Skills and Literacy Training for Better Livelihoods

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Africa Region
The World Bank

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Cover design by Tomoko Hirata.
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Foreword

This study looks at the intersection between training in livelihood skills and basic education for illiterate and semi-literate youth and adults. Can effective training in livelihood skills be developed as an add-on to large scale literacy programs? Or, are the effective combinations those that add literacy education to (usually small scale) programs which are set up mainly to teach livelihood skills to begin with? To examine such questions the Institute for International Cooperation of the German Adult Education Association (IIZ/DVV) was commissioned to conduct the present investigation which examines documentation from 18 programs—all serving very poor people, mostly women. Special analysis is also carried out on four country cases—Senegal, Guinea, Uganda and Kenya.

The study concludes that combinations of livelihood skills training and adult literacy education help improve poor people’s livelihood. Firstly, there is a widely noted “empowerment effect”—that learners acquire enhanced confidence and social resources which help them take initiatives to improve their livelihoods. Second, literacy and numeracy skills are a clear advantage in market transactions in the informal economy, and thus especially important for entrepreneurship. Thirdly, more productive agricultural or livestock practices result from learning new vocational skills. These effects should not be seen as isolated but as arising from complementary inputs. For example, not only are skills and market opportunity needed, but also access to credit. These conclusions also gain support from other reviews on adult basic education or about how people make ends meet in the informal economy.

The study breaks new ground by finding that different kinds of staff are needed for teaching vocational skills for teaching literacy and that livelihood skills training is a better vehicle for teaching literacy than the other way around. This has the important practical implication that it is probably best to think of combinations of livelihood skills and literacy teaching as an activity that, like other vocational training, requires intensive support and is not easily scaled up quickly.

The team conducting this study, led by John Oxenham made extraordinary efforts to assemble existing documentation on the combined teaching of adult literacy and livelihood skills, before undertaking their careful analysis.

The study is part of an ongoing regional study of vocational skills development conducted by the Africa Region of the World Bank and its Human Development Department. Other publications on Adult Basic Education are available from the Africa Human Development Department. The Norwegian Education Trust Fund for Africa has generously financed the present study and is, along with DFID and the Bank itself, financing the ongoing regional study of vocational skills development. This support is very gratefully acknowledged.

Birger J. Fredriksen
Senior Education Adviser
Africa Region, The World Bank
Foreword

In April 2000, the delegates at the World Education Forum in Senegal collectively drew up the Dakar Framework for Action, in which they committed themselves to do everything possible to:

- achieve a 50 percent improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults;

- improve and ensure excellence in all aspects of the quality of education, so that recognized and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills.

The World Bank was one of the key players in the preparation and implementation of the Forum, along with UNESCO, UNICEF, and ILO, among other concerned UN organizations. Our Institute was involved in the preparatory process in Germany and participated in Dakar as a member of the nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) working in education and development. For us, this marked another milestone in our almost four decades of continuous support for adult literacy with partners in Africa, Asia and Latin America.

When the Human Development Sector of the Africa Region of the World Bank asked whether we would be interested in managing a study of literacy and livelihoods, we could not but immediately agree on both the importance of the research and our readiness to support it. We considered it a great opportunity to inject fresh information and ideas into discussions on approaches to improving literacy interventions in practice and theory, whether from our own many projects and publications or from the programs and documents of others. Over the years, our partners have again and again debated with us questions like, “Does literacy come first and development follow?” or “How much literacy is needed as a prerequisite to development?” or “How can both be integrated?” The issues of the relationships between literacy, skills training, and livelihoods widen this quest for improved developmental outcomes. We think that the title “Skills and Literacy for Better Livelihoods”, adequately reflects the findings of the study. It is at the same time a programmatic title for future literacy endeavors by governments, NGOs, co-operating agencies, and the participants themselves.

It is our feeling that the study team has done an excellent job. At the beginning of the study, a workshop including the four authors of the country cases, the lead researcher and members of our staff, created a clear common understanding of the questions and a plan of work. At another workshop at the end, the five draft reports were reviewed and a set of common conclusions was formulated. What you have in front of you is the team’s product.
We would like to thank the study team and all those who supported their work. There were indeed many, especially Jon Lauglo from the World Bank who was at the heart of the matter and associated with the study from its very beginning. We appreciated his sound professional input throughout. We see the study as an important contribution toward fulfilling our commitment to literacy learners and their providers and to high quality education for all.

Prof.(H) Dr. Heribert Hinzen  
Director, 
IIZ/DVV

Henner Hildebrand  
Task Manager, 
IIZ/DVV
Acknowledgements

The first acknowledgements must go to the Africa Region of the World Bank and to the Government of Norway. By initiating and financing this study, they are helping to enrich a field that has not generated the attention and high quality evaluation and research that the rhetoric of poverty reduction, education for all, and lifelong education might have led the world to expect. The next salute goes to Dr. Josef Mueller, formerly of the German Foundation for International Development, now an independent consultant, for his Trojan work in collecting and annotating materials from a number of organizations in Germany and elsewhere.

The study itself depended to a large extent on documents that are not in the public domain. Most of them had to be identified, located, and retrieved from the files and archives of many organizations in many countries. That meant that many people had to make the time and take the trouble to suggest what work might repay attention, what documentation might be available, and where it might be found. Many also assisted in obtaining the documents, although laying hands on them was not always easy or always successful. The study team is heavily indebted to them all in the four countries of intensive study, Guinea, Kenya, Senegal, and Uganda, and in the headquarters of many bilateral, multilateral, and non-governmental agencies in Europe and North America. The full list of them is so lengthy, that it is given as Annex 1 to this report. Here, only the names of their organizations will appear.

The study is indebted also to 13 friends who, despite heavy work programs of their own, troubled to comment rapidly and extensively on the first draft of this paper: Terry Allsop, Julia Betts, Dipa Bhog, Harbans Bholu, Michael Brophy, John Comings, Pat Davis, Heribert Hinzen, Richard Johanson, Jon Lauglo, Josef Mueller, Helen Sherpa and Chij Shrestha. We hope that they judge their advice has been satisfactorily taken in this revised text.

The study team expresses its deep gratitude to all its helpers and supporters and hopes that this product will help them feel that their time and effort were well spent. All responsibility for any misreporting, misunderstanding or misinterpretation that appears in the report lies with the team.

In Guinea

CAOPA La Mission Française de Coopération en Guinée à travers le Centre d’Appui aux Organisations Professionnelles Agricoles de Kankan
CENAFOD Le Centre Africain de Formation pour le Développement
CLSUA La Ligue des Coopératives des États Unis d’Amérique en Guinée
EUPD L’Entraide Universitaire pour le Développement
Le Forum des ONG de Guinée
<p>| <strong>AFRICA REGION HUMAN DEVELOPMENT WORKING PAPER SERIES</strong> |
|-----------------|---------------------|
| <strong>In Uganda</strong>   | <strong>In Europe</strong>        |
| IIZ/DVV         | ActionAid           |
| Institute for International Cooperation of the German Adult Education Association | Bundibugyo and Buwekula Projects and REFLECT Coordination Unit |
| PAPE-BGN        | ADRA                |
| Le Projet d’Appui aux Petits Exploitants en Basse Guinée Nord | Adventist Development and Relief Agency |
| SNA             | IACE                |
| Le Service National de l’alphabétisation en Guinée | Institute of Adult and Continuing Education, Makerere University |
| UNICEF-GUINEE   | LABE                |
| Le Fonds des Nations Unies pour l’Enfance en Guinée | Literacy and Adult Basic Education |
| <strong>In Kenya</strong>    | <strong>In Europe</strong>        |
| BTL             | ActionAid           |
| Bible Translation and Literacy | London |
| DAE             | ADEA                |
| Department of Adult Education | Association for the Development of Education in Africa, Bern |
| FAO             | DFID                |
| GTZ             | DSE                 |
| German Agency for Technical Co-operation | German Foundation for International Development, Bonn |
| IFAD            | EED                 |
| International Fund for Agricultural Development | Church Development Service—An Association of the Protestant Churches in Germany, Bonn |
| KAEA            | FAO                 |
| Kenya Adult Education Association | Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Rome |
| KALA            | GTZ                 |
| Kenya Adult Literacy Association | German Agency for Technical Cooperation, Eschborn |
| KARI            | IFAD                |
| Kenya Agriculture Research Institute | International Fund for Agricultural Development, Rome |
| KIE             | IIEP                |
| Kenya Institute of Education | International Institute for Education Planning, Paris |
| MLHRD           | IIZ/DVV             |
| Ministry of Labour and Human Resource Development | Institute for International Cooperation of the German Adult Education Association, Bonn |
| OXFAM-UK        | ILO                 |
| OXFAM, United Kingdom Branch | International Labor Organization, Geneva |
| UNICEF          | MISEREOR            |
| United Nations International Children’s Emergency Fund | The German Catholic Bishops’ Organization for Development Cooperation, Aachen |
| UNICEF          | NCA                 |
| United Nations Development Program | Norwegian Church Aid, Oslo |
| University of Nairobi, Faculty of External Studies | Novib Netherlands Organization for International Development, The Hague |
| USK             | SCF-UK              |
| Undugu Society of Kenya | Save the Children Fund, UK, London |
| <strong>In Senegal</strong>  | <strong>In Europe</strong>        |
| ANAFA           | SDC                 |
| Association nationale pour l’Alphabétisation et la formation des Adultes | Swiss Development Cooperation, Bern |
| CONGAD          | SIDA                |
| Conseil des ONG d’appui au Développement | Swedish International Development Agency, Stockholm |
| DAEB            | SIL-UK              |
| Direction de l’Alphabétisation et de l’Alphabétisation de Base | Summer Institute of Linguistics, UK, High Wycombe |
| Direction Générale de la SODEFITEX (Société de Développement des Fibres Textiles) |  |
| La Direction de l’Enseignement Technique et de la Formation Technique |  |
| PAPF            |  |</p>
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<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
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<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, Paris</td>
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<tr>
<td>UIE</td>
<td>UNESCO Institute for Education, Hamburg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIL</td>
<td>Summer Institute of Linguistics, Dallas and Mexico</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USAID</td>
<td>United States Agency for International Development, Washington, D.C.</td>
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<td>WEI</td>
<td>World Education Inc., Boston</td>
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**In North America**

- CAII: Creative Associates International Inc., Washington, D.C.
- CIDA: Canadian Agency for International Development, Ottawa/Hull
- GroundWork, Washington, D.C.
Skills and Literacy Training for Better Livelihoods

A Review of Approaches and Experiences

Africa Region Human Development Working Paper Series
Executive summary

From the perspective of vocational education within the purview of lifelong education for all, this report aims to use available documentary accounts to compare and assess the effectiveness of two types of education and training programs for poor adults: (a) programs that have attempted to incorporate training for livelihood skills into mainly literacy instruction, and (b) programs that have incorporated literacy instruction into training for mainly livelihood skills. The comparison should help answer four questions about such efforts:

1. What approaches have been used?
2. What are the documented outcomes and impacts of these approaches?
3. What are the lessons regarding management, implementation, and resource requirements?
4. What approaches are likely to be most effective under conditions prevailing in Sub-Saharan Africa, and what are the pitfalls to avoid?

Sources of information

Because there is little published literature on the four questions, this report has had to rely largely on documentation internal to many organizations located in four countries of Africa, as well as in Western Europe and North America. However, in Guinea, Kenya, Senegal, and Uganda, brief field observations and interviews with interested parties have supplemented the documentation.

Much of the helpful documentation came from organizations that are in principle more concerned with employment and livelihoods than with education, but that find training in literacy and numeracy to be essential for their own purposes. Examples are FAO, IFAD, ILO and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) that strive for holistic development. Unfortunately, we must emphasize that the nature of the available evidence makes the conclusions and recommendations of the study only tentative. They are more in the nature of reasonable hypotheses than incontrovertible facts.

Also, it is the case that the documentation did not yield satisfactory responses to Question 3 on management, implementation, and resource requirements. Neither did it further any discussion of the crucial issues of organizational and institutional development. The report shows that, without the construction of effective organizations and sound institutional norms, very poor people will not be enabled to use literacy to make their livelihoods more productive.

Approach to study

The study’s basic task was to examine two broad approaches to combining livelihood training with literacy instruction. One approach is to enrich a livelihood-led program with components in calcu-
lating, writing, and reading. The other is to enrich a literacy-led program with training for one or more livelihoods. Within these two approaches, a framework developed by Rogers (1997) that distinguishes five sub-categories, proved useful to the study. They are:

1. Literacy as a prerequisite or in preparation for training in livelihood or income-generation activities. That is, training in a livelihood is the longer term aim, but people are encouraged not to start training in a livelihood, until they have first mastered reading, writing, and calculating sufficiently to cope with the livelihood’s operating and development requirements. There is a planned progression between the two.

2. Literacy followed by separate livelihood or income-generation activities. Here, learning literacy is regarded as a self-standing and worthwhile aim in itself and is undertaken first. Thereafter, training is offered in either livelihoods or some form of income-generating activity. There are no systematic connections between the two components.

3. Livelihood training or income-generation activities leading to literacy. In this sub-category, groups start out learning to develop a business but come to recognize that their progress will be frustrated, unless they learn to calculate more comprehensively, record their incomes and outgoings and read their records. The content of the literacy and numeracy grows out of the livelihood and income generation.

4. Livelihood and income-generation activities and literacy integrated. In this sub-category, training in a livelihood and instruction in literacy and numeracy begin simultaneously, often with the content of the literacy derived from or influenced by the livelihood.

5. Literacy and livelihood and income-generation activities taking place in parallel but separately. Programs in this sub-category recognize the importance of both components, start both simultaneously, but omit to develop any systematic connections between them.

The first two sub-categories fall within literacy-led programs, the third and fourth fall within livelihood-led programs, while the type of programs of the fifth sub-category would depend on their origins and emphasis.

Findings in summary

The report yielded 17 findings.

1. In all the countries studied, the diversity of possibilities for improving established livelihoods and developing new ones appears so wide as to demand extreme flexibility, imagination, and resourcefulness.

2. All the programs examined dealt with very poor people, mostly rural and mostly women.

3. Examples of effective efforts were found in each of the five program sub-categories. Success in both sets of immediate objectives is likely if two conditions are satisfied: first, the program is well run with competent, reliable, and adequately supported instructors and, second, the program is well adapted to the interests and conditions of its participants.

Data were not available on the impacts of livelihood training on production, productivity, and standards of living. However, there was virtual unanimity in both individual and focus group discussions that people who had completed literacy courses tended to be more confident and more willing to take initiatives in developing their livelihoods or in taking an active interest in the operations of their cooperatives. Claims by successful learners that they were now following more productive agricultural or livestock practices were common, as were claims that people felt they could no longer be easily cheated, when they bought inputs or sold produce. These psychosocial aspects are not normally considered in designing vocational education policies. Nonetheless, as they do impinge on the productivity of current livelihoods and on the willingness to seek opportunities to develop new livelihoods, they should be taken into account.
account as desirable and likely effects of literacy training.

4. Education and training programs for very poor adults need to offer very clear, concrete and immediate reasons to justify enrollment and ensure perseverance.

5. Programs that start from livelihood skills seem to stand a stronger chance of success. They can, after all, demonstrate an immediate reason for learning.

6. Organizations, that are more concerned with livelihoods and other aspects of development seem to be better at designing and delivering effective combinations of livelihoods and literacy than organizations that are more focused on education. Projects run by NGOs that integrate development and literacy appear most effective. The implication is that policy for vocational/livelihood education with literacy should consider operating through agencies, both governmental and non-governmental, that work with people in their actual livelihoods and employment.

