agriculture, education and infra-structure. While sanitary
committees serve as a base for integrated development activities, most
frequently the model for other projects has been taken from the way
they organized to solve particular problems.

- Convenience in incorporating a valuing plan in the project from the
very beginning. The main objectives had not been stipulated at the
beginning of the project. Research on notions, attitudes and practices
undertaken as of the very beginning was significant as a determinant of
the line of action.

A balance of the experience obtained in the project of village sanitary
committees stresses that their organization, by joining local resources
and potential strength to a certain external catalyzing support, reveals
itself to be quite efficient. It has, in addition, contributed to the
improvement of the sanitary field and to the development of the rural
world through effective participation of the community.

Contains graphs.

KATZ, Richard. The painful ecstasy of healing. *Psychology Today*. New
    York, Zeff-Davis Publ. Co. 10(7):81-3, 85-6, Dec. 1976.

In 1968, Harvard psychologist Richard Katz lived among the !Kung*—a
tribal community of the Kalahari Desert in Botswana, Africa—as a
member of the Harvard Kalahari Project.

One of the few surviving groups of hunters and gatherers, the !Kung have
developed very close ties as a result of their sharing their possessions
and their day-to-day experiences. This constant struggle for the meager
resources yielded by the earth occurs in the midst of a profound
spiritual dimension manifested above all through all-night healing
dances.

Dance for the !Kung is a social and community-centered experience
leading to a wide redistribution of energy and a growth hardly possible
in the case of isolated efforts.

Physical and mental ills, problems varying in nature from divorces to
the settling of arguments over food distribution are all resolved
through these dances. The !Kung believe that everyone—sound or ill—can

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*Kung - The exclamation point in !Kung refers to one of the four clicking sounds in
    their language.

benefit from their dances and their healing practice considers the individual as a whole rather than focusing on an isolated part of him/her.

To this society dance represents a spiritual exercise demanding the participation of each and everyone of its members. Women usually huddle together around a fire and sing their healing songs, while men, who are most often the healers, gather about the former in a circle of dancers.

While they rest, some community members sit around small fires at the edges of the village offering the indispensable support of their presence.

The dance liberates a healing energy designated as *n/um*. The *n/um* is found, among other places, in the fire and in healing songs. In the healers it concentrates in the pit of their stomachs and at the base of their spines. Through the dance the *n/um* is awakened and heated to a boiling point. From there it vaporizes and rises up the spine till it reaches the skull.

This painful experience represents death and rebirth, essential aspects of the healing process. It is a difficult and terrifying journey not everyone can undertake. When *n/um* reaches the brain the individual enters *!Kia*, a state of transcendence which enables him/her to see the reality of the unseen and, through arguments and even struggles with the gods, to actually remove the ailments of other community members.

The dance is a family affair which brings together the entire group. It goes from dusk to dawn often several times a week.

Katz points out that the !Kung do not distinguish between the sacred and the profane the same way we do. Thus, even though their dance is a profound spiritual affair occurring in an atmosphere of true reverence and awe, laughter and joy are never far away serving to ease the tension and provide encouraging support.

The fact that most healers are men does not mean that women are not free to choose the path of healing or that there is a social imbalance tied to uneven role performance and hiding the superiority of one sex over the other.

The experience of transcendence is shared equally by all and, while the spiritual dimension is essential to their lives, "healers, like all !Kung, are first hunters and gatherers, and only secondarily healers."

Accepting the *!Kia*, for example, requires the participation and support of every member of the community since, as mentioned above, this process is very painful and frightening.

In highlighting the contrasts between our culture and that of this group, Katz stresses that while our way of seeing things is quite different from that of the !Kung, we could learn a lot from their healing tradition and its perspective of consciousness and human growth. Their wisdom includes, among other things, the awareness that curing involves both the spiritual and the emotional dimensions of the individual; that everyday life and enhanced states of consciousness are intimately tied together and that it is possible to share the healing power.

Finally, Katz warns us of the dangers threatening this egalitarian hunting-gathering society which does not believe in hoarding possessions, prestige or power.

Thus, he points out how growing capitalist pressure is systematically bearing down on the !Kung, while eager South African missionaries are trying to convert them to an organized religion.

As a concluding note, Katz muses that the lessons of this community, while it still exists, "...might help us dismantle some of our own cultural barriers to healing and spiritual growth."

MARQUES, Juracy C. Modelo para o estudo do desenvolvimento humano como um processo de toda a vida. *Arquivos Brasileiros de Psicologia*, Rio de Janeiro, Fundação Getulio Vargas/Instituto de Seleção e Orientação Profissional. 30(1-2):207-18, jan./jun. 1978.

This article proposes a tridimensional model of human development with the following component parts: 1) evolutive tasks; 2) the understanding of behavior; and, 3) teaching guidelines. This model is based on the fact that human development and the educational process are intimately tied to each other during man's entire existence.

Human development refers to those transformations which enable the individual to gradually acquire his/her independence and become a mature and socially responsible adult. While it is possible for other persons to observe some of its aspects, this process develops as part of the individual's most intimate self.

The educational process takes place as a result of the multiple and varied influences which act upon individuals modifying their behavior, reformulating their activities and revising their values. Such influences may be determined (formal learning, the school), not determined (informal learning, family relations) or partially determined (education programs through mass media).

The evolutive tasks—first component of the model—correspond to those tasks the individual carries out as a consequence of societal influences and, most particularly, as a result of his/her own biological development and maturity.

The second component—the understanding of behavior—refers to the perception others have of the individual, both from an informal viewpoint and from a more scientific perspective, as part of a study and analysis of behavior. As an object of study it encompasses four distinct and all-embracing areas: a) organic aspects; b) social aspects; c) intellectual aspects; and, d) emotional aspects. Rather than representing an arbitrary assemblage, this listing implies an order subordinated to the individual's maturing process.

As to guidelines for learning—the model's third component—they act as supporting elements derived from the understanding of behaviors and serving as a basis for the elaboration of educational objectives and strategies.

It is clear then that understanding the behaviors involved in the various phases of human growth results in a demand for the organization of the educational process as part of an effort of society aimed at the development and personal fulfillment of its members.

Various approaches tied to the most diverse areas of knowledge can be used when examining the organic, social, intellectual and emotional aspects of development. This broadness of perspectives stems from the need for a global vision of man both in subjective terms and in terms of a concrete reality.

Organic aspects include genetic, morphological, physiological and psychological factors. Socio-economic "status," family conditions and the dynamics of interinfluences acting as sources of learning and emotional reconditioning for each participant member, are among the social aspects stressed.

Since in our society professional achievements are highly significant as they stand for an area of personal assertion, they are treated as a separate component.