7. NGOs seem to be more flexible than governmental agencies in responding to local and changing needs. Policy makers for vocational/livelihood education with literacy should consider operating through agencies, both governmental and non-governmental, that work with people in their actual livelihoods and employment.

8. Deriving literacy/numeracy content from livelihood skills and integrating it with the livelihood training from the very start seems more promising than either running the two components parallel with each other or using standard literacy materials to prepare people to train for livelihoods.

9. Livelihood-plus-literacy/numeracy programs can greatly improve their chances of success, if they incorporate training in savings, credit, and business management, along with actual access to credit.

10. Chances of success are even greater in a program that works with established groups of people who share a common purpose, rather than with individual applicants. In the absence of such groups, it would probably still be better to take the time to identify promising common purposes and to work on forming new purpose-driven groups than to resign the program to unconnected individuals.

11. Early evaluations of the Somaliland Education Initiative for Girls and Young Men (SEIGYM) use of vouchers to buy their training are very favorable. Further observation of the initiative seems desirable, particularly regarding its suitability for established groups.

12. Experience seems to have produced a strengthening consensus that programs that are well negotiated with their prospective learners in association with local authorities and leaders are likely to be more effective than programs that are simply put on offer.

13. While differing levels of proficiency in different livelihoods required different periods of learning, the minimum period needed by a really illiterate person with normal learning abilities to attain a degree of literacy and numeracy sufficient to support advancement in a livelihood seemed to be some 360 hours of instruction and practice.

14. The broad experience of income-generating projects suggests that arranging for both livelihood specialists and literacy instructors is more prudent than relying on literacy instructors to undertake livelihood instruction or income-generating activities in addition to teaching literacy and numeracy. The broad trend appears to treat literacy instructors on a similar basis to livelihood specialists and to pay them for their efforts.

15. On the important issue of financial resources, data on costs were largely absent, so that the
study can offer no guidance on the issue. The only observations possible are that (a) the costs of programs that combine livelihood, business, and literacy skills are likely to be higher than those of simple literacy programs; and (b) even so, the costs would not be inordinate.

16. To achieve financial sustainability, poor countries would need an alliance of government, non-governmental and community organizations, and people of goodwill and energy to set up (a) a mechanism to mobilize local voluntary supplements to fiscal provisions, (b) long-term consortiums with external donors, and (c) support from international lenders.

17. Going to scale would require capacity building, decentralization, gradualism and underpinning by local infrastructure, natural and other resources, norms, and institutions.

Recommendations in summary

Overall, the evidence suggests that it would be worthwhile for vocational or livelihood education policy makers to develop livelihood training with literacy/numeracy instruction for very poor, non-literate people, who tend to be mostly women, and, in Sub-Saharan Africa, mostly rural. The ten recommendations below give guidance on how this could be done. Justifications and further discussion are given in Chapter 8.

1. Vocational education policy should provide for assessments of what would be needed in particular localities to ensure an environment that would enable training in particular livelihoods actually to result in higher productivity, incomes and well being.

2. Vocational education policy should pursue a strategy of decentralization and capacity-nurturing that will permit resourceful responses to local actual and potential patterns of livelihood.

3. Vocational education policy should provide for courses that combine savings and credit training with negotiated livelihood content and literacy/numeracy content derived from, but not limited to, the vocabulary of the livelihood. As a tool to strengthen the negotiating power of prospective learners, the experience of SEIGYM (the Somaliland Education Initiative for Girls and Young Men) warrants monitoring (see Chapter 5).

4. The fourth recommendation is twofold. First, to ensure that the "average" adult learner masters literacy and numeracy well enough to use them in support and development of a livelihood, the literacy component of a livelihood course should offer at least 360 hours of instruction and practice (the livelihood and business components will of course require additional appropriate time). Second, to help optimize perseverance, completion, and retention of learning, the course should be offered in a single session or term, if at all practicable.

5. The fifth recommendation is again twofold. First, vocational education policy should provide for two cadres of instructors—livelihood instructors and literacy instructors. While neither should be a permanent cadre, their patterns of recruitment, training and support can differ from each other. Second, both cadres should be remunerated for the instruction they give.

6. Vocational education policy for non-literate poor adults should promote active, participatory, and interactive forms of instruction and learning in both livelihood and literacy components of training.

7. Vocational education policy makers should support further research on the issue of costs.

8. Countries should form local alliances of government, non-governmental and community agencies and energetic people of good will to (a) raise local fiscal and voluntary financing, (b) form appropriate consortiums with external donors and (c) attract resources from international lenders.

9. Strategies of capacity-building, decentralization and gradualism should govern the process of
going to scale, with due attention to local infrastructure, natural and other resources, norms, and institutions.

10. Any review of vocational educational policy should exert itself to identify, locate, and capitalize on the empirical experience and expertise that those organizations have accumulated, and make it more readily accessible than this study has found it.
Before discussing the main study, a simple background note is desirable to clarify three points: the current linking of livelihoods with literacy, what is meant by livelihoods, and what is meant by literacy.

Livelihoods and literacy

This section offers a historical or evolutionary perspective on the relationships between livelihoods and literacy. Adult educators have accepted for at least the past half century that the skills of literacy are not ends in themselves but need to serve some purpose and practice that is important to their users. The attempts to tie them closely to and even derive them from livelihoods began at least three decades ago with UNESCO’s pioneering attempt to integrate literacy and livelihoods in its Experimental World Literacy Program, after the Teheran Conference in 1965. That is when the term “functional literacy” came into currency. So successful was the idea of such integration, that, even with the rise and rapid spread of Paolo Freire’s “conscientization” a few years later, it would be difficult to locate a contemporary or recent literacy course, that did not claim to be functional, even if it did not claim to prepare its participants for a livelihood. In Kenya (Mwangi 2001) as early as 1969, literacy instructors were expected to assist their classes set up income generating projects and to invite technical officers in to help deepen knowledge, understanding, and skills. In Guinea, livelihoods and literacy are now so closely entwined, that it is no longer realistic to speak of two approaches there (Diallo 2001). Uganda’s national program is known simply as FAL, Functional Adult Literacy Program, while Ghana’s is the Literacy and Functional Skills Program.

For their part, vocational educators have long accepted that, without a sufficient mastery of reading, writing, and calculation, learners cannot take more than limited advantage of possibilities to enhance their knowledge, skills, and capacities. For example, FAO (1980) had this to say “Thus, the concept that the stepping up of farm production by new technology must have training and literacy as part and parcel of the development process, and conversely, that training and literacy as an isolated process are of little avail in a developing society, is now well established.” More recently, ILO, working in Nigeria on income-generating activities for women in health development, reported, “functional literacy should be included... to increase the impact of training in new skills and technologies” (ILO 1994b: iii) and “In parallel... training in record/book-keeping, accounting, costing, pricing ...” (ILO 1994b: 5). Similarly, a multi-country study on the benefits of training for women observed, “While many of the women showed a great capacity for mental calculations and some an astute business sense, they remain relatively powerless in the world of business if they have no written records” (Leach et al. 2000: 109).

From a somewhat wider perspective, some quotes from Easton (1998) are pertinent and reinforcing:
"Without introducing the technology of writing and effective literacy—in whatever language or script it may be, and acquired by any available type of education-training and assumption of new development functions both tend to remain stuck at the most rudimentary level of technical skill and the most incomplete forms of participation" (1998: xix). “The training necessary to support self-governance initiatives is not, of course, limited to literacy instruction—far from it. But if the “tool of writing” constitutes a threshold of effectiveness in the management of local institutions, mastery of this code is equally important as a means of magnifying the scope and the impact of the training” (1998: xxiii).

In a balanced review of educational research in West and Central Africa, Maclure (1997: 86-87) points, on the one hand, to the evidence that non-formal literacy training is strongly linked to improvements in several domains, including agricultural production and other revenue-generating skills, as well as enhanced managerial skills among members of agricultural cooperatives. On the other hand, he notes the frequency with which literacy and other training for poor, unschooled adults disappoint their sponsors and beneficiaries through poor implementation.

What has prompted the current study is the need to assess what seem to be the most effective strategies and methods for ensuring that the skills of literacy and numeracy do support the struggles of the very poor to develop livelihoods sufficient to lift themselves out of poverty.

**Defining livelihoods and income-generating activities**

**Livelihood:** Because this report is contributing in the first instance to a review of vocational and technical education, it treats the term “livelihood” more in its traditional, restricted sense of simply making a living, rather than in the recently expanded senses initiated by researchers at the Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex, and adapted by some bilateral and multilateral agencies and international non-governmental organizations. More specifically, “livelihood” in this report restricts itself to the knowledge, skills, and methods used to produce or obtain the food, water, clothing, and shelter necessary for survival and well-being, whether the economy is subsistence, monetized, or a mixture of both. “Livelihood” seems more appropriate than either “employment” or “income-generating activities,” because the majority of people in Africa who participate in programs with literacy components derive their living mainly from subsistence agriculture, and often from the exchange of goods and services, rather than from earning wages or salaries. A livelihood can include more than one set of knowledge, skills, and methods. For instance, in an agrarian economy, a woman may earn her family’s livelihood by combining subsistence agriculture and horticulture on a small plot of land with remunerated labor on a neighbor’s land and with selling some of her produce as processed food in a local market.

**Income-generating activities:** Because most economies are now monetized, the terms “income-generating activities” and “income-generating projects” occur frequently in discussions of literacy projects and programs. They are not synonymous with “livelihood,” for the available literature suggests that they often—but do not always—generate only small incomes to supplement main livelihoods. Further, the literature gives the impression that, in most instances, income-generating activities do not involve much systematic training, in ways that courses of vocational and technical education would. Instead, a learning group usually seems to undertake an activity that is common, well known and established in the neighborhood and for which little additional instruction is given.

In the main, then, this report will prefer the term “livelihood” rather than “income-generating activities.”

A report on a project in Egypt makes this important distinction: “Quite often the needs assessment identified the need for income-generation opportunities of which vocational training might be a part... An additional challenge is not to confuse income-generation with vocational training. Both are often important, but people developing vocational skills often need further support (such as with credit schemes and marketing) to be able to generate income” (UKDFID 1999b: para. 8.4.3 and 8.4.8).
In short, livelihoods and livelihood/occupational training are not quite synonymous with income-generating activities, even if the latter do require some training.

Clarifying literacy and numeracy

At the most basic level, literacy entails simply the skills of (a) recording information of some kind in some code understood by the person making the record and possibly by other persons in some more or less permanent form and (b) decoding the information so recorded. That is the essence of writing and reading. Similarly, numeracy is the skill of using and recording numbers and numerical operations for a variety of purposes. During the past 5,000 years or so, the human race has developed these skills into systems that reach far beyond the simple recording of information. The systems now range from personal signatures through to the mazes of legal documents and higher mathematics. In this, they entail ranges of skills, usages, customs, and conventions in both recording and decoding information, which are conditioned by the particular contexts where they occur. These ranges and varieties have made defining literacy and numeracy in operational terms more than just difficult: UNESCO has been struggling with the task for half a century and has still not been able to bring its member states to a consensus. Each member operates its own definition for its own purposes.

The attainment of virtually universal primary schooling in the industrialized countries initially led to defining permanent or sufficient literacy operationally as the equivalent of four years of primary schooling. The tendency to use schooling as the standard against which to measure attainments in literacy persisted for some while, despite its increasing inadequacy in the face of shifting average attainments at different levels of schooling in different countries.

In the light of the flux and because it examines situations in a variety of countries and cultures, this study uses no definition of literacy or numeracy. It simply uses the words in whatever sense was used by the program under study. However, as will be seen in Chapter 7 under “Synthesis of findings from the two strategies,” the study does attempt to estimate the minimum amount of instruction and practice a person needs to acquire sufficient skill in writing, reading, and calculating to be able to go on to obtaining and exchanging new and possibly complex information to improve the productivity of her or his livelihood. The discussion makes it clear that no hard and fast rule can be laid down. All that is offered is what might be a safe minimum.

1. “A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims, and access) and activities required for a means of living; a livelihood is sustainable which can cope with and recover from stress and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, and provide sustainable livelihood opportunities for the next generation; and which contributes net benefits to other livelihoods at the local and global levels and in the long and short term,” Chambers R. and G. Conway, 1992, Sustainable rural livelihoods: Practical concepts for the 21st century, IDS Discussion Paper 296, Brighton, Institute of Development Studies at the University of Sussex.
Objectives of the study

According to this study’s Terms of Reference, its main objective is “to derive lessons from programs that have included livelihood skills as part of literacy education and programs that have included literacy skills as part of livelihood training.” The final report should provide answers to the following questions:

- What approaches have been used?
- What are the documented outcomes and impacts of these approaches?
- What are the lessons regarding management, implementation and resource requirements?
- What approaches are likely to be most effective under conditions prevailing in sub-74 Africa, and what are the pitfalls to avoid?

The fourth question makes clear that the study aims to contribute to policy and practice mainly in Sub-74 Africa.
Scope

This study focuses on efforts to combine livelihood training with literacy instruction either by incorporating livelihoods into primarily literacy programs or incorporating literacy into primarily livelihood training. Rogers (1997: 47) provides a convenient sub-categorization of these two broad groups, although he uses the term “income-generation activities,” not “livelihood.” Each of these sub-categories constitutes an approach to the combination. Also, while Rogers speaks only of “adult literacy programmes,” he does in his third and fourth categories below intimate that the income or livelihood concerns may well lead and determine the literacy content.

“There are five possible relationships between the teaching of literacy and income-generation activities in adult literacy programmes:

1. Literacy in preparation for income-generation activities (rare);
2. Literacy followed by separate income-generation activities (more common);
3. Income-generation activities leading to literacy (very rare);
4. Income-generation activities and literacy integrated (very, very rare);
5. Literacy and income-generation activities in parallel but separate (most common).”

This report will adapt Rogers’ framework to include livelihoods along with income generation. Thus the report examines the following five categories or approaches:

1. Literacy as a prerequisite or in preparation for training in livelihood or income-generation activities. That is, training in a livelihood is the longer-term aim, but people are encouraged not to start training in a livelihood until they have first mastered reading, writing, and calculating sufficiently to cope with the operating requirements of a livelihood, as well as with manuals and other literature. There is a connection and planned progression between the two, even if the literacy curriculum is independent of the livelihood training (for example, Women in Enterprise Development (Lim 1999)).

2. Literacy followed by separate livelihood or income-generation activities. Here, learning literacy is regarded as a self-standing and worthwhile aim in itself and is undertaken first. Thereafter, training is offered in either livelihoods or some form of income-generating activity. There are no systematic connections between the two components (for example, income-generating and livelihood projects for individuals in Botswana (Legwaila 1996, 1997)).
3. Livelihood training or income-generation activities leading to literacy. In this sub-category, groups start out learning to develop a business, but come to recognize that their progress will be frustrated, unless they learn to calculate more comprehensively, record their incomes and outgoings and read their records. The content of the literacy and numeracy grows out of the livelihood and income generation (for example, Mahila Samakhya in India (Nirantar 1997)).

4. Livelihood and income-generation activities integrated with literacy. In this sub-category, training in a livelihood and instruction in literacy and numeracy begin simultaneously, with the content of the literacy derived from or influenced by the livelihood (for example, WEP-Nepal (Thomas & Shrestha 2000); ACOPAM–West Africa (ILO 1999)).

5. Literacy and livelihood and income-generation activities in parallel but separate. Programs in this sub-category recognize the importance of both components, start both simultaneously, but omit to develop any systematic connections between them (for example, Farmers’ Field Schools (World Education 2000a)).