Intellectual aspects, such as level and meaning of schooling, the individual's education and professional success, serve to check the values attributed to the school as a formal institution and to education as a source of self-fulfillment.

As concerns emotional aspects, happiness and personal values are the components most valued. There is also moral integrity, the stronghold of

principles protecting individuals from the conflicts and double
messages generated by society. The guidelines for learning in informal,
formal and non-formal education include the evolutive tasks and the
understanding of behavior. To the latter are tied the aims of education
and the objectives of learning. In our days education involves dealing
with a variety of dilemmas such as: a) independence-dependence;
b) domination-submission; c) divergence-convergence; d) commitment-lack
of commitment; and, e) autonomy-control.

As a consequence of these interrelations a tendency occurs favoring the
appearance of new modalities capable of broadening the field and the
concept of education proper, removing education from the classroom and
blending it with life itself. While new technologies are utilized in
this spirit, education itself becomes more and more that intermediary
agent through which people acquire the instruments they need in
everyday living.

And thus permanent education emerges and grows steadily until it
becomes a social requirement.

Contains charts and a bibliography.

MEDEIROS, Marilú Fontoura de. Educação não formal e desenvolvimento, na
    perspectiva da educação de adultos: necessidade ou opção. *Ciência e
    Cultura,* São Paulo, Sociedade Brasileira para o Progresso da Ciência,
    30 (7):799-804, jul. 1978.

This work examines non-formal education from an adult education
perspective and as an option in the road for development.

As concerns adult education, non-formal education seems to reflect the
needs experienced by the adult population in relation to the formal
system. A complement to the regular school system, which by itself is
unable to cope with the demands provoked by development, non-formal
education questions the results and values of traditional education.

For Coombs and Ahmed non-formal education represents an organized and
systematic educational activity which occurs outside the scope of the
formal system and aims at providing selected types of learning to
specific populational subgroups of adults or children.

According to Unesco adult education is an organized body of educational
processes through which persons seen as adults by the society to which
they belong—in particular individuals already employed or looking for
work—seek training to develop skills, add to their body of knowledge,
improve technical or professional qualification and modify attitudes
and behaviors.

In addition, the concept of development centered on economic growth is undergoing a reformulation with respect to the following aspects: humanitarian and survival needs; problems concerning employment as an objective per se, rather than as a facet of the economic growth process as a whole; developmental decentralization; problems related to the distribution of wealth.

These issues reveal that processes tied to non-formal education and to the formal education system belong to a larger order of interrelationships. Non-formal education concerns itself with needs arising from social pressure and concentrates on the human being and the continued fulfillment of his/her growth-related requirements.

The scope of non-formal education includes programs of rural extension, community development activities, professional training, basic education, etc. LaBelle and Verhin proclaim that, in addition to answering basic needs, non-formal education should transmit new skills and values.

Thus, the analysis of adult education can be viewed from two angles. According to one, it is seen as an education which fulfills the needs created by social changes desired and oriented towards national cohesion, or which meets individual requirements. From the other viewpoint, education is seen as a mainstay of culture.

In that sense, two kinds of motivations lead countries to seek non-formal education through adult education. The first is based on the economic and political problems of the Third and Fourth Worlds; the second, which prevails in developed countries, is related to the uncertainties resulting from social expansion and from the economic impacts of the production system. From this viewpoint, educational planners consider that a more global and anticipatory structure of education would at one time train the young and preadapt, adapt and readapt senior citizens to the most significant social and technological changes.

Non-formal education, regardless of the developmental stage of the country where it occurs, should, at both the individual and community levels, be geared to the following objectives:

1) acquisition of new knowledge, qualifications, attitudes or styles of behavior aimed at the achievement of a balanced personality;
2) contribution to the understanding and development of a critical position in relation to current problems and social changes, and improvement of the skills needed for integration in society;
3) consciousness raising with respect to all forms of solidarity at professional, local, national or international levels; 4) stimulation of individual harmony, cooperation at work and development of skills for the creation of material resources and new vales; 5) a conscious promotion of the relation between human beings and their physical and cultural environment.

In this manner non-formal education, in addition to being a solution for underdeveloped or developing countries, would also represent an option for all countries. With the mentioned differentiated objectives this educational modality is able to match the expectations of nations and societies.

To conclude, the author presents the following suggestions:
1) the relationship between non-formal education, adult education and development requires a structure capable of organizing, administering and financing adult education; 2) with a view to eradicating illiteracy and increasing people's general awareness, as well as their functional control of knowledge, all countries need to encourage and organize non-formal and formal programs of education; 3) man's life is not to be considered as being made up of two distinct periods: one of learning and no work, and another of work and no learning; 4) recognition of the significance of adult education in the fulfillment of individual aspirations and as related to cultural, economic and social progress; 5) because by nature it is continuous, adult education with its differentiated functions should be conceived as an integral part and a subsystem of the educational system; 6) inclusion of adult education as part of the plans for the development of educational objectives; 7) international cooperation maintaining respect for cultural independence; 8) creation and maintenance of the "International Instrument for the Development of Adult Education" (Unesco), which represents a decisive step in the search for this cooperation; 9) pedagogical, as well as political, economic and social functionality; 10) experiences programmed by the regular educational system should be adapted to the context of adult education which stands apart from the formal school structure.

Contains charts.

QUICKE, J. C. Rogerian psychology and 'non-directive' counselling in schools. *Educational Research*, Hove, National Foundation for Educational Research, 20(3):192-200, June 1978.

This article discusses the prevalence of the non-directive approach among school counselors and offers and analysis of its psychological rationale and practical implications. Because this approach and ideas related to it are rooted in the Rogerian model, the author develops an appraisal of the concepts and practices which make up the psychology of Carl C. Rogers.

In the United States guidance in all its forms has for some time been considered as part of a total process geared to enable individuals to

develop the skills required for coping with everyday problems and effectively taking control of their lives. Within that perspective teachers would be concerned both with academic attainments and such broader aspects of life as the social and personal.

The basic philosophy of the school counseling movement has a lot in common with the progressive ideas which, budding forth in the mid-sixties, developed into what became the progressive education with its concerns centered on growth and self-fulfillment.

Awareness of the need for counselors in schools is growing as much as the presence of teacher-counselors with special responsibilities in the area of counseling is becoming a common feature of the educational scene.

Psychological theories of counseling, for their part, play a significant role in the interpretative scheme of the average teacher.

And, in general, non-directive client-centered approaches seem to be preferred. In addition, as Antanouris indicates, Rogerian philosophy acts as "the umbrella under which all other theories, techniques and approaches can shelter".

In order to better expose the contradictions inherent to the Rogerian perspective, the author reviews what Rogers considers as the four features which characterize his psychology. They are:

1) Achieving greater independence of the individual with freedom for spontaneous growth;

2) The affective is focused on in preference to the intellectual aspect;

3) The immediate situation of the client is more important than past events;

4) The therapeutic relationship is a growth experience.

The Rogerian client-centered therapy advocates empathizing on the part of the therapist and a simple reflection of feeling tones in a warm climate void of interpretation and evaluation. But, since as Quicke points out, all therapy involves assessing and interpreting, non-directive counseling cannot be entirely exempt of these aspects of relationship. In addition, reflecting feeling tones and feeling empathy are also related to interpreting and, in final analysis, self-direction as pointed out by Halmos is rarely present in actual practice.

In relation to Rogers' view that for a person to be 'real,' he/she must be aware of his/her feelings and be able to live with them and communicate them when appropriate, Quicke cites Schur to show that the

so-called 'awareness craze' common among those who favor 'psychological education' as part of the school curriculum should not be as pervasive as it is made to be or it will lead to self-absorption, anti-intellectualism and mysticism interfering with the individual's freedom to discriminate among emotions or control his/her feelings.

To Quicke the difference between client-centered and other therapies is that the former is more subtle in its ways of controling and manipulating the client. In the last analysis a client always construes his/her definition of self in line with the definition fitting the school to which his/her counselor belongs. One way or another the counselor transmits to the client cues which reflect cultural approval.

Rogers' contradictory views in relation to the behavioral sciences and the actual role of behavioral science in Rogerian therapy are also discussed. Thus, though widely known for his positions against behaviorism, mechanism and positive methodology, Rogers has acknowledged the need to recognize the power of what he refers to as 'scientific knowledge.' He has, however, also admitted that he saw aspects of the power of behavioral sciences to understand, predict and control behaviors, deeply frightening.

To questions raised in reference to this matter, such as who will control the power to use this new knowledge and to what end or value this new type of knowledge will be used, Rogers muses that the goals towards which the behavioral sciences will assist people will be chosen according to values lying outside science. His position implies that choices should be made before science is set in motion since once that has happened society would be committed to its initial goals with no prospect of revaluation. In his view focusing should be on processes rather than goals and the behavioral sciences should be placed in the service of the ends envisaged.

Furthermore, he shows support for some ideas connected to the behavioral sciences, a fact which adds to Quicke's difficulty in determining the ways in which Rogerian views differ markedly from Skinnerian views. In relation to whether power and control could justifiably be used to set conditions capable of improving human happiness, Rogers himself asks in a clear show of self-contradiction: "Can science predict and release an essentially 'unpredictable' freedom?"

The Rogerian plan for self-directed change in the education scene is also contradictory in its essence since the facilitator, as an outside element supposed to leave crucial directions to the individuals in the school, is in fact the one who decides who will be approached first for the encounter groups which will produce the changes sought, and it is he, as well, who will determine how this change will be introduced.

According to Quicke, Rogerian therapy owes its popularity to the fact that it offers an easy solution to solving problems. People think that just by focusing on their own interpersonal world, by improving their own relating and practicing 'realness' they can grow towards self-actualization.

There is a static notion to this philosophical model, as if it were possible to become a 'self-actualized' person. As Quicke points out 'real' selves are systematically cast aside as they are constantly shifting in line with the perpetual changes in our society. Thus, "...aiming for autonomy, individuality and personal growth is very much like chasing shadows."

In relation to counseling and how it is practised, Quicke states that most counselors fail to relate problems to the wider context. While the crises faced by adolescents are normal in terms of the changes peculiar to the growing-up process, it is essential to situate them within the specific family environment and from there relate them to the socio-historical context.

A paradox central to counseling practices is that while the focus is on awareness, realization of potential, rational choices and control by the individual of his/her own life, little is said about how limited choices often are specifically in the case of a certain segment of society.

And Quicke concludes rather abruptly: "Adaptation to existing circumstances rather than control of one's own destiny seems, in the final analysis, to be the message of Rogerian psychology."

RAHNEMA, Majid. Educación e igualdad: intenciones y consecuencias. *Revista Interamericana de Educación de Adultos*, Santiago, OEA, 1(4):524-38, 1978.

This article hinges on the issue that in a power structure favoring inequality, trends reveal that economic growht leads to greater social inequality, while educational growth leads to even more extensive educational disparities.

Up to very recently, the developmental process of nations has been looked upon both as an increase in the resources of society, and also as a means to ensure a better distribution of these resources.

In theory, legislation for the establishment of equality has increased considerably in the last hundred years. Nevertheless, between abstract legal rights and the actual possibility of exercising them, there still lies a wide gap.

It is only in a restructured social system that education can play its fundamental role aimed at helping man acquire the knowledge and capabilities required for his liberation, and which will, at the same time, enable him to contribute toward the humanization of the environment to which he belongs.

If a country is not prepared to bring about such social changes, educational reforms—reallocation of resources and priorities included—, run the risk of being limited as to their values, disregarding problems rather than attempting to solve them.

It is a fallacy to believe that fundamental democratic changes within a society can be effected only through educational efforts or by a reform of adult education programs, and it is difficult to picture measures capable of offsetting or inverting trends leading to greater inequalities.

This does not signify by any means that educators should revert to passive attitudes.

A humanist education or an education aimed at the raising of consciousnesses may become an instrument capable of increasing the possibilities of persons for rational acting thus helping to create conditions conducive to future changes.

A reallocation of resources aiming at the furtherance of more rewarding types of education, such as needs-oriented programs and development-oriented training,should he required. Rather than maintanining the current dichotomy between formal and non-formal education or between academic education and education directed at professionalization, these policies should be a part of a broader strategy aimed at creating educational structures of an integrated nature.

Full development of the internal potentialities of the environment should be the major goal of education. This would make the man/environment interrelationship more creative and more rewarding.

"Ujamaas" in Tanzania, "Community Education Nuclei" in Peru, and "Schools for Collective Advancement" in some African countries,are some of the experiments in which this kind of man/environment avenue is explored.

It should be interesting to find out, through evaluation, whether or not these programs are efficient in reducing educational and economic disparities. Innovative strategies are needed to mobilize and to reallocate economic and educational resources to bring about a better allotment of opportunities.

Charts.

This article aims at systematizing the "formal," "non-formal" and
"informal" education concepts. These elements are introduced as
indicators while corresponding variables are presented in detail.

Out of education as a whole, with its complete series of social actions
geared to teaching/learning, and of expected behaviors peculiar to
each society, the author brings to light the set of organized—*conscious*
and *deliberate*—actions.