The study includes what are broadly known as “Functional Adult Literacy Programs,” even though they do not offer what could be called systematic training in the many topics contained in their curricula. In many such programs such as the practice in Kenya, mentioned above, literacy instructors are advised to invite specialists to discuss particular technical issues. Most experiences with this expedient can scarcely be classed as training, however informal. An excerpt from the Kenya portion of the current study (Mwangi 2001) supports this view. The observer, an adult education officer surveying literacy classes in the Nyanza province, noted, “Functional literacy is practised without designing and conducting lessons in relation to the development they are required to encourage.” In Kenya’s Western province, another adult education officer found that the Vihiga district had a total of 110 literacy centers, only 10 of which had income-generating projects. Nevertheless, as both the present Kenya and Uganda studies show below, these programs can offer instances where, even with standard curricula for an entire country, with only tinctures of livelihood training, their learners have learned and applied useful ideas and appreciated the outcomes. For that reason, they feature in this study.

In terms of geographical scope, the study included four intensive investigations in Africa in Guinea, Kenya, Senegal, and Uganda. In addition, it attempted to benefit from experiences in a larger number of countries through a more general search among bilateral, multilateral, and non-governmental agencies known to support adult education and training, both generally in terms of basic literacy and numeracy and more specifically, in terms of training for very poor people to enhance their productivity, production and incomes and to expand their repertoires of productive skills.

Methods and sources of information

The study had to be documentary because the period and budget within which the study had to be completed ruled out any substantial original or field research. The published literature on experiences in combining livelihoods training with literacy instruction is small, and what there is tends to be insufficiently analytical to help policy makers assess the relative merits of different strategies and methods. This study therefore sought information from the “grey literature” of project documentation: proposals, designs, periodic monitoring reports, mid-term reviews, project completion reports, end-of-project evaluations, and impact evaluations. Agencies helped identify programs that fitted the study’s focus and agreed to grant access to members of the study team to review what files and archives could be retrieved.

It is important to note that one reason for the dearth of published material could well be the dearth of “grey documentation” and the poor quality of much of the documentation that is retrievable. The Guinea study found so little documentation available that it depended much more on interviews and observations. Further, theoretical advances in methods of evaluating outcomes and impact do not seem to have made headway in programs of adult basic education. In the mid–1970s, the overall eval-
ulation of UNESCO’s Experimental World Literacy Programme noted, “Some of the most important and crucial indicators such as production, productivity and income were not measured because they were found to be of enormous complexity,” and because “The (experimental) programme’s implementers were understandably more concerned with doing than with recording” (UNDP/UNESCO 1976: 13). This helped explain why the critical assessment had to be more qualitative than quantitative and more in the form of hypotheses to be further tested than insights to be confidently shared. Much the same was the case with the IIEP’s effort to evaluate the literacy programs of Kenya and Tanzania more than a decade later (Carron et al. 1989; Carr-Hill et al. 1991). The unfortunate situation persists. This study encountered only two efforts that have planned for both baseline and impact evaluations. Both are programs in Nepal (Thomas and Shrestha 2000; World Education 2001a), which feature in the following discussion.

Today’s implementers also seem to be too preoccupied with doing to have time for recording. However, this excerpt from a World Bank report suggests that adult educators may not be alone in deficiencies of data and analysis: “After 30 years of lending, the Bank still knows little about the impact of its education projects on output measures such as quality, access, and internal efficiency, let alone development. The main problem is at the project level. Staff appraisal reports seldom make adequate provision for gathering and using such information, and frequently project goals are not stated in clear, monitorable terms” (IBRD–OED 1993). Indeed the observation applies even more strongly to the literacy programs supported by the World Bank since 1977. An example is the Ghana National Literacy and Functional Skills Program, where Crapper’s team found “…there are no reliable data on which to assess cost-effectiveness” (for a pilot project started in 1989–90 and evaluated in late 1995) (1996: 33).

Even more recently, ILO (2001a: 11.56) noted, “Very few of the projects under review undertook the baseline studies that would ensure the reliability of impact assessment. The monitoring systems were also not very effective.” At FAO, Coldevin (2001: 18) remarks, “…lack of evaluation continues to undermine the perception of the value of participatory communication and learning.”

Where NGOs are concerned, the situation seems no better. Riddell (2001) notes for example that of 13 evaluations of REFLECT projects, only one offered conclusions based on empirical and measured evidence.

Therefore, those reports that did yield at least some of the information needed to answer the four questions in the terms of reference are all the more valuable. We must frankly state that the documentation available did not permit satisfactory responses to the third question of the terms of reference on management, implementation, and resource requirements. Neither did it enable any discussion of the crucial issues of organizational and institutional development. Without the construction of effective organizations and sound institutional norms, it is not possible to assist very poor people to use literacy to make their livelihoods more productive.

In Guinea, the study found little documentation available (Diallo 2001). It had to rely instead on interviews and studies of the government’s National Literacy Service and 23 NGOs involved in combinations of literacy and development training. All these programs link literacy so closely with livelihood and other development skills that distinguishing between two strategies—literacy with livelihood or livelihood with literacy—makes little sense. In addition, the study observed a number of learning groups and interviewed a large number of farmers and craftsmen who had previously participated in learning groups.

In Kenya, the sources were essentially literacy efforts that had always incorporated, at least in principle, some elements of knowledge for livelihoods and some form of income-generating activity (Mwangi 2001). They provided accounts from a number of non-governmental organizations involved in literacy, along with 10 vignettes of how the government’s national program operates in different parts of the country. The search located no instances of programs that were primarily interested in training for livelihoods and that had incorporated literacy/numeracy components as supplementary means towards their main objectives. Yet many of its vignettes stress that, without elements of income-
In Senegal, the major source of information was the livelihood-led literacy program offered to cotton farmers by SODEFITEX (Sall 2001).

In Uganda, the study examined eight programs. Six were literacy efforts that incorporated "functional" knowledge from a range of topics, including items on agriculture, while the other two took up literacy, as they felt that the lack of it hampered their main efforts at development (Katahoire 2001).

In Europe and North America, multilateral and bilateral agencies as well as NGOs provided what internal documentation they could, as well as lesser-known publications.

Most of the documentation retrieved was in the form of proposals, plans, and descriptions. Very few project completion reports were available, nor were there many evaluations, much less impact evaluations. Unfortunately, what was available does not allow thorough-going comparisons between different approaches, so our answers to the four main questions—rather in the manner of the UNDP/UNESCO critical assessment of the Experimental World Literacy Programme 25 years ago—will be more tentative than firm.

In addition to collecting recent and contemporary documentation, the study tried to glean the lessons from some of the earlier efforts to combine livelihood with literacy training. The first of these, and the first major initiative in this direction, was the Experimental World Literacy Programme, led by UNESCO and supported by a number of agencies, as well as the dozen or so countries that participated in the program (UNDP/UNESCO 1976:162). Its potential relevance to this study is clear: "Vocationally oriented programs (chiefly agriculture, but also including industry and artisanry) were organized for 91 percent of EWLP enrollees, while only 9 percent were involved in non-vocational (social and women's) programmes."

This current report constitutes a synthesis of the investigations in Guinea, Kenya, Senegal, Uganda, and documentation obtained from the bilateral, multilateral and non-governmental agencies.

1. Worth noting is that the 10 centers with income-generating projects had 80 percent attendance rates, while those without had on average attendance rates of only 20 percent.
This chapter considers work that falls in the first two of Rogers' categories, namely, "literacy as a prerequisite or in preparation for training in livelihood or income-generation activities" and "literacy followed by separate livelihood or income-generation activities."

Before we examine particular projects, it is worth noting the widespread mistake of expecting too much from education and training programs. This is clear from an experiment in the Andhra Pradesh state of India in 1972.

Participants in the experiment were divided into four separate groups. Each group took instruction for one to two hours a day, six days a week for 26 weeks, a total of 300 hours of tuition and practice. Group 1 learned literacy and numeracy from a curriculum derived from topics of health, nutrition, childcare and family planning, that is, functional literacy. Group 2 had the same subject matter taught only through lectures, demonstrations, and practice. Group 3 learned literacy from a standard primer and the health topics through conventional instruction and services. Group 4 was the control group, who received no instruction or services at all.

At the end of the experimental period, the control group, Group 4, showed little change on any indicator. Group 1 (functional literacy) had attained a level of sustainable literacy, but was inferior to Group 2 in actually putting their health learning into practice. Group 3 (traditional literacy plus health instruction) proved inferior to Group 2 in health practice and to Group 1 in both literacy and health practice (ICAE 1979: 42 et seq.).

At first glance, teaching wholly by demonstration and practice seems to be the most effective way to bring about changes in behavior. However, given that all three experimental groups had the same amount of time to learn non-identical curricula, it is clear that Group 3 was asked to learn much more than either Group 1 or Group 2 and that Group 1 was asked to learn more than Group 2. Put another way, too much was expected of both Groups 1 and 3 compared to what was expected of Group 2.

The implication is that, for every component of a course of learning, an appropriate time needs to be built in for learning it. In the present context, that means that courses in livelihood and literacy must allow enough time for the livelihood skills, plus enough time for the literacy skills. If the experiment above is accurate in suggesting that 300 hours of instruction and practice suffice to attain sustainable literacy, then a course of livelihood skills and literacy would need to plan for at least 300 hours for the literacy and then add an appropriate number for the livelihood skills. If it does not, it risks overloading its curriculum and disappointing its learners, as well as its operators.

Literacy as a prerequisite to livelihood training

In Guinea, Kenya, and Senegal, none of the programs studied required its participants to learn how to read, write, and calculate, before permitting them
to enter training in livelihood skills. However, the Uganda study encountered one called FAL, conducted by the NGO, the Adventist Development and Relief Agency (ADRA).

**ADRA, Uganda**

The program takes its acronym from the national Functional Adult Literacy Program—FAL—but uses the L to stand for “Learning” rather than “Literacy.” The reason is that ADRA has adopted a curriculum that goes well beyond literacy and aims to enable poor women to develop better and sustainable livelihoods. It had originally taught only livelihood skills, but, as other organizations have done, ADRA came to recognize that without literacy and numeracy, the development of such skills is very restricted.

ADRA offers a course of three stages. The first stage, which is obligatory, involves learning to read, write, and calculate, with a particular emphasis on calculating accurately. For this stage, ADRA uses the standard literacy texts provided by the government’s program, but it adds exercises to help learners understand more thoroughly what is involved in the processes of buying and selling as a business. The second stage instructs the learners in how to assess the feasibility of a project. It also requires each of them to save a small amount of money and, without financial assistance, start a modest income-generating activity. The final stage requires the learners to form “solidarity groups” of five members each, who trust each other enough to open a joint bank account, into which they pool their savings and from which they will manage any loans they take or make to each other. The three stages take up between nine and 12 months at the rate of six hours a week, or 250 to 300 hours in all.

Once the stages are completed, ADRA is prepared to make micro loans of about US$30–60, repayable in installments over 16 weeks with an interest rate of four percent per quarter. It reports that these smaller loans and short periods of repayment help sustain commitment and accountability and ensure success.

The national FAL program, under which ADRA also falls, now enrolls more than 100,000 people annually—90 percent of them women. No systematic and widely drawn study appears to have yet been done on its attainments and outcomes. However, using literacy/numeracy explicitly to pave the way to loans and businesses seems to sustain perseverance in attending and completing the course, for ADRA reports a retention rate of around 80 percent in its classes. As for longer-term effectiveness, ADRA reports loan repayment rates of close to 100 percent within the stipulated time frame.

Further, a modest survey of eight ADRA groups in three sub-counties found that six had qualified for micro loans and had maintained their repayment schedules. A couple of micro-enterprises had failed, but the majority had made small profits, which they were investing in expansion. Interviews with the members found that almost all of them claimed that they were managing their farms and livestock more productively and were becoming more successful at starting and managing small businesses. They felt more confident and more independent.

ADRA asks the learning groups, which may number between 40 and 70 members, to recruit their own instructors within some simple guidelines. No minimum standard of schooling is set, but persons invited to act as instructors should be at least 18 years old, more literate than their prospective learners, fluent in the language used for instruction, respectable, and acceptable both to all the learners and to the local community leaders. Once selected, the instructors are trained to teach not only literacy and numeracy but also livelihood and business skills. Their initial training is followed at intervals with refresher and further training. This is a notable instance of systematically forming instructors competent in two sets of skills.²

Remuneration of the instructors is an important issue. Although the instructors are selected by their learners and serve voluntarily, they are not expected to give their services for nothing; they receive an honorarium from ADRA itself. Their learners, being poor women, are not asked to contribute to this honorarium.

A crucial component of ADRA’s strategy is organizational and institutional development. Its policy is eventually to withdraw from a locality. To ensure the sustainability of its attainments, it works not only to help the women’s groups to operate compe-
tently, but also—and equally important—to help the community develop sufficient organizational capacity to support the groups and take fresh initiatives. This ADRA does through fostering associations that are registered as Community Based Organizations with legal rights and powers. ADRA helps communities elect officers for these organizations and then trains the officers in managing the local project and its finances and in raising finance for new initiatives. ADRA reports that most officers are graduates of the literacy and livelihoods program.

Reports from a number of project areas note enthusiastic response to ADRA's pattern of operation from learners, local authorities, political leaders, and opinion leaders. Support in the form of money, materials, and moral encouragement seems common. Overall, then, on the restricted evidence available, ADRA's strategy to work for a form of holistic development, using literacy as an obligatory first step, appears effective and successful. Unfortunately, information on the costs of this success, either gross or unit, is not available.

For the purposes of planning and budgeting, it is worth noting that ADRA reports a dropout rate of 20 percent. This indicates, as does the case of SOD-EFITEX below, that adult education and training programs, however well conceived and implemented, may have to accept that some attrition is unavoidable. Planning needs to devise measures to minimize it.

Five more examples

Outside the four African countries intensively studied, three contemporary programs that insist on literacy as a prerequisite for livelihood training are found in Bangladesh, the Philippines and Nepal, while two others, in Ethiopia and Somaliland, do not quite fit the description but are close to it. A sixth was in Egypt, but no information later than 1993 is available about it, and there appears to have been no evaluation of its impact on its beneficiaries. The ILO report on it, “Training Rural Women in Income Generating and Basic Life Skills” (1993a: 28), notes that “Literacy training is compulsory for the loan beneficiaries and enrollment is part of the application procedure.” In addition, “The Project beneficiaries had significantly better education levels compared to the control groups” (partly perhaps because of the literacy classes). It also noted, “Village women in El Minya opened their own houses for literacy classes because a large number of women applied and distances to the Project site were excessive” (1993a: 23). The absence of more detail on the project and its small scale—it enrolled only 51 women for training in 1991-92 (1993a: 53)—make it unsuitable for further consideration in this report.

In the other five countries—Bangladesh, the Philippines, Nepal, Ethiopia, and Somaliland—the programs examined are all conceived and implemented by local and international NGOs. While they may have the moral support of the governments, all of them, like ADRA, rely on private funding, much of it from international sources.

In Bangladesh, the Saptagram organization aims to improve the status of women through enabling them to develop non-traditional forms of livelihood and income generation (Guttman 1994).

In the Philippines, the Notre Dame Foundation for Charitable Activities runs many programs through a network of branches. The program discussed here is its Women’s Enterprise Development Program, which offers both livelihood and literacy training (Lim 1999).

In Nepal, World Education Inc., an international non-governmental organization based in the U.S.A., works in partnership with 25 local non-governmental organizations on “Women’s Economic Empowerment and Literacy,” which aims to equip women with sufficient literacy to manage savings, credits, and loans to develop new businesses (World Education 2001).

The WISE (Women in Self-Employment) program in Ethiopia (Berhanu 2001) and the SEICYM (Somali Education Initiative for Girls and Young Men) in Somaliland (AET 2000 and Tomlinson 2001) are additional instances of programs that use literacy as a preparation for livelihood training.