The tendency in our days is towards differentiating formal, non-formal
and informal education concepts less and less from each other. This
creates certain difficulties since the expression "formal" tends to be
generalizing in character and can refer, in educational terms, to such
various aspects of formalization as: a) political; b) judicial;
c) administrative; and d) educational.

Thus:

a) *Political formalization* - refers to the educational system or, in
stricter terms, to the "school system" which corresponds to the
integrated set of available services.

b) *Judicial formalization* - educational acts guided by specific norms
which, while coordinating acts of the school system are also apt to
being considered a part of the "educational system" umbrella—a more
encompassing field than the former.

c) *Administrative formalization* - education controled by an
administrative system and by rules aimed at coordinating the services
of educational institutions.

d) *Educational formalization* - tools of the educational task (plans,
programs, methodologies, patterns of learning, means of evaluation,
etc.).

It is thus obvious that in education the various scopes of formal are
not mutually excluding. The expression "formal" when mentioned, hardly
ever refers to the political formalization of governmental education
acts alone, pratically always meaning the judicial, administrative and
educational formalizations as well.

That the most common use of the expression "formal" relates to the
official or officially recognized school system, is worth noting.

However, in order to arrive at the three distinct concepts of formal,
non-formal and informal, the various dimensions of the problem should
be analytically dissociated as follows:

I) in general outlines, concrete manifestations of the services;
II) norms regulating the services; III) administration, and
corresponding means of action; IV) educational operationalization, its
instruments and "modus operandi."

The above serves as a base for the enumeration of indicators and of
variables, which permit differentiating among formal, non-formal and
informal education concepts.

As for the "formal education" indicator, it can be said that:
1) in concrete terms it corresponds to the official "education system"
and it includes the college level. The variables refer to: general
training objectives; global study plans; structure according to levels,
cycles, careers; systems of certifications; learning establishment
networks; clientele, generally made up young people; teaching staff;
financing; 2) a specific judicial system regulates it; 3) a public
administrative system controls it; 4) it is implemented through the
systematic and generalized use of a set of educational instruments such
as programs, methods, standards and evaluations, client identification
and control of frequency.

In concrete terms the "non-formal education" indicator corresponds to
services that are not "educational" in character. It presents the
following characteristics: 1) training objectives found in specific—
generally supplementary or complementary—areas of knowledge; plans
of study; in organizational terms, involving isolated courses or
series of courses; occasional certification; generally adult clientele;
teaching staff; 2) it is regulated by judicial norms which are general
in character; 3) (except when ministered through official services) it
is controled by private institution mechanisms and internal rules;
4) it is implemented through a diversified set of educational tools
similar to that of formal education.

To conclude, the "informal education" indicator is characterized by the
following aspects:

1) out-of-school educational opportunities manifested through objectives
geared to promotion and the encouragement of education, and aiming
generally at personal betterment (work, health, family life, leisure,
etc.). The offering presents itself as a free, voluntary practice, void
of systematization. It does not involve specific or direct
certification of learning; the educational practice is ministered at
non-educational institutions; the clientele is made up preferentially
of adults, rather than teachers; human resources are professionals in
their specific area; and, financing can be official, private or mixed;

2) its regulation occurs through judicial rules of a general character;

3) controling the administration takes place effectively through

mechanisms and rules proceeding from the private or the public sector;

4) implementation occurs through "animation" rather than through educational acts.

Informal education contents coincide with the "social curriculum;" methodologies involved tend towards making up a new technology or adequate technological style required by acts of "animation," mass communication media, promotion, guidance, etc. Informal education serves as a path aimed at encouraging the self-learning process.

3. NUMERICAL DATA

MONTHLY BULLETIN WITH DATA ON MANAGEMENTS

YEAR   : 1 9 7 9

MONTH : M A Y

PROGRAMS	YEAR OF IMPLEMEN TATION	INFORMATION	ACCUMULATED SINCE IMPLE MENTATION (1)	MONTH	YEAR
			D A T A		
FUNCTIONAL LITERACY	1 9 7 0	• Students enrolled (According to agreement)	33,125,000	464,253	1,384,338
		• Municipalities enrolled	3,973	522	2,147
		• Literacy graduates	12,539,573	(*)	(*)
INTEGRATED EDUCATION	1 9 7 1	• New enrollments	3,696,000	29,178	47,903
		• Municipalities reached	(*)	261	392
SELF-TEACHING	1 9 7 5	• Students registered	133,000	20,370	28,405
		• Municipalities reached	406	71	99
CULTURAL	1 9 7 3	• Municipalities visited by "Mobraltecas" (2)	1,525	26	112
		• Municipalities visited by "Cultural Tents"	---	(*)	(*)
		• Cultural Posts inaugurated	3,150	—	—
		• Cultural Posts reactivated	2,706	(*)	(*)
PROFESSION- ALIZATION	1 9 7 4	• Persons trained	248,000	(*)	2,190
		• Job Counters/Employment Bureaux inaugurated	588	—	—
		• Candidates registered	170,987	2,913	3,736
		• Candidates placed	76,012	1,388	1,802
		• "Professionalization Fairs" held	24	11	27
		• Estimate on participants in "Fairs"	13,143	4,700	4,700
COMMUNITY EDUCATION FOR WORK	1 9 7 7	• Persons trained	163,000	64,033	237,169
COMMUNITY HEALTH EDUCATION	1 9 7 6	• Municipalities reached	1,324	300	806
		• Groups formed	42,000	4,691	11,981
		• Participants	1,200,000	127,692	324,441
		• Dropout rate (%)	(*)	(*)	(*)
		• Broadcasting stations involved	300	300	300
DIVERSIFIED COMMUNITY A C T I O N	1 9 7 5	• Municipalities reached	246	1	8
		• Action Groups formed	834	4	15
		• Participants	13,160	56	489

(1) Data accumulated up to 1978

(2) MOBRAL's mobile unit

(*) Data being surveyed.