Saptagram and Women’s Enterprise Development

The Bangladesh Saptagram and the Philippine Women’s Enterprise Development Program offer training in a range of skills that enable women to
enhance their livelihoods and incomes. However, since these skills involve the use of literacy and numeracy, both organizations require applicants to show that they can handle the course materials before admitting them to the course. If applicants cannot do so, they must take a six-month course in basic literacy and numeracy to qualify for entry.

In both organizations, the literacy course is “functional” in that its content and vocabulary focus on topics of everyday importance, like health, nutrition, child care, hygiene, and sanitation; and it is said to derive from surveys of local situations, as are the occupations in which training is offered. In fact, Saptagram and its participants, after trying out materials developed by other organizations, decided that they must produce their own. In this sense, both organizations ensure that their offerings are led by interest and demand. Even though the two literacy courses are not derived from a specific livelihood—as understood in this report—both organizations report that more than 90 percent of their enrollees complete the course, after which nearly all of them then register for training in an income-earning occupation.

Saptagram takes rigorous measures to prepare its participants to develop their livelihoods: “This year (1994) Saptagram plans to give its first individual loans to women actively involved in the organization for at least five years. Women can apply for an individual loan if they have shown leadership and management skills in social actions and income-generating projects. They must also be graduates of the adult literacy course and have sound accounting skills” (Guttman 1994: 11).

Guttman adds, “Part of the adult education program’s success comes from women’s perception that it can improve their living standards. This underlines the importance of tying education to broader rural development, specifically income-generating projects” (1994: 23).

Both Saptagram and the Notre Dame Foundation use trained and paid instructors for their courses.

Both organizations deal with learners as individuals and not as groups. Therefore, although both organizations take care to consult local communities and authorities before they open new operations, they do not extend their reach to community, organizational, or institutional development, as ADRA does.

### WEEL, Nepal

In Nepal, the Women’s Economic Empowerment and Literacy program (WEEL) uses the curriculum of the National Literacy Programme—also “functional”—or other existing curricula, as preparation for training in savings, credit, business development, and management (but not in specific occupations). However, in order to emphasize the connection with livelihoods and thus maintain interest and motivation, WEEL supplements the content with 12 poster and discussion sessions on women’s roles, benefits of being in a group, and benefits of savings and credit. Its whole course takes 21 months in three phases. The first is preparatory literacy and numeracy. The second focuses on savings, credit, and business management. The third requires only one group meeting per month to advance business and literacy skills.

Initiated in 1994 and moving through careful preparatory phases, WEEL now combines income, food security, credit, micro-enterprise, and literacy-numeracy in its curriculum. Its 3,000 initial enrollees have now graduated (a study of what they have done with their learning is in process and should be available later in 2001). They have formed over 300 savings and credit groups and helped 100 already existing groups to learn literacy, numeracy, and more advanced topics like marketing. Its current enrollment has 10,000 women. Most are illiterate, but some are partly literate either from earlier literacy programs or from some years in primary school (Sherpa et al. 2001). WEEL has also entered underserved areas and formed new women’s groups. It requires only that a core number of women in a group master the literacy/numeracy skills, so that they can independently manage group accounts and records and lead group learning. The other members are welcome to learn if they wish, but WEEL does not demand that they do so.

WEEL recognizes that this partial literacy makes some women reluctant to start from the beginning again. In response, it has developed a “bridging” course that helps women revive their skills and qualify themselves for training in savings and credit.

Like ADRA, WEEL encourages its learners to select their own literacy instructors according
to a few personal and educational criteria. It then trains and pays an honorarium to the people selected.

Unlike ADRA, WEEL does not train its literacy instructors as trainers either in particular livelihoods or in business identification and management. Instead, it trains personnel of the 25 participating NGOs to be the trainers in those skills. At the same time, it works to reduce the groups' dependency on the NGOs in tasks that can be managed with adequate skills in literacy and numeracy.

Like ADRA and unlike Saptagram and the Notre Dame Foundation, WEEL prefers to work with groups rather than individuals. Unlike ADRA, however, it does not attempt to develop community institutions to support the groups, even though it takes care to consult the local authorities. Instead, its component of institutional development concerns the non-governmental organizations that are working on the program. It is they who are strengthening their own capacities to organize and expand programs for very poor women.

SEIGYM, Somaliland

The Somaliland Education Initiative for Girls and Young Men (SEIGYM), supported by the Africa Educational Trust, has adopted an unusual, possibly unique, approach for its urban participants. It gives them vouchers they can use to obtain the training they want. As all the vocational and technical training on offer requires some school qualification, non-literate participants can locate and pay for instruction in literacy and numeracy before moving on to specifically livelihood training. Over three years, 5,000 disadvantaged girls, young women, and young ex-militia men have received literacy/numeracy and/or vocational skills training.

The scheme took care to win the support of the local authorities and leadership and indeed works partially through them. Two main committees were formed with representatives from the Ministry of Education, women's groups, youth groups, local NGOs, international NGOs, and UN agencies. Later, there were also four "district" committees. These committees, working with tribal elders and community groups, select the disadvantaged girls and young men to receive vouchers.

Two systems operated: In the first system, students could receive a voucher, which they could use to purchase education or training of their choice. The voucher was redeemable only through the Africa Educational Trust (AET) and only if AET inspected the training provider and certified its standards. AET also provided training courses for alternative trainers, craftsmen, and women who wanted to run small training courses (such as carpenters, driving instructors, painters, tailors, nurses).

This system worked best in the larger towns where there were craftsmen and women who wanted to provide the training and where there were enough students with vouchers to make it worth their while to run a course—usually 10 to 15 students for one particular subject.

The second system, in effect outside the larger urban areas, also offered vouchers, but in addition, there were meetings and discussions with the students to ask what they wanted to purchase with them. Based on this, AET then recruited local trainers to provide the course, paying them against the value of the vouchers. This worked best in the smaller towns and was also important when the majority of students wanted literacy and numeracy.

In a number of cases, a local committee agreed to support a project in which a local trainer was setting up a course for a specific group, e.g. a literacy class for 40 disabled people or a basic education class for the children of outcastes, to allow them to gain access to normal schools.

To identify the people who could apply for vouchers, AET worked with each local committee to reach agreement on definitions on who was eligible. Then AET and the committee worked on fair and transparent selection procedures in that locality. The AET worked with different committees because, given the fractured nature of the local society, AET aimed to cover different clan areas, so that the central committees would not be accused of bias towards their own clans. Based on the agreed procedures, the committees take responsibility for working with the local community groups, women's groups, local authorities, Imams, and clan elders to select the young people who would receive vouchers.
The vouchers are redeemed through a system of supervision and accountability. A local AET staff member monitors each "class" monthly. In the more remote areas, a local teacher or community worker is paid to do the monitoring, using an agreed procedure and reporting form. Voucher payments are then made against satisfactory performance. At present, this is measured very simply—attendance record of students and teacher over the month, teacher’s written lesson plans over the month, comparison of work in a random sample of students’ exercise books with objectives and work set out in lesson plans, and the actual ability of students to complete exercises studied over the past month, as shown in their books and lesson plans.

In many cases, local classes are organized and run by women’s groups, community groups, and youth groups in an area. In such cases, payment is made to the management of the group. For vocational courses, individual local trainers or craftspeople train small groups. Again, these are monitored and payment made against delivery.

Although SEIGYM does not aim directly at institution or capacity-building beyond the skills and livelihoods of its learners, it is in effect forming new institutional norms, capacities, and skills.

WISE, Ethiopia

The Ethiopian Women In Self-Employment (WISE) program also focuses on training women to develop and manage businesses. It found that keeping proper track of orders, stock, and sales requires the abilities to read, write, and count. Therefore, WISE introduced a course to assist its members develop those skills. However, Berhanu (2001: 29) reports: “The Record Keeping module of the Business training requires that participants are able to read and write. In this regard the illiterate status of most of the women posed a problem. To solve the problem WISE launched a Literacy and Numeracy Skills improvement program scheduled during late afternoons. However, the program failed because of dropouts for various reasons, among which are, as stated by women themselves, lack of time, lack of interest, seeking allowance, sight problems and inability to see the advantages of being literate.”

Literacy as a prerequisite—reflections

All six programs discussed above address mainly very poor women in very poor, mostly rural communities. One difference between them is that Saptagram, the Notre Dame Foundation, WISE and SEIGYM deal with individual applicants, each on her own account, whereas ADRA and WEEL prefer to deal with groups of women who cooperate with each other in securing, managing, and enlarging the finances needed to develop businesses, as well as to meet other exigencies of life. Except for WISE, they are satisfied that their approaches serve their aims adequately. The scanty information available does not allow any study of comparative effectiveness on any level.

A second difference is that ADRA, WEEL, and SEIGYM contribute to some form of local community capacity-building, which may in turn serve to promote the development and diversification of available livelihoods. Again, the available documentation does not allow any conclusion on that score. The experience of Ethiopia’s WISE raises the question of whether requiring literacy and numeracy for livelihood training discourages demand for that training. Verbally reported experience of WEEL suggests that it does. A proportion of women “suspend” their enrollment in the preparatory literacy/numeracy classes, despite the supplementary materials on group development, savings and credit, but they rejoin, when the course moves on to business development proper. Indeed, additional women enroll, so that the final registration is higher than the initial. Women in Ethiopia and Nepal seem then to resist literacy/numeracy that is not directly connected with livelihood training.

On the other hand, Saptagram in Bangladesh and the Notre Dame Foundation in the Philippines report that the dropout rate from their preparatory literacy/numeracy classes is less than 10 percent. Similarly, SEIGYM’s figures for completion and success are high: completion rates of close to 90 percent—and successful attainment rates of over 70 percent.

These inconsistencies in experiences could result from at least six factors:

- the composition of the learning groups;
• the content of the preparatory courses;
• the way the program is run;
• the adequacy of instructor training;
• the quality of the actual teaching;
• the possibility of cultural differences between the countries observed. Unfortunately, the documentation available does not permit any assessment either of the weight of each factor or of how each factor might vary according to context.

*The composition of the learning groups:* The Nepal WEEL program recognized that a proportion of its learners felt that they were already sufficiently literate and numerate and did not need to go through further literacy instruction. The Philippine Notre Dame Foundation, on the other hand, requires literacy instruction only after ascertaining that its applicants really cannot cope with the vocational course materials.

The content of the preparatory course: Both the Philippine Notre Dame Foundation and the Bangladesh Saptagram found existing courses unsatisfactory and designed their own to fit the interests and needs of their participants. They also appear to be successful in implementing very active and interactive forms of instruction. The Ethiopia WISE program does not report having done so.

The way the program is run: Both the Philippine and Bangladesh programs have existed for many years and have doubtless developed expertise in helping participants to sustain their interest and motivation and to persevere until completion. While the Somaliland SEIGYM is a relatively new program, the fact that its participants have vouchers to purchase their instruction may create a dynamic of power and accountability between them and their instructors that buoys their interest and perseverance.

Although this report can venture no assessment of these factors, clearly curriculum designers must bear them in mind when contemplating similar courses of literacy and numeracy as preparation and prerequisites for training in livelihoods.

These instances have all been the work of NGOs, both local and international. This characteristic has relieved them of obligations to reach mass audiences rapidly and has enabled them to pay attention to local contexts and interests. The Philippine Notre Dame Foundation and the Bangladesh Saptagram do not open operations in a locality until they have surveyed the communities likely to be involved and ascertained what sorts of training programs are likely to appeal to them. They also take care to gain the support of the local authorities. The Nepal WEEL aims to work with groups of women who are already clear on what they would like to achieve together, so that WEEL is confident it is responding to demand.

From a slightly different angle, the Somaliland women and young men who participate in SEIGYM know that they can purchase what they seek and have some control over the supplier. By and large, it appears that founding literacy-cum-livelihood programs on identified interests and using them as bases for expanding into new interests is a sound strategy.

Instructors for the literacy courses: There is some encouragement for participants to recruit their own instructors from among their schooled friends. The programs hope for people who have completed full secondary school or at least eight or nine grades, but are prepared to train people with less schooling, if they exhibit the right attitudes and aptitudes for assisting their neighbors to learn new skills. The programs accept that a single preparatory session of training is insufficient to make these lay persons fully effective literacy instructors and that these non-specialists need regular support and periodic refresher training. They also accept that the literacy instructors are non-specialists, part-time workers doing work that has often been the realm of volunteers. Most come from relatively poor households and tend to do better in terms of commitment, regularity, reliability, and general effectiveness, if they earn some cash remuneration. Some of the programs tend to expect the beneficiary participants to make some contribution towards the remuneration of their instructors.

While the literacy instructors are non-specialists, the instructors for the livelihood skills are more for-
nally qualified and remunerated as such. Although they can come from the localities where the courses are offered, as in ADRA, the nature of the training required generally means that these instructors cannot be selected by their learners.

In terms of impact, the Uganda ADRA could offer a small sample of learners who felt their livelihoods had benefited materially from the linked literacy and livelihood programs. Both the Bangladesh Saptagram and Philippine Notre Dame Foundation can offer a good many instances of success stories of women, who learned much and have turned their learning in both literacy and livelihoods to good account in their livelihoods, incomes, family well-being, and education, and also in their social roles and status. However, it is not possible to assess how representative these success stories are in proportion to the total populations that have benefited from the two programs.

In its four to five years of operation, the Nepal WEEL reports considerable reach and has experienced sufficient empirical, if not as yet documented, success stories of women, who learned much and have turned their learning in both literacy and livelihoods to good account in their livelihoods, incomes, family well-being, and education, and also in their social roles and status. However, it is not possible to assess how representative these success stories are in proportion to the total populations that have benefited from the two programs.

The Ethiopia WISE and Somaliland SEIGYM programs have not yet had time to generate long-term impacts. However, an evaluation by Tomlinson (2001) of the first two years of SEIGYM concluded that there was ample evidence that the intended aims of the SEIGYM project had been realized, and that it was also clear that the program had unleashed a widespread desire for more courses to be provided.

In short, the evidence on impact, particularly on the productivity and diversity of livelihoods is meager, but what there is, is positive.

Unfortunately, the documentation on costs is even more meager. No assessment is possible of the overall and unit costs of any of the programs discussed above.

On the basis of what is reported, the concluding impression is that making literacy a prerequisite for livelihood training can be effective if (a) the agency is, as ADRA, Saptagram and the Notre Dame Foundation seem to be, well experienced, well known and trusted and (b) the passage from the qualifying literacy to the desired livelihood training is clear, as these three organizations, WEEL and SEIGYM seem to substantiate.

Organizing the kind of work that is described above is not easy; there have been failures, as WISE illustrates. Another example is a project in India to improve literacy, agricultural production, and economic opportunities for the poorest villagers in its target area. It formed development units, provided literacy training for its members, and after they satisfied the literacy prerequisites, arranged interest-free loans for them, repayable over 12 months. Despite these good features, the faulty implementation of other aspects led to its premature closing (CIDA 1985).

Other projects combining literacy and livelihoods and requiring literacy as a prerequisite are reported from Senegal (PNVA and the Senegal Federation of Village Associations of Fouta) and Burkina Faso (MARA-INADES, TINTUA), but in too little detail to be discussed here (Closson et al. 1997; and UNESCO, n.d.: 17-18). Closson makes an all too familiar observation, "Monitoring and evaluation is falling through the cracks" (Closson et al. 1997: 22). There is little information on costs and cost-benefit.