RESULTS OBTAINED THROUGH MOBRAL PROGRAMS FROM 1970 TO 1978

PROGRAMS	INFORMATION	D	A	T	A					
		1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978
Func-tional Literacy	Students enrolled—according to a g r e e m e n t	507,567	2,590,061	4,234,871	4,931,100	4,738,131	4,373,859	3,923,365	3,893,388	3,932,726
	Students actually r e g i s t e r e d	333,544	2,333,637	3,723,980	4,501,122	4,122,479	3,757,051	3,377,387	3,600,564	3,559,117
	D r o p o u t s (1)	72,046	513,400	491,565	553,638	177,267	(-)63,870	(-)77,680	860,535	251,219
	Literacy graduates	172,089	1,081,320	2,042,683	1,784,397	1,923,922	1,656,502	1,412,987	1,203,268	1,262,405
	Productivity	33.9	41.8	48.2	36.2	40.6	37.9	36.1	30.9	32.1
	Dropout rate	21.6	22.0	13.2	12.3	4.3	(-) 1.7	(-) 2.3	23.9	19.9
Integrated Education	New enrollments	-	(*)33,462	511,509	549,805	580,802	513,479	440,521	627,614	500,868
S e l f-teaching	Students registered	-	-	-	-	-	-	(*)3,000	60,000	70,000
	Municipalities r e a c h e d	-	-	-	-	-	-	(*) 10	174	
Cultural	Cultural posts implemented	-	-	-	(*) 1	1,076	1,000	124	200	750
	Cultural posts reactivated	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,500	81	1,125
	Mobraltecas (2) implemented	-	-	-	(*) 1	1	5	0	0	0
	Municipalities vis-ited by Mobraltecas	-	-	-	14	51	42	429	511	478
	Mini-Mobraltecas implemented	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	5	15
	Municipalities visited by Mini-Mobraltecas	-	-	-	-	-	-	(*)	10	22

PROGRAMS	INFORMATION			D	A	T	A			
		1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978
Profession alization	Persons trained	-	-	-	-	30,665	40,916	50,978	61,416	64,344
	Job Counters/Employment Bureaux	-	-	-	-	-	396	522	588	588
	Candidates Registered	-	-	-	-	-	18,776	44,744	54,007	53,430
	Candidates referred to jobs	-	-	-	-	-	14,156	36,667	46,872	49,216
	Candidates placed	-	-	-	-	-	7,645	19,940	22,190	26,237
	Fliers distributed	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	800,000	950,695
	"Professionalization Fairs" held	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	24
Community Education for Work	Persons trained	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	162,998
	Courses held	-	-	-	-	-	..	-	-	11,360
	Agreements signed	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,661
Community Health Education	Municipalities reached	-	-	-	-	-	-	290	597	1,219
	Groups formed	-	-	-	-	-	-	6,427	11,437	23,682
	Participants	-	-	-	-	-	-	198,900	343,000	661,182
	Stations broadcasting PES-via Radio	-	-	-	-	-	-	17	176	300
See...Read... L i v e ... Campaign	Eyeglasses distributed	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	107,000

PROGRAMS	INFORMATION	D				A	T		A	
		1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978
Diversified Community A c t i o n	Municipalities included	-	-	-	-	-	84	15	45	102
	Local Action Groups created	-	-	-	-	-	38	54	162	366
	Community Action Groups created	-	-	-	-	-	75	15	41	83
	Participants in the groups	-	-	-	-	-	5,744	931	2,470	4,015
Municipal Diagnostic Project	Municipalities included	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	142	674
"Sports-for-All" C a m p a i g n	Participants in the events	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5,313,019	2,569,419
Nutrition Campaign	Students reached	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	224,874
	Snacks distributed	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8,500,000
	Municipalities included	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	118
	Classes reached	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9,537
National Documen tation Campaign	Municipalities included	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	105
	Persons reached	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	(**) 49,039
	Documents supplied	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	(**)165,685

Source: A S S O P (Assessoria de Organização e Planejamento
or Advisory Council for Organization and Planning)

(1)   Negative dropout figures refer to late enrollment
(2)   Mobral's mobile unit
(*)   Experimental Phase
(**) Partial Data

4. COOPERATIVE EDUCATIONAL ABSTRACTING SERVICE (CEAS) - INTERNATIONAL
BUREAU OF EDUCATION (UNESCO) - (Abstracts received)

	Country: United States of America	Date of publication: October/1976
Author	COBERN, M. & Coll. (Eds.)	
Title	Indicators of educational outcome, Fall 1972	
Bibliographical data	Washington, D.C., United States Office of Education, National Center for Educational Statistics, 1973. 69p.	
Translation		
Key words	*Measurement of /quality of education/ in the /United States of America/. Listing of indicators by which it is possible to measure the /advantages of education/ from the viewpoint of the /socio-economic system/ of /economic progress/ and the viewpoint of improvement in the quality of educational options.*	

This monograph deals with the study of educational
outcome as an instrument by which it is possible to
measure the efficacy of American schools. The
information and classified data assembled derive
from fifty-eight measurements of different outcomes
distributed throughout three categories: primary
effects, secondary effects, and tertiary effects.

The growing tendency to regard the school system as
accountable for instruction and for child
development confers upon it the responsibilities
of implementing programs which will yield tangible
results and of utilizing, at the right time,
educational resources.

Up to quite recently, success of the educational
process was measured in terms of such inputs as
students per class; expenditures per student; and
teacher salaries. These items are useful instruments
to measure the capacity and growth of an educational
system. On the other hand, to obtain a thorougher
picture of the system it is necessary to consider
not only the inputs, but also the outcomes and
processes which are linked to one another.

The measurement of results may influence at least
the following areas: attitude of the teachers

toward the children; interaction between the children; parent-child
interaction; and,selection of interesting objectives to be proposed to
the children.

The educational process affects not merely the intellectual faculties
of students, but also their aptitudes, their psychology, and their
behavior. It is not a matter of questioning the validity of educational
outcomes as indicators of educational productivity. Yet, evaluating
educational outcome should not restrict itself to the attainment of
more immediate objectives.

The central hypothesis which justifies the system of multiple
measurements establishes that educational outcome has, at the same
time, features of both investment and consumer goods. As an outcome,
it is defined in terms of quality and of consumed quantity. As
investment, it can be defined as a component of economic growth and of
improvement of the standard of living.

Quantitative aspects of educational outcome and its utilization in
relation to age groups are connected with such quantitative indicators
as number of students per grade; rate of school retention; use of
pre-school education; use of school cafeteria services; percentage of
enrolled students served in different ways by the *National School Lunch
Program* (NSLP); conditions of students in secondary schools and higher
education institutions pertaining to the 14-24 year-old age group;
number of students graduated in public secondary school by region;
percentage of full-time university students; percentage of freshmen
enrolled in college in the same year of completion of secondary
education. In addition to that, these indicators serve to evaluate the
rate of integration of school-age population in the educational system
at the pre-school, elementary, and secondary levels.

The evolution of the level of instruction of the school population in
regard to psychological traits, behavior, achievement, and aptitudes
are measured by qualitative indicators, including such categories as
14 through 34 year-old individuals enrolled in higher education; need
of remedial instruction after completion of regular schooling; rate of
illiteracy among persons aged 14 years or above; number of military
service applicants turned down on account of mental deficiency; results
of college admission examinations.