**Literacy followed by separate livelihood training or income-generation activities**

Organizations discussed in the preceding section used literacy specifically as a preparation for livelihood training they conducted themselves. This section considers instances where the literacy course is conducted by one organization, which then leaves the livelihood training to another or moves into income-generating activities unconnected to previous learning. Current observation in Kenya (Mwangi 2001) echoes the findings of Carron's team (1989) and suggests that, while participants do indeed appreciate and come for such activities, a majority of instructors either implement them
defectively or not at all. A substantial body of experience from many countries supports this perception. Observations by Lind (1986) in Zimbabwe; Rogers (1997) in Bangladesh, Egypt, India, and Kenya; Korboe (1998) in Ghana; and Okech and his team in Uganda (1999) all tend to the conclusion that the training and support available for livelihoods tends to be rudimentary and unsupported by services in business development and management. Although the training and income-generating activities may lead to slightly improved incomes for some of the participants, the outcomes seem to be generally disappointing. The present companion studies in Guinea, Senegal, and Uganda found nothing counter to this broad finding. In fact, the following excerpts tend to confirm it.

From the present study in Kenya: "Vihiga district...only 10 centers of 110 have income-generating projects. Moyale district...Out of 29 projects, only 9 are functioning."

From Bangladesh: "Annual income from most of the Income Generating Activities as reported by the Women’s Small Local Organizations (if not under reported) is considerably low to meet the cost of the WSLOs (even to supplement family income). Advice is needed on making IGAs viable and profitable" (CCDB 2000: 29).

From Botswana: Of 27 income-generating projects, 13 not doing well, 1 doing very well, 2 doing well, 1 doing fairly well, 3 are new, 5 need more training in skills and business management, 2 have no information (Legwaila 1996: 13).

From Congo (formerly Zaire): The Evaluation of October 2000 found:

- the collective development activities in which the women are engaged do not generate substantial and stable incomes for the women and their families;
- fundamental structural problems confront the women, which limit their productivity, e.g., restricted access to land, no access to technology, difficulties in conserving and marketing their production;
- the system of follow up of credits is insufficiently systematized and formalized;

From Ghana: "The success of this component (income generating activities) has been varied and is difficult to assess. Some initiatives have suffered from lack of proper technical advice" (Crapp et al. 1996: 35).

From Ghana: "It has been identified through group discussions that the projects need large scale Income Generating Projects in order to realize a greater impact. The small profits made by the IGPs are not adequate to meet the objectives for which they were instituted. The small scale IGP also does not make it possible for the women’s groups to be able to use the money on an individual basis as loans to improve their living standards" (GILBT 1998: 10).

From Lesotho: "...the income-generating activities are operating such that their assumed or even known income-generating qualities are highly questionable. There was poor communication between the management and the participants; as a result, the expectations of the participants did not coincide with the project’s intended outputs" (UNDP 1990).

From Namibia: "The strong bias on sewing/needle work training seems to be based on popular demand and is not backed up by income generation/market possibilities and business management support...[A] direct relationship between income generating options in the program areas and related vocational training could not be established” (Jansen et al. 1994: 15).

From Uganda: "Here skills training was a feature that was arranged by project staff as an add-on activity, responding to demand from REFLECT participants as and if means were available. Usually, these were one-day sessions on agricultural or small-scale enterprise themes. Though they were not systematically integrated with the programs, participants were clearly keen on such events and I saw on several occasions that people tried to work with the agricultural advice they had been given” (Fiedrich 2001).

These largely negative perceptions do not diminish the fact that successful instances can be found, even if in a very small minority. It is clear that, if this option is considered, great care must be taken to ensure that the factors that produced the successes
are operating. Despite the lack of information, some speculation on the factors that produced the disappointing results may be helpful.

An obvious immediate point concerns the literacy instructors. Large proportions of them, whether paid or volunteer, lack either much schooling or much grounding in the livelihoods they are expected to teach. While they may have some elementary knowledge, they are usually not equipped to deal with more complicated technical questions. Nor have they normally had any training in identifying market niches, feasibility studies, business management, accounting, or marketing. They are simply not qualified for the complex set of tasks they are urged to undertake. Consequently, their efforts, while often gallant and admirable, too often tend to lead to meager effects and disappointment.

Similarly, the organizations that support the literacy instructors tend to specialize in general education and to possess insufficient, if any, technical capacity of their own to support livelihood training. Nor do they usually have the resources to hire temporary expertise to support the literacy instructors. Often, they cannot even help the instructors to meet the travel expenses of invited experts. They depend in effect on wholly voluntary goodwill, which is forthcoming only occasionally.

Further, even where organizations with disparate missions agree to cooperate and coordinate their efforts, actual implementation falls short of intentions. The FAO supplies this example: “The Farmers’ Training and Functional Literacy Programme in India required three ministries (Agriculture, Education and Information and Broadcasting) to implement a joint plan of action all the way down to the local level, involving a number of different components. The interim evaluation carried out by the programme’s Evaluation Committee in 1977 noted that the “kind of coordination and integration, both in planning and in operations, that had been visualized at the time of the initiation of the program was hardly ever achieved in practice” (FAO 1980: 39–40).

In sum, literacy programs that lead on to training in livelihoods offer a worthwhile option for policy makers, only when two conditions can be satisfied. First, the link between the literacy content and the livelihoods in view must be explicit and clear (possibly some skills in reading, writing, and calculating are required as conditions for entry to livelihood training). Second, the subsequent livelihood training or income generating activity must be of good quality with fully competent instruction. Also needed are the usual requisites of good materials, good support, and good administration.

As for organization, it is worth noting that ADRA, the Notre Dame Foundation, Saptagram, WEEL, and SEIGYM have evidently used accumulated experience to put these requisites in place. Further, these are single organizations that do not depend on others for the actual implementation of their work. In that respect, they are unified commands, not coalitions of cooperating partners. They do not suffer from the problem the FAO report noted above, namely that coordination and cooperation between organizations with different missions is too often unreliable.5

2. It is not clear whether ADRA trains different instructors from a locality in different sets of livelihood skills to cater for different livelihood possibilities.
3. This is a pragmatic improvement on the former practice of requiring some form of school certificate.
4. The international non-governmental organization sponsoring WEEI, World Education, assisted the government of Nepal in creating the national literacy curriculum.
5. WEEL is exceptional in that it undertook a baseline study of its participants and monitored them over three years. The evaluation of its impact is due to be published in August or September, 2001.
6. This point does not deny the possibilities of successful cooperation on specific, finite tasks, like developing handbooks on specialized topics. It casts doubt only on reliance on hopes of open-ended, indefinite commitments to cooperation in the face of competing obligations and commitments.
Livelihood training or Income-generation activities leading to literacy

his chapter examines work that began with livelihood skills, then found that some degree of literacy and numeracy was necessary to develop the skills further. The ADRA–FAL program in Uganda and the Ethiopia WISE as well as the Bangladesh Saptagram’s work, described earlier, are examples; they originally attempted to teach only livelihood skills, but found that the lack of literacy blocked their efforts. Saptagram’s participants actually requested literacy and numeracy instruction (although bookkeeping remains a subject that they shy away from!) (Guttman 1994: 16).

The Rukungiri Women’s Groups

A somewhat similar experience occurred in the Rukungiri district of Uganda. Women’s groups had been well established there, with savings and credit schemes and engaged in traditional income-generating activities such as bee-keeping, poultry raising, basket weaving, and the like. In 1996, some of these groups asked to participate in the national Functional Adult Literacy (FAL) program, even though their members had on average attended primary school for five years. Focus group discussions discovered that the groups wanted to strengthen their literacy skills to feel more confident and in control in understanding loan agreements and managing their savings and credit accounts.

After the FAL course, these women’s groups felt that, in addition to achieving their immediate aims, they had benefited from the functional literacy curriculum in unexpected ways. Some had used the idea of organic farming to start their own market gardens, which had enhanced both home consumption and domestic income through sales. Some had begun tree nurseries and had sold seedlings. A number had taken up fuel-saving stoves, which had reduced their need for firewood and released income for other purposes. Overall, nearly nine out of ten of the women interviewed claimed to have started new income-generating work as a result of participating in the FAL program and that they had in consequence improved their conditions of living.

An evaluation in 1999 (Okech et al. 2001) showed that the Rukungiri sample of FAL graduates scored highest in the national sample on complex comprehension and numeracy tests and that overall, respondents in Rukungiri were the most “modern,” particularly in the adoption of improved agricultural practices.

As is customary with the FAL program, these women’s groups needed to find their own literacy instructors. Given the relatively high degree of schooling among their members, this had proved easy, and, as the instructors were themselves group members, teaching free of charge was no problem. The government’s community development staff arranged for the necessary training in how to teach the course, but they were unable to arrange for sup-
plies of texts and other teaching materials. However, most of the women were able to buy their
own, which suggests that they were poor, but not destitute.

In this instance of the Rukungiri women’s
groups, the literacy effort was clearly strongly
demand-driven, arising from a sharply felt need. Hence, there were apparently no problems about
motivation, inappropriate curriculum, poor instruc-
tion, or unobtainable teaching and learning materi-
als. As the 1999 evaluation confirmed, the outcomes
were good.

There can be no dispute that the Rukungiri
women’s groups are an exceptional example of self-
selection and are not typical in either literacy pro-
grams or vocational education. Also, many, perhaps
most, of them had a head start, in that they had
already had some primary schooling. Nevertheless,
they do signal to policy makers that identifying
groups whose activities could clearly benefit from
numeracy and literacy—that is, “literacy second,”
to use Rogers’ phrase—could raise the efficiency
and effectiveness of training programs as well as
lower the costs.

A less direct message concerns the curriculum. Although the Rukungiri women’s groups sought
numeracy and literacy mainly for business and
accounting purposes, they worked with the FAL
primers, which deal with such topics only tangen-
tially. Nonetheless, the Rukungiri women not only
used the curriculum to suit their own purposes,
they claim to have reaped unexpected ideas and
benefits from it as well. The signal seems to be that,
given purpose, demand, and motivation among the
learners, the detailed content of a curriculum may
be of only secondary importance.

Animators and hand-pump technicians

A second experience where groups came to realize
that they needed literacy to fulfill their purposes
occurred in the Banda district of India with an NGO
in the women’s movement, Mahila Samakhya
(Nirantar 1997). The experience included two
groups of women with a common interest in
women’s empowerment and betterment, but with
different responsibilities. The behavior of the two
groups towards literacy illustrated how carefully
interests, motivations, and family circumstances
need to be taken into account, even in considering
livelihood training.

One group of non-literate, poor village women
from “untouchable” castes were trained as paid
“awareness animators” in the employ of Mahila
Samakhya, while another very similar group, were
trained in the maintenance and repair of water
hand pumps. Unlike the first group, the latter
received no regular pay, but variable and not
always reliable honoraria for their work from the
villagers whose pumps they maintained. It soon
became evident to both groups of women that they
would be able to operate more effectively with the
skills of literacy, so a special camp for intensive
instruction of 180 hours (approximately three
weeks full-time) was organized with a specially tai-
lored curriculum.

Although a majority of the awareness animators
felt able to take part in the course, only a few pump
technicians did. The explanation seemed to be
twofold. First, the animators did not lose income
from being absent from work, whereas the pump
technicians did. In other words, the pump techni-
cians faced a high opportunity cost. Second,
whereas the animators needed to write quite fre-
quently to a number of offices on a variety of topics,
the pump technicians needed mainly to read their
maintenance manuals occasionally, which they
could usually manage through the schooled mem-
bers of their families and friends. In other words,
there was an inequality of need and hence an
inequality of motivation.

Also, the mastery of literacy after only 180 hours
of instruction and practice was fragile for both
groups, but more so for the pump technicians than
for the animators. The reasons for this are not
given. Later follow-up found that the animators
had for the most part been able to practice and
improve their new skills through producing regu-
lar local broadsheets for their groups. In other
words, they were doing their jobs more effectively,
even though they might not have been earning any
more money. In contrast, the pump technicians had
not found much use for reading or writing and
allowed their literacy skills to deteriorate, even
though their performance as technicians remained
satisfactory.
This experience seems to confirm the signal from Rukungiri: education designers who plan to insert literacy into livelihood training, should appreciate keenly that the more participants are convinced that the skills of literacy are indispensable to their work, productivity, and effectiveness, the more strongly they will be willing to undertake the necessary learning and to bear all the costs, in terms of time, effort, direct expenses, income foregone, inconvenience and other indirect costs. Fiedrich’s observation in Senegal would seem to support this: “My impression from a two-day visit was that the literacy training here was accepted as a loop that women and girls felt they had to jump through so as to get to the real goodies” (Fiedrich 2001).

Unlike the Rukungiri women’s groups, Notre Dame Foundation, Saptagram, WEEL and SEIGYM, the Mahila Samakhya did not ask the animators and pump technicians to elect their own literacy instructors. Just as it had selected the trainers in the skills of animation for “social awareness” and negotiated for the trainers in the maintenance of hand water pumps, so Mahila Samakhya itself supplied and paid the literacy instructors at the special intensive camp. Like Saptagram, Mahila Samakhya found that the literacy instructional materials available locally did not suit its participants’ and its own interests. It therefore developed its own.

No other programs were found that began with livelihoods and came to recognize that literacy instruction was needed to bring them to better fruition.

The two cases just discussed highlight an important difference between programs that are government-led and standard across a country and those that are instigated by smaller organizations. The Rukungiri women’s groups had to use and make the best of the standard FAL curriculum. In contrast, Mahila Samakhya rejected the standard local materials and developed its own to suit the interests of its learners more closely. This illustrates the flexibility and responsiveness that a small, client-centered organization can exercise, compared to the relative rigidity of a larger, centrally-driven, and hierarchical program (the officials of Rukungiri district had neither the authority nor the resources to develop special materials for the women’s groups). The inference is that policies that aim to be client-centered would need to devise frameworks that encourage the kind of responsiveness exhibited by Mahila Samakhya.

On the other hand, the success of the Rukungiri women’s groups with the standard curriculum does counsel against underestimating the capacity of people to learn under less than ideal circumstances, when they really want to. This in turn underlines the importance of demand, when designing policies for adult education and training. Conversely, where demand is not strong, devices are needed to reinforce it.

No information on costs was available for the Mahila Samakhya project. For the Rukungiri women’s groups, the only data are those calculated for the Uganda FAL as a whole. These put the cost per certified graduate at US$4-5 (Okech et al. 2001: 96).

**Integrated literacy and livelihood and income-generation activities**

Among the first efforts to integrate occupational and literacy training were the curricula developed in UNESCO’s Experimental World Literacy Programme in the late 1960s and early 1970s. They included both agricultural livelihoods, like cotton farming in Iran, and waged employment in factories and urban centers. The overall evaluation (UNDP/UNESCO 1976) found that the experiences and outcomes had unfortunately not been sufficiently well recorded to be of strong use to educators and policy makers. More recently, in the 1990s, Rogers in his survey of Bangladesh, Egypt, India, and Kenya found that efforts to integrate livelihood and literacy training were very rare. However, some do exist.

**SODEFITEX**

The first such program in the current intensive study comes from Senegal (Sall 2001) and concerns cotton farmers. Senegal might have provided three more similar programs for study, but the public corporations that sponsored them were abolished during structural adjustment, and all records have disappeared with them. The program in this study was initiated by SODEFITEX (Society for the Development of Textile Fibers) when, after nine years of existence, it decided in 1983 to open a literacy program.
SKILLS AND LITERACY TRAINING FOR BETTER LIVELIHOODS

for cotton producers. Its decision was driven by the recognition that literacy was one of the strongest limiting factors in modernizing cotton production and transferring responsibility for distribution and marketing to the cotton farmers themselves.

In view of the scale of the problem—one estimate put the rate of illiteracy among the producers at more than 80 percent—SODEFITEX selected an interesting strategy. It aimed first to train and make literate five members of each of its 1,740 producer associations (Associations de Base des Producteurs). For the longer term, it aimed to enable at least one member in each of its 27,179 farming families to become sufficiently literate to take advantage of technological and management advances. In line with this gradualist approach, SODEFITEX organized classes and training for some 2,400 farmers per year between 1984 and 1999, reaching a total of 35,865 learners in the 15 years (5,908 of them were women).

The specially designed curriculum comprises training in cotton production, and other aspects of agriculture and livestock raising, combined with literacy and numeracy derived from the requirements of these activities. The technical instructors are SODEFITEX employees. At first, the literacy instructors were also engaged from outside by SODEFITEX, at a ratio of approximately 25 learners per instructor (moniteur). However, as farmers became literate, SODEFITEX began to select the more successful new “graduates” as literacy instructors, giving them the necessary training for the task.

For the first six years, 1984–1989, SODEFITEX ran an eight-month literacy course, spread over two years. Finding that this pattern resulted in non-continuation with some participants and a loss of skills with others, SODEFITEX introduced what it called an intensive course on a trial basis in 1990 and 1991, then generalized it in 1992. This new pattern required participation over only four months in a single year, January to April, in the slack agricultural season, rather than the original eight months over two years. However, to offset the shortening, it required four hours a day, six days a week for 17 weeks—a total of 400 hours of tuition and practice. This pattern seems to suit the farmers and achieve its technical and literacy objectives, and it still prevailed in 2001.

In addition to supplying learning materials worth US$10.00 per learner, SODEFITEX contracted with the Cotton Producer Groups for the learners to obtain loans for the various inputs required for production. There is thus immediate and continuing support to learn and to implement and practice what is learned.

In terms of livelihood results, SODEFITEX reports that producers, who had had the training and mastered literacy/numeracy, showed six percent higher productivity than those who remained illiterate. It cannot be determined whether this outcome is due more to the technical content than to the literacy skills of the program.

However, SODEFITEX believes a more important outcome of combining technical with literacy training is the emergence of producer organizations capable of (a) managing the commercialization of the cotton crops; (b) managing agricultural credit; and (c) serving the public interest through assuring food security and organizing village stores for veterinary medicines, agricultural inputs, and other supplies. These village teams have become an essential link for the rapid increase of production and incomes.

For their part, the graduates of the training feel that the determining factor in their being able to take over increasing responsibilities from SODEFITEX is precisely the fact that they can now read, write, and calculate accurately. They are also aware that their growing ability to take responsibility for the affairs of their villages is due to their literacy. In effect, the pattern of training fosters individual productivity, group responsibility, and eventually social responsibility. In other words, the SODEFITEX package starts with improving livelihood, then empowers people to “democratize” and take more control over local affairs.

This experience of incorporating literacy into capacity-building and institutional development to sustain and enhance livelihoods recalls the similar effects generated by ADRA in Uganda, SEIGYM in Somaliland, and WEEI in Nepal. Vocational and livelihood education policies should adapt and incorporate these successful aspects to reinforce and sustain the effects of education and training programs.

For all its impressive success, the SODEFITEX experience, like ADRA’s, also sounds a warning not to expect too much of adult education and training.
Despite its focused and intensive curriculum, well-tested materials, well-trained technical instructors, well-trained and supported literacy instructors and links with credit and supplies, as well as its expertise accumulated over 15 years, the program witnessed a dropout rate of around 20 percent in 1998/99 during the four-month “intensive” period. A further 10 percent or so declined to take the literacy and knowledge test at the end of the course. Of those who did take the test, about 80 percent achieved the pass mark or better. These statistics show that more than half the original enrollees persevered and succeed according to the criteria set by SODEFITEX itself. These numbers do not of course negate all the benefits that even those who earned less than the pass mark or declined to take the test gained from the knowledge, skills and ideas they derived from the course. But they do signal that high quality implementation and long-term support are required to achieve even these less-than-perfect outcomes.

An intriguing sidelight from the SODEFITEX experience concerns the comparison between male and female participants. Statistics about the 35,865 participants (29,957 men, 5,908 women) over the period 1984–1999 show the following:

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<td>Enrolled</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tested</td>
<td>57.4</td>
<td>71.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passed</td>
<td>55.4</td>
<td>54.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent who passed of those tested</td>
<td>96.5</td>
<td>76.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These figures suggest that, among the cotton producers of SODEFITEX, higher proportions of the women are more reluctant to attempt the test, but those who do are almost certain to succeed. Higher proportions of the men are willing to brave the test, but lower proportions succeed at it. Further, if the SODEFITEX participants can be taken to represent wider populations, they signal that adult educators should find more ways than conventional tests to assess what their learners have actually learned.

WEP/Nepal

The second case in this sub-category, the Women’s Empowerment Program of Nepal (WEP/N), is particularly interesting, because it runs in the same country as WEEL and has similar objectives. It aims to enable very poor women to identify, develop, and manage opportunities to improve their livelihoods and incomes. At the same time, it seeks to enable local NGOs to build their capacities to do likewise. Also like WEEL, it undertook a baseline study of the conditions of its prospective participants and their communities before it launched operations. Similarly, its first impact evaluation was due for publication during the autumn of 2001.

Like WEEL, WEP/N is supported by an international NGO, PACT. Unlike WEEL, however, WEP/N does not teach literacy as a preparation or prerequisite for livelihood training, but combines the two from the start of the course. It does not use the national literacy curriculum, as WEEL does. Instead, it has developed its own curriculum out of the vocabulary and practices of savings, credit, and micro-enterprise. Its booklets make a progressive series: “Our Group,” “Forming Our Village Bank,” “Grow Your Business With Credit,” “Micro-Enterprise,” and finally “Linkages” (CRI Consult 1999: 6–7).

This approach seems to respond to a lesson in the UNDP/UNESCO (1976: 159) critical assessment of the Experimental World Literacy Programme: “EWLP does offer evidence supporting the link between a problem-oriented curriculum, on the one hand, and results judged to be favorable, on the other... Analysis of all programmes that produced statistically significant socio-economic effects deemed to be positive led the Evaluation Unit attached to UNESCO’s Literacy Division to formulate the following hypothesis: ‘The more closely content focuses on problems actually encountered by workers in the course of their productive activity, the more effective the functional literacy programmes.’ Data selected from two projects (India and the United Republic of Tanzania) tend generally to confirm this hypothesis.”

However, a further observation follows on the very next page to caution against an excessively narrow interpretation: “It may therefore be concluded that very high curricular specificity is not necessarily a sufficient precondition for success. A dynamic environment seems to be more conducive to success than a static one. The above-mentioned
research concluded that functional literacy 'brings about a change for the better on condition that it is associated with a process of genuine innovation (of a political, social or technical nature) in which the participants are themselves involved.'

"By and large then: (a) relevant problem-based curricula seem to have produced results judged to be positive by EWLP when (b) subject matter was not necessarily narrowly, rigidly or mechanically specific in terms of the learners’ jobs, but when (c) it took into account a broader environment that was (d) characterized by true innovations that personally concerned the participants.

"The more the content of the course takes into account the workers’ cultural environment, the more effective the functional literacy programme” (1976:160).

Like WEEL, WEP/N works with local NGOs that work with groups of poor women rather than with individuals. The program has so far reached 6,500 groups with a total membership of some 130,000 poor women (many more than WEEL). The preliminary and provisional findings of the evaluation (Ashe & Parrott 2001) are that literacy rates in the groups have risen from 28 to nearly 80 percent, while the proportion of women in business has risen from 14 to 66 percent. Cumulative savings more than doubled between June 1999 and March 2001, from US$720,000 to US$1,600,000, while the number of members taking out loans during a six-month period increased from 17,000 to 58,000. (Households with per capita incomes of less than US$162 per year make up 80 percent of the members.) At this point, the evaluation is tending to the overall conclusion that WEP/N’s approach is more effective than other strategies in accomplishing its objectives for establishing a sustainable savings and credit system without external micro-finance institutions, encouraging soundly run micro-enterprises and imparting usable and permanent literacy and numeracy.

WEP/N appears to enjoy high rates of regular attendance by its participants and very low rates of dropout. Two factors may help explain this. One is the close linking of literacy/numeracy with the livelihood core of the program. The other may be WEP/N’s parallel emphasis on social action. A 1999 evaluation suggested that, in the light of WEP/N’s progress, “... a package of interventions hoping to have a positive impact on women’s empowerment in Nepal should include i) some form of literacy; ii) rights, responsibilities and advocacy; and iii) economic participation of women in productive endeavors” (CRI Consult Inc. 1999: 33).

ACOPAM

The third program that integrates livelihood and literacy training was in existence for 21 years and ended in 1999. Based in Dakar, Senegal, it included several countries in West Africa. Although the governments of these countries were involved, the program was sponsored and promoted by the International Labour Office and the Norwegian government. Its acronym was ACOPAM, which stood for the French title, “Appui associatif et coopératif aux Initiatives de Développement à la Base”. The final report (ILO 1999) cites 17 impact and case studies on which its conclusions are based.

ACOPAM aimed chiefly to help poor rural people, especially women, to improve their livelihoods and make more productive use of available resources. It also aimed to enable members of cooperative groups, again especially women, to gain fuller information about the state of their groups, to make their elected officers and employees more accountable to them, and to take more active part in the running and development of the cooperatives. It aimed, too, to help the elected officers carry out their obligations more effectively. In current parlance, ACOPAM was concerned with production, the environment, and empowerment.

Literacy—and even more, numeracy—were necessary for these purposes, and not only for the basic livelihoods themselves. Like WEP/N in Nepal, ACOPAM found that existing literacy instructional materials did not fit its purposes. Over the years, it developed no fewer than 22 of its own literacy curricula in several West African languages, all derived from the vocabularies and practices of crops, cooperatives, savings, credit, and micro-enterprise management and marketing. The instructional method combined straightforward technical content with an adaptation of Paolo Freire’s consciousness raising approach. As Millican (1990: 7) observes, “Literacy for self-management within cooperatives requires a
combination of these two approaches; one that is both tied in to production and has the capacity to empower. Its importance is needed and recognized by the farmers themselves, which makes it potentially a powerful programme. It not only serves the administrative needs of production, but provides a framework for increasing agricultural knowledge and improving organizational skills."

As other programs have done, ACOPAM worked with local groups and encouraged them to recruit their own literacy instructors from among suitably qualified friends and neighbors, whom it then trained for the task and helped to remunerate. The technical instructors in agriculture, horticulture and cooperative management, however, were specialists recruited and paid by the program.

Here, we may note that the UNDP/UNESCO (1976: 135) critical assessment of the Experimental World Literacy Program recorded, “… the impression that technicians who also taught the three R’s achieved better overall results than most school teachers who instructed technical as well as three R subjects.”

Although the final report itself offers little quantitative data on reach, impact, or costs, it makes clear that the two decades of trial, review, and adaptation validated the strategy, methods, and materials that ACOPAM developed and used. The program succeeded in enabling large numbers of poor rural people, particularly women, to learn how to bring unused and new resources into production, to manage new production techniques for familiar crops, and to handle new crops and products to the considerable benefit of themselves and their families. It also enabled them to take more active, competent, and confident interest in their cooperative organizations and their day-to-day operations and financing.

Costs

In all three cases discussed above, no information on costs was available.

Institutional development

These three programs, like others already discussed, all pay attention to institutional development in support of livelihood development. They recognize that education and training for individuals and small groups on their own are insufficient to provide the supporting frameworks that enable people to earn and enhance their livelihoods.

Workplace literacy – 1

In addition to the three programs just described, the present study found some documentation on two instances of “workplace literacy,” one in Egypt, and the other in Botswana. Whereas the first three programs cater to people who are self-employed, these two address people in waged employment. Because the project in Egypt developed special curricula for its workers, it will be discussed here. In the Botswana project, the integration of the curriculum content with the job milieu is not clear, so it will be looked at later.

The project in Egypt ran from 1990 to 1998 (GTZ 1999: 3). Its curricula were oriented to the workers who were to take the courses, and the employers permitted all the instruction to take place during working hours (1999: 9). In the whole seven-year period, the project enrolled about 4,500 participants (1999: 19). An attempt to evaluate the benefits of the project concluded, “In this respect, the economic effects for the target group, as also for the enterprises, are not significant. But one might infer that, in the longer term, industry would profit in several ways…”

Unfortunately, the evaluation of this eight-year program offers no information on any of the attainments of the learners, the selection and training of the instructors, the application of learning, or the costs, either gross or unit. Neither does it analyze why a program, which appears to have all factors operating in its favor, should produce such insignificant effects.

Literacy and livelihood and income-generation activities in parallel but separate

Rogers observed that livelihood and literacy occurred most frequently as quite separate, almost divorced, components in the same programs. He cited a program that promoted and taught goat production as a livelihood but used a literacy primer that did not contain the word for a goat,
while the literacy instructor had not taught the word, precisely because it was not in the text. The present Guinea study (Diallo 2001) describes Centers of “Professionalizing” Literacy, many of them privately run, that experience stronger demand for vocational training than for literacy, and, apart from some technical vocabulary, make little connection between so-called functional literacy and practical activities. In similar vein, Kamau observed that, despite a common literacy curriculum, classes undertook a diversity of income-generating projects:

“Nine out of the twelve centres visited during the course of this study had agricultural demonstration plots where the learners practised modern methods of farming with the technical help of the local agricultural extension workers. Whatever products were harvested from these demonstration plots were sold and the income given to the group. Two centres were making baskets and knitting. The completed items were sold and in turn the members got cash which was used to expand group projects or divided among the members. Four classes had planted napier grass which they sold to members and to other local farmers. There were a further two classes which had planted tree seedlings and the learners were able to sell the seedlings to themselves and the local community raising an income for the group. One literacy class had a project of selling charcoal and fuel wood to the local people. The evaluator learnt that this particular class had bought a commercial plot at a cost of thirty thousand shillings (approximately US$1,500)” (Kamau 1990: 60).

Although failure to demonstrate the relevance of literacy and numeracy to a particular livelihood could undermine interest and motivation (see the instances of WEEL’s “suspended” enrollments in Nepal and the water pump technicians in India above) the Kenya vignette at the Izava location showed that, although they used a common general curriculum not necessarily related to their income generating activities, “Centres with income-generating projects had 80 percent attendance rates, while centres without projects had only 20 percent attendance rates” (Mwangi 2001).

Nonetheless, most observation also shows that attempts to run the two components in parallel tend to emphasize one to the neglect of the other; and in any case not to generate much income or indeed much literacy. Nonetheless, we have encountered two programs, which do seem to manage the balance successfully.

Farmers’ Field Schools—Integrated pest and production management

The first example not only covers a number of countries but also seems to be favored by a number of international organizations. It is the Farmers’ Field Schools with Integrated Production and Pest Management. The United Nations Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) in India and several other countries, World Education Inc. in Nepal (2000), CARE International in Sri Lanka, and possibly others have applied it and advocate its wider application.

A Farmers’ Field School for Integrated Production and Pest Management takes a group of farmers through an entire season of a crop, from soil preparation to harvest, storage, and marketing. It aims to help them optimally manage all the inputs in terms of nourishment, pest and disease control, and use of natural and manufactured aids. The farmers—men and women—continue to farm their own land throughout, but they observe a small plot that demonstrates externally recommended practice for comparison with local current practices.

The observations and comparisons require close and detailed measurements and recording by each farmer, which means they require the farmers to be sufficiently literate and numerate to be able to take and record the measurements. Although Kenya reports that most of its participating farmers were literate in both Swahili and English, many farmers elsewhere, even, surprisingly, in Sri Lanka (ASPBae 2000f), are not able to manage the tasks and need tuition in literacy and numeracy. The fact that the farmers see the need and want to participate in the program provides sufficient motivation to start learning the skills.