The effects of education on employment and income are shown by
investment indicators in relation to employment requiring a college
degree; level of instruction of active manpower by type of employment;
length of unemployment related to level of instruction; number of
weeks of unemployment; number of persons unemployed for fifteen weeks or
more; rate of unemployment in relation to number of years of study;
average number of years of study by age bracket; average number of years
of study for certain categories of employment; level of instruction of

people receiving some sort of public assistance; geographic mobility in relation to level of instruction.

The secondary effects of investment and the secondary effects of consumption bring to bear consequences upon education. As regards the former, it reflects on such factors as the level of instruction of civil manpower; the total active lifetime income in relation to level of instruction; average annual income and family income in relation to age and to level of instruction. As for the latter, it applies to such items as purchase of book and to other expenditure for reading and education in relation to income and to level of instruction; the quality of nutrition; the use of credit for consumption; the use of medical and dental services; specialized medical treatment; admission to public psychiatric hospitals; number of accidents and ratio of invalids in relation to level of instruction; admission for treatment in ambulatory psychiatric services in relation to number of years of study; number of black students attending schools according to degree of segregation; number of inmates of penitentiary institutions in relation to level of instruction; results of self-confidence tests in relation to level of instruction and to duration of employment; voting participation in relation to race and to level of instruction.

The educational process has both quantitative and qualitative repercussions throughout its duration in view of the activities pertaining to it. Such repercussions change the nature of demand; the productive capacity of the educational system; quantities attained; quality of the primary outcome and the elements required to enable the system to respond to consumer's expectations.

Tertiary effects are those that occur between generations and they are the result of the direct or indirect action of education as a product and of the interaction among the various elements under consideration. In this regard, examples can be the number of women holding positions in relation to the number of years of study; the number of children enrolled in relation to the level of education of the head of the family; the number of children enrolled in pilot programs in relation to the level of instruction of the mother; the results of achievement of children in intelligence tests; their average school achievement; the number of children achieving established objectives of reading, sciences, civics, etc., in relation to the level of instruction of their parents; and, finally, the participation in education credit programs.

The indicators included in this monograph are not exhaustive. Their manner of presentation was designed to facilitate classification and to provide for a better understanding of the multiple factors influencing the measurement of the outcome of the educational process.

	Country or Region: United Kingdom	Date of publication: November 1975
Author	Hutchinson, Enid	
Title	*Learning and leisure in both middle- and later-life*	
Bibliographic data	The Pre-Retirement Association in association with the National Institute of Adult Education and the National Old People's Welfare Council, 1970. 56p.	
Translation		
Key words	*Interpretation of a document on /adult education/ and /leisure/ activities of /middle-age/adult/ and /senior citizens/ in the /United Kingdom/. Conclusions drawn highlight the /social handicap/ of old age stressing that it can be relieved by a liberal /educational policy /allowing for more/ adult educator/ and a greater number of available hours at the /adult education centers/.*	

Objectives: To examine problems peculiar to the older half of the population, in particular the relationship between leisure sought by middle-age persons and activities of senior citizens.

Method: With her long and distinguished experience in adult education serving as background, the author examines the information gathered during an important research project carried out by the National Institute of Adult Education—NIAE—under the title *Provision for adult education*, and published in March of 1970.

Analysis: the NIAE undertook two researches, one based on a general sample of the population—the "general population sample"—the other, on a sample of students of adult education courses—"student population sample."

In the general population group, persons aged 45 and over represent 56% of the total number of interviewed persons, 47% of which are of the male gender. The author examines three subdivisions of this group, as follows: middle-aged persons, that is, persons between 45 and 54 years; ripe-aged persons, or persons approaching retirement, from 55 to 64; and,

finally, older persons or senior citizens, aged 65 and over. Men aged
65 made up 25% of the total male population. 85% of these never went
beyond elementary school years and, by the time the law of 1944 on
education had been voted, they were in their 50's. Men over 45
represented 33% of the group approaching retirement; 87% of these were
still employed and 80% had completed their elementary school years. 39%
of persons in the middle-age group were male and 72% of them had had
elementary schooling. Among the women interviewed, 33% were over 65
years old, 31% were ripe-aged and 36% were middle-aged; 46% of the women
in the first group, 22% in the second group and 10% in the third group
were widows or were separated from their husbands.

The author examines in detail the leisure activities of both men and
women. Two facts, however, are stressed as extremely important: firstly,
there is a tendency among aging men to reduce, rather than increase
activities which they share with others and, secondly, more often than
not, women face life alone in their declining years.

Out of the student population sample, 22% were between 45 and 54 years
of age; 18% were between 55 and 64; and, 7% were 65 years of age or
older. The number of women registered in professional classes was
higher than that of men, and 66% of the students belonged to the three
highest social categories. The student sample revealed that this group
had quite varied outside interests, which did not, however, imply that
they neglected the pleasures of home. It also revealed that their
schooling had been accomplished rather late in life, as evidenced by
social promotions and by their gathering of advantages at the time of
retirement.

The author examines the reasons why interviewed subjects registered in
the courses and stresses the importance of personal means of
transportation.

Evaluation and proposals: The author highlights the need to adopt four
basic measures, as follows: the need to adopt less restrictive policies
in terms of adult education; the need to assign to each region a
person responsible for adult education and a central person in charge
of surveying needs; the need to create polyvalent centers so equipped
as to be able to answer the needs of a diversified population, and open
day and night. In addition, the author recommends that middle-aged
persons get better acquainted with the needs of older people. 37% of
the women over 65 touched by the general research lived on their own;
75% of the men and 83% of the women lived in the company of one or two
persons. Should they again apply themselves to occasional and uncertain
contacts with friends and relatives?

Abstract prepared by the National Institute of Adult Education
(England and Wales).

	Country: United States	Date of publication: September 1976
Author	Texas University. Adult Performance Level Project	
Title	*Adult functional competency: a summary*	
Bibliographical data	Austin, TX, 1975. 32p. (ED 114609.)	
Translation		
·Key words	*/Functional literacy/ of /adults/ in /US/ - Research into the /performance/ of /adults/ in day to day life related to their /ability/ in various tasks.*	

The Adult Performance Level (APL) study is a research project funded by the United States Office of Education. Reported here are the results of a four-year investigation of adult competencies which are important for coping and surviving in the society of the 1970s.

APL has redefined the concept the functional literacy and has produced new estimates of the rate of illiteracy in the United States. According to the APL concept, functional literacy or competency is not simply the ability to read or write at some arbitrarily chosen low-grade level, but rather the ability of an adult to apply skills to several major knowledge areas which are important to adult success. The four major skills which have been identified as important to functional literacy are the communication skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening), computation, problem solving and interpersonal relations. These skills are applied in everyday life situations which, in turn, have been categorized into five broad 'general knowledge areas': occupational knowledge, consumer economics, health, community resources, and government and law.

Using this two-dimensional concept, the project has defined sixty-five requirements for functional literacy. As a means of assessing how well American

adults meet these requirements, five national surveys of American adults were conducted. Using simulations of requirements keyed to the APL definition of literacy (such as reading job notices, calculating change, shopping, locating needed services, or understanding insurance), the APL project has developed a general index of literacy which classifies adults into one of three categories: APL 1, those adults who function only with difficulty because of their unsatisfactory mastery of the requirements for functional literacy; APL 2, those adults who are functional, but not proficient; and APL 3, those adults who are proficient.

These surveys indicate that almost one of five adults is in the APL 1, or non-functional category. The following table summarizes the proportion of adults in each functional literacy category (by percentages)

| Areas | APL *functional literacy levels* | | |
	1	2	3
Occupational knowledge	19.0	31.9	49.0
Consumer economics	29.4	33.0	37.6
Government and law	25.8	26.2	48.0
Health	21.3	30.3	48.3
Community resources	22.6	26.0	51.4
Skills			
Reading	21.7	32.2	46.1
Problem solving	28.0	23.4	48.5
Computation	32.9	26.3	40.8
Writing	16.4	25.5	58.1
Over-all competency levels	19.7	33.9	46.3

In terms of the general knowledge areas, the greatest area of difficulty appears to be consumer economics. Almost 30 per cent of the population falls into the lowest level (APL 1), while one-third of the population is categorized as APL 2. Translated into population figures, some 34.7 million adult Americans function with difficulty, and an additional 39 million are functional, but not proficient, in coping with basic requirements that are related to consumer economics.

The highest proportion of proficient persons (most able to cope) is found in relation to community resources. Over half of the United States population falls into APL level 3. This is followed by occupational knowledge; again, almost half of the population is estimated to be proficient in dealing with occupationally related tasks. Although the least proportion of persons in comparison to all areas are in level 1 of occupational knowledge, this still indicates that about one of every five adults in the United States functions with difficulty or is unable to perform correctly on occupationally related performance indicators.

The greatest proportion of people unable to perform basic skills is found in the computation area. Approximately one-third of the population, or 39 million adults, function with difficulty, and a little over one-fourth, or 29.5 million adults, is functional but not proficient in task performance on items requiring mathematical manipulation. The area of greatest competency in comparison with other skills is in writing. However, even though almost three-fifths of the population performed adequately on tasks requiring writing skills, 16 per cent of the adults in the country, or some 18.9 million persons, are unable to cope successfully in this area. The Commissioner of Education has stated that the Office of Education's Adult Education Division has decided to incorporate into its planning the findings of this study, including consideration of the kind of education suggested.

Abstract prepared by ERIC Facility, Washington.

	Country: United Kingdom	Date of publication April 1975
Author	United Kingdom, British Broadcasting Corporation; Independent Television Authority.	
Title	*Needs and interests of the adult community in the United Kingdom.*	
Bibliographical data	Reports by the Education Departments of the BBC and ITA, presented at the eighth meeting of the EBU Study Group on Teaching by Television, Rome, June 1969. 94p.	
Translation		
Key words	*Report on/educational television/for/adult students/in the/UK/-Expert opinions on/educational needs/of/disadvantaged groups/and/statistical analysis/of/television viewing/preferences.*	

Part I (evidence submitted by the BBC)

Evidence of needs and interests. About 90 people professionally engaged in the field of further education of involved in activites mundane to further education were consulted about the further education needs of the United Kingdom. They identified national needs which included: a larger and better trained cohort of teachers, more professional community workers and the encouragement of more members of the community to participate actively in their own community.

In addition, they suggested certain problems which should receive the attention of the adult education section. These were: the problems of environmental planning, the generation gap, the role of women in society, the problem of respect for and understanding of, immigrant communities in this country and of differen peoples in the world, the question of industrial communication, the need for adult re-training, the need for greater understanding of science and technology and the question of leisure activities.

There are, of course, the important needs of specific groups; for example, the problems of women

at home, of the younger generation *per se,* of parents, of various
occupational and professional groups, and so on. Personal needs are also
analysed, such as the need for personal communication and self
expression.

How are these needs to be met? The authors offer many specific
suggestions, perhaps the most important of which are a plea for closer
co-operation between providers and for greater imagination in offering
various combinations of teaching techniques.

Evidence of the interest of the adult population was collected.
Interest derived from the home and family are most widespread, but
those arising from work and careers are not inconsiderable.

The 16-20 years age group. Part I includes a report of an enquiry into
the specific needs and interests of the 16-20 age group which might be
served by educational broadcasting, and on the likelihood that such
broadcasts would be effectively used. This group is, the report
suggests, divided by class. intellect and age, but united by emotion;
consequently the empahsis is upon the need of this age group to develop
mature personal relationships towards each other and towards other age
groups. Television seems to be more important to this age group than
radio, other than radio 'pop' music.

Given that there is much detailed information in this section, the
authors warn that, firstly there seem to be general differences
between the 16-17 age group, and between the 18, 19 and 20 years group
and that, secondly, the latter group is in many ways an wnknown tribe.

*Part II (evidence submitted by the ITA, now the Independent Broadcasting
Authority).*

Evidence of viewers' preferences. This section consists of the results
of research into the educational interests and preferences of the
viewing public. In table 1, 130 topics were placed in 15 gorups and the
percentage of 1,850 adults in homes with television who stated that
they 'would definitely watch' at least one of the topics in a group is
recorded.

These conclusions emphasize, the popularity of domestic subjects, and
of the sciences. However, this general ranking of groups of topics
conceals the fact that the different groups have interest and appeal to
different sections of the public; for example, 71% would like languages
to be 'fairly elementary', 29% 'more advanced', but division in the case
of 'The car' is respectively 53% and 47%. Moreover, if we take the
example of 'Careers', 54% men, 35% of women, 48% of the age range 16-24
years, 51% of the age range 25-44 years and 37% of those over 45 years
'would definitely watch'. There are similar variations in interests
according to viewers' social grades and terminal education ages.
Preference for topics also vary according to the viewers' own estimate
of the average number of hours spent watching television each night.

T a b l e 1

G r o u p	*Would definitely watch* %	*No. of topics in a group*
1. Home and family	82	26
(Safety in the home)	44	1
2. The sciences	64	16
3. History and geography	59	10
(Travel)	42	1
4. Home maintenance	56	3
5. The arts	48	8
6. Law and government	47	12
7. Hobbies	47	8
8. Theatre	45	4
9. Careers	44	13
(Education)	29	1
10. Current and world affairs	42	3
11. Local affairs	39	3
12. The car	39	2
13. Religion, philosophy and human sciences	35	6
14. Literature	27	5
15. Languages	13	6

(Sports and popular music were deleted because of imprecise respondent interpretation.)