According to FAO, the motivation is strong enough to enable the program to use already existing literacy materials and to apply the “user pays” principle in remunerating the literacy instructors.
The farmers recruit their own suitably qualified instructors, and FAO contracts a suitably qualified organization to train and to support the selected people. FAO's view receives support from an experience in Senegal in the early 1990s. Millican writes, "The introduction of literacy was here intended for very specific tasks, that of a move by the government to 'responsibilize' farmers, i.e. to make them responsible for the management of their own irrigation systems. There were specific tasks like income and management sheets, and forms for the maintenance and costs of looking after an irrigation pump, and management of a revolving fund that farmers had to learn to use.

"1. We had to address questions such as, do we focus on learning these or look at literacy more broadly? We also had to include a lot of information about marketing/storing/selling grain, i.e. information that might increase people’s own choices.

"2. This programme like many others had to confront the language of literacy, but rather than make a choice about language we chose language according to specific tasks, i.e. certain forms had to be filled in in English, others in Pulaar, others using diagrams.

"3. The programme was a success in as far as it delivered what people needed at the point they needed it, hence questions of motivation and keeping groups going became irrelevant, farmers needed the information and therefore kept coming" (personal communication 2001).

World Education believes that the Farmer Field Schools constitute a proven model to promote both sustainable agriculture and literacy supportive of other dimensions of development. It concludes, "The key factor in all successful IPM programs in Asia has been high-quality training. At times, some countries have chosen to reduce the quantity and overall quality of training, and these programs have failed" (2000: 5) and "... we have also learned that gradual expansion is more prudent and leads to a more stable program with broad, district-level support" (2000: 6).

**RDRS**

The second example of "parallel" learning with livelihoods on the one side and literacy and numeracy, on the other, comes from Bangladesh. The Rangpur Dinajpur Rural Service (RDRS) offers a package of livelihood skills, mainly in small-scale agricultural production; social knowledge, attitudes and practices; health practices; and literacy for the majority of its members, who have had less than five years of primary schooling (RDRS 1999). Its literacy course is general, in the sense of including a range of topics not necessarily related to any of the livelihoods in which it offers training. Its literacy instructors and its technical instructors are separate cadres. Although the evaluation report studied does not contain figures, RDRS nonetheless judges that it is effective in both literacy/numeracy and livelihoods.

Once again, unfortunately, no information was available on costs for either of these two programs.

**Inference**

Although the empirical evidence is certainly light, the overall impression is that, as long as the vocational or livelihood training is trusted and valued, the learners will accept the literacy/numeracy as well. Examples cited in the next section will reinforce this impression.

**Livelihood-led, but unclassified**

This section examines sets of experiences, which, for the lack of sufficient information, cannot be classed as either "integrated" or "parallel." First, between 1982 and 2000, the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) supported agricultural programs with literacy components in at least six countries: Côte d’Ivoire, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Mali, and Senegal. The outcomes of the earlier efforts in the 1980s seem to have been sufficiently satisfactory to have encouraged further work in 2000.

In 1982, the design of the Mali Village Development Fund (IFAD 1982: 15) included "a functional literacy programme to support credit, marketing and agricultural production." The 1990 intermediate evaluation report (1990: 37.105) stated (in
Although no detailed evaluations or impact studies were available, IFAD's experiences have nonetheless clearly convinced it that including a literacy/numeracy component in support of rural and agricultural development, that is, livelihood improvement programs, is necessary, feasible and, worthwhile.

Workplace literacy – 2

Botswana's "Literacy at the Workplace Project" project was the second workplace literacy program the study found (the first was a project in Egypt—Workplace Literacy – 1). A number of mostly large, public-sector employers in Botswana arrange for their non-literate employees to spend some worktime learning how to read, write, and calculate, both for the purposes of their work and possible promotion and for more general education (Legwaila 1996, 1997). Unfortunately, the documentation available to the current study does not make clear whether the courses use materials specific to particular jobs or workplaces or materials available for the national literacy program. In 1996, the project enrolled 838 learners, of whom 331 (39.5 percent) were women. In 1997, enrollments had declined to 578, of whom 120 (20.8 percent) were women. The two reports available offer no further details on how the project functions or what it costs. The small and apparently declining scale of the program raises questions about the implementation, value, and effectiveness of such schemes. These issues are not explored in the reports. Nevertheless, the impression is that the employers believe that the literacy courses are helpful.

The mining companies in South Africa, Zambia, and Zimbabwe have for several decades offered their non-literate employees classes in English literacy and numeracy. Public corporations in India are also known to have organized such classes. This study was unfortunately unable to locate any assessments of the effects of these classes on either their beneficiaries or their providers. It is possible that, as Mikulecky found in Canada, the corporations regard these educational efforts more as welfare expenditures for the less qualified members of their workforces and less as investments in raising the quality of their human resources.
The Experimental World Literacy Programme found that literacy classes offered in workplaces were often less effective than hoped. The data available to its evaluators did not permit any analysis of the various factors that might have explained this. The contrast with the positive impressions of work with the self-employed suggests that the issue requires some investigation.

1. For a related case, see the Kenya Karungu Women's Group, pp. 118–119.
2. In the country-wide sample, of which this was part, nearly 40 percent of the successful graduates of the national Functional Adult Literacy Program had had five years or more of primary schooling.
3. Not surprisingly, there are arguments that these improvements cannot be ascribed solely to WEP/N.
4. At the time of writing this report, the ILO had not been able to retrieve the studies.
5. Personal communication with FFS managers in Nairobi.
7. The project closed in 1994. No impact evaluation appeared to be available.
8. Information to calculate the number of instructional hours involved is not available.
It is important to remember that the evidence reviewed is not particularly strong, so any inferences necessarily lack a solid empirical base and analytical rigor. Like the “Critical Assessment of the Experimental World Literacy Programme,” this study was compelled to offer its findings more as plausible hypotheses than as proven facts. That said, this section broadly aims to provide more grist for the debate on how best to operationalize the concept of lifelong education within a frame of education for all, where “all” includes unschooled and non-literate adults.

1. **Conditions of effectiveness**—The first observation is obvious and almost banal: examples from all five sub-categories of program signal that, whether a program starts from literacy/numeralcy and includes some livelihood training, or starts with livelihood objectives and includes literacy/numeralcy, it is likely to be successful in both sets of its immediate objectives, if it is well adapted to the interests and conditions of its participants and—equally important—well run. “Quality of the teaching—this was a major factor for the success of a class” (Crapper and others 1996: 79). That said, the cases of ADRA in Uganda and SODEFITEX in Senegal warn that even the best run programs will suffer some inefficiency in terms of irregular attendance and dropout. Further, the longer-run outcomes will not always fulfill all the hopes of the planners and implementers, as shown by the following report on what had been judged a successful project:

From Thailand: “The Local Industrial and Development Center trained 651 villagers in marketing, cost analysis, packaging, export preparation. But the evaluation of 96 graduates found only 27% actually using skills for business, 17% for household purposes, 56% not using the skills at all” (Itty 1991: 48). Consequent with the Thai experience are the findings of the two IIEP studies of 1989 and 1990 in Kenya and Tanzania and the 1999 evaluation in Uganda (Carron et al. 1989, Carr-Hill 1991, Okech et al. 2000). All showed that the knowledge learned by many participants had not changed their attitudes and that even changes in attitude had not necessarily led to changes in behavior. This merely repeats the earlier warning not to place too heavy a burden of expectations on education and training programs.1

2. **Motivation**—The second observation, again almost banal, is that education and training programs for very poor adults would be wise to offer very clear, concrete, and immediate reasons to justify enrollment and ensure perseverance, as the following, very typical quote from Ghana confirms: “We have also seen how important incentives and income generation activities are for both learners, facilitators and the community as a whole to embrace the program” (Adu-Gyamfi et al. 1996). A more recent
experience in Egypt offers further confirmation in its evaluation report: "Many illiterate people do not attend literacy classes because they have work to do. The ALTP (Adult Literacy Training Project) team together with the LWGs (Literacy Working Groups) in the villages linked literacy activities to raising the income of the students. New income-generating projects in the villages help attract more students to literacy and link it to their everyday activities. ALTP recognized that literacy, or lack of literacy, is only a part of people's reality and that the reasons why people have not previously developed literacy skills are a complex interweaving of lack of educational opportunity, lack of exposure, gender, levels of poverty, culture, lack of self-confidence etc. To help develop literacy skills, particularly of those in poorest sectors of society, and particularly women in this group requires more than the establishing of classes and waiting for people to come. It requires an holistic approach to awareness raising and helping people manage the other challenges in their lives" (UKDFID 1999, chapter 8, section 4.1).

3. **Leading from livelihoods**—This observation, which follows reasonably from the second, is that programs that start from livelihood skills seem to stand a stronger chance of success. They can demonstrate an immediate reason for learning. The earlier observations from the western province of Kenya (see Chapter 4, Scope and Methods of the Study) are supported from other countries, as well as from other provinces of Kenya. From Bangladesh: "... interest in literacy by the rural people was almost nil" (BNPS 1997: 30), while Fiedrich (2001) writes of Senegal, "I have only seen one program, a few years back, of Plan International in Thies, Senegal, where vocational training (tailoring for women) was integrated with literacy. My impression from a two day visit was that the literacy training here was accepted as a hoop that women and girls felt they had to jump through so as to get to the real goodies." In harmony with this observation, the present study in Senegal concluded, "Incorporating elements of livelihood training undeniably has the effect of raising the motivation of the learners and ensuring their faithful attendance at the literacy course. It gives a more utilitarian content to the business of training adults." Similarly, the present Kenya study speculates, "Part of the success of the REFLECT circles in Kibwezi is attributable to the support Action Aid Kenya accords the circles for income generating projects. This includes irrigated horticultural production, tree nurseries, goat rearing, poultry keeping and basket weaving. These projects have tended to provide a critical binding action for the groups and their participation in the literacy program is noted to be high. This has also significantly improved the men's participation rate in the literacy centres" (Mwangi 2001). Again, the same study notes that 11 of 15 focus discussion groups linked literacy with starting and managing small businesses and farming. "Literacy would help them keep proper records, calculate profits and use different measures correctly. One group observed that, if learners were taking practical subjects like animal husbandry, book keeping and child care, they would be more motivated to enroll." At the risk of belaboring the point, a final quote from the Kenya study is pertinent: "Fourteen out of 16 dropout respondents said that they would be willing to go back to the literacy class, if such (income-generating) projects were started."

4. **Livelihood leading**—Organizations that are more concerned with livelihoods and other aspects of development seem to be better at designing and delivering effective combinations of livelihoods and literacy than organizations that are more focused on education. FAO, IFAD, and ILO are examples among the multilateral organizations, while for most NGOs, literacy and numeracy are only means to larger ends. As the Guinea study notes, NGO-run projects that integrate development and literacy achieve the most effective, really functional literacy, based as they are on the problems and needs of the target groups. They have all begun by undertaking a socio-economic survey of the
localities where they start work, and they often address organized groups in their localities. This observation implies that policy makers for vocational/livelihood education with literacy should consider operating through agencies, both governmental and non-governmental, that work with people in their actual livelihoods and employment, rather than through centers that purport to train for, but tend to be detached from, “the real world.”

5. **Flexibility**—In all the countries studied, the diversity of possibilities for improving established livelihoods and developing new ones appears so wide as to demand extreme flexibility, imagination, and resourcefulness. NGOs seem to have more flexibility than government agencies to respond to local and changing needs. Developers of national policy for vocational/livelihood education should empirically consider stronger—but not dominating or crippling—alliances with NGOs. At the same time, they should explore forms of government organization that would allow local offices the kind of wide, but accountable, discretion, which would enable them to develop the required flexibility.

Further, two facts suggest that even the private sector might be induced to offer livelihood and literacy training for poor people in certain contexts. First, patterns of apprenticeship exist in a number of African countries, particularly in the west of the continent. If master craftsmen provide training in return for modest fees and labor, they may be open to paid partnerships with literacy instructors. Second, private training institutes are emerging in a range of crafts and skills, as evidenced by the “professionalizing” literacy centers in Guinea. Arrangements could be developed to suit the interests of both instructors and learners. What the specific possibilities might be in operational terms will of course depend on specific localities and cultures.

6. **Derivative literacy** — The experiences of ACOPAM and SODEFITEX, along with a provisional comparison between WEP/N and WEEL in Nepal, hint that deriving literacy/numeracy content from the livelihood skills in view and integrating it with the livelihood training from the very start seem more promising than either running the two components in parallel or using standard literacy materials to prepare people to train for livelihoods. This suggestion does not discount the experiences of the Rukungiri Women, ADRA, Saptagram, RDRS, and the Notre Dame Foundation, which all use literacy primers unrelated to livelihood content; it merely points to a possible further advantage in engaging the learners’ perseverance.

7. **Savings and credit**—Livelihood-plus-literacy/numeracy programs can substantially reinforce their chances of success if they can start from or at least incorporate training in savings, credit, and business management, along with actual access to credit. Although ADRA and SODEFITEX provide the credit, WEP/N, WEEL, and other organizations demonstrate that it can be created among the very poor themselves, without the agency of a micro-finance institution.

8. **Group approaches and negotiation**—Again drawing on the experience of ADRA, ACOPAM, WEP/N, and WEEL, chances of success are also heightened by working with established groups of people who share a common purpose, rather than with individual applicants. In the absence of such groups, it would probably still be better to spend time identifying promising common purposes and to work on forming new purpose-driven groups than to carry out the program with unconnected individuals.

Experience seems to have produced a strengthening consensus that programs that are well negotiated with their prospective learners in association with local authorities and leaders, are likely to be more effective than programs that are simply put on offer. Further, there is a longstanding consensus that teaching methods that encourage activity and interaction between participants and their instructor are more effective than those that leave the instructor with most of the action. However, it is important acknowledge observations that implementing the active methods is often
beyond the competence and inclination of the instructors, and quite often it not to the taste of the learners themselves. Despite such non-modern attitudes and practices, appreciable learning can and often does occur.

9. Vouchers—There are very favorable early evaluations of the initiative by the Somaliland Education Initiative for Girls and Young Men to use vouchers as a means to give very poor people more power to negotiate what they learn and with whom they learn (Tomlinson 2001). That suggests the project merits further observation, particularly regarding its suitability for already established groups.

10. Time on task—The projects examined offer no decisive answer to how much time is needed to enable a person to become permanently or sustainably literate. Recall that the Mahila Samakhya experience (see Animators and hand pump technicians in Chapter 6) found that 180 hours of tuition, even of intensive instruction, led only to fragile literacy skills. ADRA (see Chapter 5) seems to be satisfied with 250 to 300 hours, whereas SODEFITEX arranges for 400 hours (see Chapter 6). To help clarify the issue, Medel-Añonuevo looked at four models of literacy and livelihood programs in Nepal:

- Model 1 offered a 12 month literacy course, followed by a 3-month vocational course and the establishment of a community reading centre.

- Model 2 offered an 18-month course in 3 phases: first, a 9-month basic literacy and numeracy course, then, a 6-month course learning the livelihood skills (the functional phase), and finally, a 3-month course in actually generating and managing income.

- Model 3 offered simply a 6-month basic literacy course, then encouraged its learners to seek livelihood training from other sources.

- Model 4—which was most favoured by practitioners—started with women’s saving and credit groups, encouraged the development of income generating activities, offered a 6-months basic literacy course, followed by either 3 months follow up in both literacy and income generation, or 6 months of more advanced training (1996: 51) The overall perceptions were that six months are insufficient for most men and women to develop satisfactory skills in reading, writing and calculating and that the need to link these skills with some form of income-generation was strong.

A Syrian project went further and concluded, “The 9-month duration of a literacy course is not sufficient to allow learners the mastery of basic literacy skills” (UNDP 1992). Yet a project in Afghanistan found, “Experience has shown that after 9 months of classes meeting 2 hours a day (some 350–400 hours in all) women can be brought to a fourth grade reading level” (USAID 1994).