If groups are subdivided into topics, then the percentage which would definitely watch shows a considerable range; for example, Group 1 ranges from 44% 'Safety in the home' to 7% 'Tailoring'; 'Care of old people' at 32% ranks higher than 'Child development', 'Child psychology', 'Consumer advice' or 'Motherhood'.

The table provided deal with all 15 groups in order; these and the other tables are of some consequence to all those interested in adult education because they ratify of correct expert opinion about the interests of the adult audience, they demonstrate respects in which these interests coincide with or diverge from the known interests of students involved with the field agencies of adult education, and they reveal what people consciously identify as their main interests.

	Date of publication April 1975
Author	Zaki, W. M.
Title	Education of the people
Bibliographical D a t a	Islamabad, POU, 1975. 152 p.
Indexing Terms	*The permanent existence of /disadvantage groups/ calls for/ innovations in education/ in/ Pakistan/. The weaknesses of contemporary /educational organization/ demand several measures: /equal opportunities in education/, development of /scientific instruction/ and /technical training/, and the creation of an /open university/.*

The main obstacle to the development of education
in Pakistan is essentially the scantiness of
resources available for its expansion and
improvement. Access to education remains a privilege
of the wealthy classes. The people's open university
was created to open the way for continuing education.
In addition, several other kinds of innovations
have been introduced in the field of education.

Pakistan's economic development programs require
major investments in the area of education. The
"green revolution" and the stepping-up of
industrial development demand that the theoretical
and practical knowledge of scientists, engineers,
educators, technicians, workers, and farmers be
constantly added to. "Education of the people"
presents an accurate picture of the needs and
problems of Pakistan. It includes the four major
chapters abstracted below.

Education and Society

The adult population of Pakistan comprises
approximately 85% of illiterates. Current resources
for education are barely sufficient to enable about
20% of the children to complete the five years of
elementary schooling. This overwhelming situation
which has created a population of 80% of
illiterate adults is thus perpetuated.

The educational system of Pakistna was inspired on the model
transplanted by the British at the colonial period. It so happens
that such a model is incompatible with the current requirements of an
independent country and of its population. The Pakistani national
cohesion is based upon the awareness of a common national heritage,
of a single purpose, and of a shared fate. The current educational
system is not in the position to provoke such an awareness.

This educational system is often regarded as inadequate and archaic.
However, its weaknesses are, on the whole, ascribed to exogenous
factors. Failure on the part of the old governing class to meet the
expectations of the people, led to stagnation and the crumbling of
social institutions—the educational included.

One of the most serious problems faced by Pakistan is the unemployment
of·intellectuals. Economic progress will be required to make jobs
available to them. This well lead to a rewarding relationship between
education and economic progress.

Education and job opportunities—for women in particular—, are
exceedingly rare. Education for younger and older women has been
minimal for a long time. It is important to realize that due to this
situation, not only were women deprived of a right fundamental to
every human being, but the task of raising future generations has been
handed down to unlearned and illiterate mothers. As a result of this,
the country's population is totally deprived of any possibility to
participate in the nation's socio-economic progress.

A parliamentary democracy has been established and the country's
institutions have been developing steadily. Yet, regular functioning
of this machinery requires the effective participation of an
enlightened population. The huge rates of illiteracy (85% of the
population is illiterate) create enormous problems for the smooth
operation of such democratic institutions. In addition, lack of
information is a serious obstacle to any increase in agricultural
and industrial productivity.

The world of today is characterized by the acceleration of technological
progress, an unprecedented explosing of knowledge, new relationships
of political powers, and the disturbing deployment of economic maneuvers.
Such phenomena lead to further changes which demand constant reappaisals
and the improvement of theoretical and practical knowledge throuthout
the lifetime of the individual. Unfortunately, the system presently in
effect offers no opportunities for those who wish to acquire new
knowledge or to be retrained by taking up again at the point where
they concluded their the traditional educational cycles.

The educational system is a reflection of the social structure of the colonial period. Democratization took place gradually and has barely kept pace with the changes of society. The development of elementary education, which ought to have responded to the requirements of children of peasants, workers, and craftsmen, has been relegated to a second plan. At the same time, private, religious, and other types of schools, patterned after the European model, proliferate to the advantage of wealthy children. Most of these schools reserved for the elite, are even subsidized by the State. As a result of this, privileged social groups have at their disposal a high quality educational system which guarantees future opening for their children in institutions of higher learning, in the civil service, in industries, and in businesses—a fact which perpetuates the existence of a closed governing and managing class.

Percentage rates of attendance in elementary and secondary schools and higher education institutions correspond, respectively, to 43%, 27% and 17% of the current population. Therefore, a large number of children are unattained by the school system. Higher education is beset by serious problems of low achievement. The means for education have not climbed up at the same pace as enrollment, particularly in the scientific and technical areas. It follows that the majority of students take higher education courses in languages or in the social sciences and, upon completion of such couuses, are ill-equipped to enter the labor market, which demands above all scientific or technical qualifications.

Permanent Education

The creation of a People's Open University—POU—is a bold experiment aimed at providing the population with opportunities for continued learning.

Priority shall be given to the preparation of teachers. It is expected that this will lead to a number of consequences, since the training and qualification of teachers, should result in better student performance. Teaching will also become more alive, thus hoperfully contributing to a reduction in dropout rates which are very high in elementary schools. By launching its programs in a massive scale, the POU is expected to be able to reduce educational costs substantially making it three to four times lower than those of the traditional educational system.

The People's Open University has been created by virtue of a parliamentary law enacted in May 1974.

Recent Innovations

Pakistan has been pursuing bold innovations in the field of education. The following are the most outstanding: a) decentralization of

administration; b) people's participation in the decision-making process
which defines educational policies; c) liberatlization of university
regulations; d) adoption of a semester system; e) creation of model
centers; f) creation of regional study centers; g) creation of Pakistani
study institutes; h) creation of engineering schools and of
technological institutes.

Creation of the National Bureau for Educational Planning the National
School Program and Textbook Bureau; the National Pedagogical Institute;
and the National Educational Technology Institute will make decision-
-making at the national level easier. Some of the significant steps
already taken include: nationalization of private educational
establishments; discontinuance of school fees at the elementary school
level; and financial assistance to underprivileged students. To this
end, the granting of generous scholarships and loans to students, the
provision of lodging facilities, and the benefits of book banks are but
some of the measures worth mentioning. Teacher's salaries have been
raised in order to make it a more appealing profession to which more
applicants will be attracted.

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Abstract prepared by Zaki, W.M., People's Open University, Islamabad.