Ignoring differences of language, alphabets, literateness of environment, and levels of previous or other literacy among the learners, it would seem safe to reckon that the minimum time for developing skills in literacy and numeracy adequate to support livelihood and other development is 360 hours, plus more hours of learning and practice. Beyond that minimum, the duration of courses would depend on the complexity of the livelihood skills to be learned or developed.

11. Cadres of instructors—The broad experience of income-generating projects suggests that arranging for two cadres of instructors, one for livelihoods, the other for literacy, appears to be more prudent than relying on “generalist” literacy instructors to undertake livelihood instruction or income-generating activities in addition to teaching literacy and numeracy. There is no argument about the need to train, support, and re-train the literacy instructors. However, there is weaker consensus about how they should be recompensed for their contributions. Most of the programs reviewed make it clear that most literacy instructors do
not have much schooling themselves, are not in steady or waged employment, and are themselves among the poorer of their societies. Naturally, they appreciate being paid in cash or kind. Most of the programs examined in this paper do offer pay, some at modest, others at more generous levels. Overall, it seems that NGOs are more inclined than governments to offer regular pay, rather than occasional moral or material awards. Some, like FAO’s Farmer Field Schools, follow the principle that “user pays” and expect the participants to negotiate the recompense with their literacy instructors (even though the agricultural instructors are paid employees of the program). A few other programs rely on the literacy instructors being pure volunteers, especially where they are recruited and selected by their own participants from among the local community. Overall, the broader trend appears to treat literacy instructors on a basis similar to livelihood specialists and to remunerate them for their efforts.

12. Costs—Very little information on gross or unit costs was found in the documentation available. However, on the basis of two programs, supplemented by inferences from observation, we believe that the unit costs of the programs we have studied are quite low. The Uganda FAL reckoned a unit cost of US$4–5 per person enrolled. A project in Senegal, supported by Canada, estimated that the cost per enrollee would be approximately CDN$20. However, faulty implementation raised the cost to CDN$45 per enrollee (CIDA 2001: 13). FAO’s People’s Participation Programme had some 13,000 male and female participants in 12 countries. The average cost per participant was estimated in 1989 to be US$63 (FAO 1990: 36). All that can be observed here is that even the highest estimate does not appear inordinate.

That said, policy makers in vocational/technical education need to bear in mind that, just as voc/tech education in schools and colleges is always more costly than general education, so analogous education for adults in villages and shanty-towns will unavoidably be more costly than simple literacy programs. In the cases of SODEFITEEX, WEEL and WEP/N which combine livelihood skills and the three Rs with training in savings, credit, and business management and development, considerably more is involved than simple literacy. In turn, teaching these skills will call for cadres of well-trained specialists, who will without doubt expect commensurate payment. Further, supporting them, as well as holding them to account—without necessarily employing them on a permanent basis—will require a soundly devised administrative structure.

13. Elements of cost—Although no specific suggestions are possible here, it may be helpful simply to supply a non-exhaustive list of program costs, without specifying how they are to be apportioned:

Learners: learning materials, learning supports like space, lighting, heating.

Instructors for schools and for savings, credit, business management and business development (on the assumption that they already have expertise in these subjects): remuneration, travel, subsistence, instructional materials, initial training as instructors, refresher training.

Instructors, facilitators for literacy/numeracy and also for rights, responsibilities, civic, health and other topics in demand: remuneration, initial training, instructional and recording materials, refresher training.

Specialists for identifying new business opportunities (on the assumption they already have the expertise): remuneration, travel, subsistence.

Trainers/technical supporters (whether community-based, contracted or public personnel): remuneration, training, (initial and refresher), travel, subsistence.

Supporting administrative infrastructure (for production, storage, distribution, travel, payments).

Supporting infrastructure for monitoring (plus quality assurance in learning, attainments, application).
14. **Financial Sustainability**—Given that the potential clientele for livelihood-with-literacy/numeracy programs is currently large and likely to remain large for a long time, and given the perspective of continuous, life-long education, the issues of cost require consideration of financial sustainability. Here, the policy maker needs to bear in mind that, even at fee-exacting universities, few, if any, students, however affluent, meet the full cost of their education. Tuition fees usually cover only a proportion of the full costs of tuition. Since programs that include basic literacy and numeracy always have as their major clients people who are among the poorest of the poor, they will require proportionately more substantial subsidies from external sources, whether public or private. This will hold true whatever the measures to minimize dependency and expectations of free handouts, and whatever the measures gradually to reduce subsidies and move to higher proportions of local self-finance.

However, the poor are not homogeneous. They can range from the destitute, who need a total subsidy, to those like the women of Rukungiri and participants in some of the Farmer Field Schools, who may be just above the poverty line but still able to contribute to the costs of their education. Further, the cases of WEEL and WEP/N suggest that groups of even very poor women can in a relatively short time mobilize their own savings and begin to pay for what they want. Thus, the proportion of subsidy could in principle vary from group to group, and, for particular groups, from time to time. Operating with such sensitivity and flexibility could well be beyond the capacity of a single central authority. However, decentralized approaches that set minimum standards but permit local adjustments to accommodate local conditions, communities, or groups could be feasible.

It is also true that the countries whose people could benefit most from livelihood with literacy/numeracy education are among the poorest and least able to provide subsidies from local sources, whether public or private. The cases considered earlier have shown that, even where local public and private resources have combined and been amplified by international official and non-governmental development assistance, they have still been insufficient to cover more than a small proportion of the potential clientele. On the other hand, the cases from Bangladesh, Guinea, India, Nepal, the Philippines, Senegal, and Uganda suggest that NGOs, both local and international, can and do sustain themselves and their programs over long periods, apparently at least to the sufficient satisfaction of their supporters.

If the government of a poor, indebted country, in alliance with nongovernmental and community organizations, and people of good will and energy, aimed to make livelihood-with-literacy/numeracy education available to substantially larger proportions of poor people and to maintain long-term financial sustainability, it would need to take three steps. First, in addition to fiscal allocations, it would need to develop a mechanism to mobilize local voluntary contributions to a special fund or even network of funds (village or community). Second, it would need to form large-scale and long-term consortiums with international donors, both official and nongovernmental. Third, the government would need to persuade international lenders, like the World Bank, its regional counterpart, the Islamic Development Bank, and the International Fund for Agricultural Development that investments in livelihood-with-literacy/numeracy education would, in time, both reduce poverty and strengthen its ability to repay its debts.

15. **Going to Scale**—Normally, vocational and technical education policies are not associated with programs of mass education. Yet the numbers of very poor people working in livelihoods that could be made more productive, force the question whether education in livelihood-with-literacy/numeracy can be conceived in mass terms. Clearly, the cases of SODEFITEX, WEEL, and WEP/N reflect the recognition that larger scale programs are necessary and that strategies to achieve larger scales need to be devised. SODEFITEX chose an analogue to “point-line-net-
work,” whereby it started with educating just a few members per cooperative, then one member per farming family, then gradually included more and more people. WEEL and WEP/N selected a strategy of working through more and more local organizations to reach more and more groups of women. In five to six years, they reached and helped respectively 10,000 and 130,000 very poor people. For projects that have harnessed the teamwork of only small NGOs, these scales and the time-scale within which they were achieved, command respect.

In all three cases, the initiative was taken very carefully and gradually by a relatively small agency at a very local level. Yet the strategy of gradualism has not demanded an inordinate amount of time to attain a significant scale. These features point once again to the desirability of decentralized approaches that permit local organizations, whether public or private, to assess the pace and manner at which expansion can be soundly undertaken.

An additional factor counseling decentralization and gradualism is the complexity of the package needed to support livelihood-with-literacy/numeracy education. Developing the depth of capacity to support widespread instruction in a large range of livelihoods in a variety of environments, plus the necessary skills of fostering savings, credit, business management, and business development, requires not only time, but also careful amassing of local knowledge.

Finally, the findings of the PADLOS study of decentralization (Easton 1998) would counsel that assessing when to go to scale in a particular locality must take into account local infrastructure, natural and other resources, norms, and institutions.

1. It may be salutary here to recall that schools, universities, and open universities also fall short of total efficiency.
2. This observation does not deny the attested fact that many adults learn to read and write for the simple satisfaction of being able to do so, while others learn for religious reasons quite unconnected with considerations of material gain or betterment. However, these motivations on their own have not been sufficient to engage the majority of illiterate adults.
3. These activities have a history stretching back to the community development days of the 1950s.
4. This point concords with Mikulecky & Lloyd’s observations in Canada that people with relatively low levels of schooling tend not to transfer literacy skills spontaneously from one domain to another (Mikulecky & Lloyd 1993).
Conclusions and recommendations

This chapter attempts first to use the programs reviewed to suggest pointers for policy and practice in vocational/livelihood education for unschooled adults and adolescents in the countries of Sub-74 Africa. More broadly, it aims to inform thinking and discussion elsewhere on how best to implement the concept of lifelong education within a framework of education for all, where “all” includes unschooled and non-literate adult women and men in both rural and urban areas and in both waged and self-employment in both monetized and subsistence sectors of an economy. The nature and quality of the documentation and other information available limit the force of the pointers and suggestions.

Overall, the evidence suggests that it would be worthwhile for vocational or livelihood education policy makers to develop policies that offered livelihood training to non-literate, very poor adults, especially women, who are unable to access knowledge and skills that might relieve their poverty.

Enabling environments—Knowledge and skills by themselves cannot guarantee a decent livelihood. As UNDP/UNESCO, 1976, and the IIED evaluations of the literacy programs of Kenya and Tanzania in 1989 and 1990 suggested, the economic environment must be supportive. Indeed, even more demanding, Easton (1998) suggests that local norms, broader institutional factors, local resource endowments, infrastructure, and sources of finance all need to be favorable before education and training can be fully fruitful. Easton’s view is supported by the approaches of ADRA in Uganda, SODEFITEX in Senegal, SEIGYM in Somaliland, and WEP and WEEL in Nepal, which have all found it necessary to include institutional development as a constituent of their programs.

If these organizations, most of them in Africa, have found it possible to design and implement packages of livelihood training, literacy instruction, and institutional development, vocational education policy should be able to do the same. Further, while most of these organizations have needed to adopt relatively short-term perspectives for any given locality, national policy should be able to take the longer view of SODEFITEX and plan in terms of decades rather than three to five years.

The first recommendation then is that vocational education policy should assess what would be needed in particular localities to ensure an environment that would enable training in particular livelihoods actually to result in higher productivity, incomes, and well being.

Strategy for diversity—The livelihoods and sets of livelihoods that the very poor undertake are notably diverse. So are the environments in which they work. So, too, are the possibilities of enhancing those livelihoods and developing new ones. Managing these diversities calls for flexibility, imagina-
tion, and resourcefulness, and for institutions that can respond appropriately. It points ideally to a strategy that will:

- allow for considerable decentralization and delegation;
- first follow existing demand, then seek out latent possibilities of new links with the mainstream economy, from which could arise new demands;
- foster flexibility and mobility;
- rely on and nurture freelance specialists in business and livelihood development;
- operate through institutions and procedures of complete transparency and public accountability.

Such a strategy will avoid reliance on packages of standard curricula in fixed training centers with fixed equipment and permanent corps of specialists.

**Capacities**—High quality analysis, design, implementation and support are required. “To be avoided is a weak response in the form of low levels of analysis and design, and inadequate supervision” (Middleton & Demsky 1989: 101). Ballara shows the complexity of what is required: “Certain precautions should be taken when income-generating activities are included in literacy programs. Results obtained during the 1980s show that these activities have to be treated as enterprises related to the requirements of mainstream economic production, offering continuity and remuneration to the participants. To avoid becoming involved in poorly-rewarded activities, literacy programs incorporating an income-generating activity should begin with a study of market needs; they should prepare women in non-traditional sectors and for future entry into the formal sector, rather than be directed towards traditional low-level skills which barely supplement home income and which finally becomes a type of welfare” (Ballara 1991: 47).

A strategy of decentralization and delegation must presuppose the capacity to diagnose current needs, detect future opportunities, and design and deliver high-quality training. Where such capacity cannot be assumed, capacity-building strategies with appropriate incentives and inducements must be developed. As the present study attests, in a large number of countries, the voluntary and non-profit sectors at international, national, and local levels have responded well to incentives and capitalized on opportunities to deepen and expand their capacities. It is possible, too, that private, profit-making vocational education specialists—already detected in the Guinea study—may see opportunities to help themselves as well as the poor. At the same time, experience in several countries suggests that, where these sectors are weak, gradualist strategies to increase their capacities would be prudent.

If public resources are to be used to promote the decentralization and delegation, supervisory mechanisms are needed to ensure that they are properly applied and that the intended beneficiaries do indeed enjoy a proper quality of instruction. One increasingly well known model for such mechanisms is the “Faire-faire” strategy of Senegal (Diagne & Sall 2001). Of course, the supervisory mechanism should be so designed that it does not actually obstruct, rather than promote, the decentralization.

**The second recommendation is that vocational education policy should pursue a strategy of decentralization and capacity-nurturing that will permit resourceful responses to local actual and potential patterns of livelihood.**

**Savings, credit and content**—As for actual courses of vocational education, this review suggests three pointers. First, because the learners are very poor, the approaches of ADRA, SODEFITEK, WEEL, Saptagram, and WEP/N indicate that immediate connections and access to sources of credit should be a component of every livelihood training program, without necessarily involving a special microfinance institution. SODEFITEK, WEP/N, WEEL, Saptagram, and other programs supply models for encouraging savings as a means to create the resources for credit for business development and ensuring discipline in repayments. Special microfinance institutions are not essential. However, in such situations, the expertise for helping groups mobilize savings and manage them through lending and recovery needs to be very reliable.
Second, there is consensus that the actual content of a livelihood-with-literacy/numeracy course should be the result of a local survey and negotiations with the prospective participants. At the same time, current demand in a locality should form only the initiating basis for training in livelihoods. Opportunities for new livelihoods and businesses, especially those that would help people move into the economic mainstream, would need to be sought and demands stimulated for training to undertake them. In connection with this point, to strengthen the negotiating hand of would-be participants and to encourage accountability among instructors, the idea of vouchers, as used by the Somaliland Education Initiative for Girls and Young Men, merits observation and exploration.

Third, the literacy/numeracy component should, in the initial stages of the training, be subordinated to the language and idioms of the livelihood and business skills, in the manner that WEP/N has selected. As educators in Melanesia have shown (ASPBae 2000a), and as the REFLECT approach has pioneered, instructional materials can be readily fashioned for particular languages, idioms and localities. This recommendation does not of course imply that the literacy/numeracy component should be restricted throughout the course to the discourse of the livelihoods in question; that would undermine the wider uses of the skills in other dimensions of daily life (recall Mikulecky's observations that spontaneous transference did not occur). A report on a current project in Egypt notes, "Women attending groups and classes which treated them as whole persons reported major changes in their lives: skill development, greater income-generating opportunities and confidence development" (UK DFID 1999: para 8.4.5).

Our recommendation does, however, urge that the experiences of ACOPAM, SODEFITEX, and WEP/N be used as capital to construct more effective programs.

The third recommendation is that vocational education policy should provide for courses that combine savings and credit training with negotiated livelihood content and literacy/numeracy content derived from, but not limited to, the vocabulary of the livelihood.

**Time on task**—One of the most common observations in adult education, particularly in programs for very poor women, is the difficulty of maintaining regular attendance and of sustaining attendance over long periods. Against this is the need for adequate "time on task" in both the livelihood and the literacy/numeracy components. As noted earlier, although there is no firmly settled opinion on the minimum time needed on average to attain "sustainable" or permanent literacy and numeracy, a safe minimum would be 360 hours of learning and practice. To that minimum has to be added the time needed to teach the required livelihood and business skills.

Most literacy and livelihood programs now strive to negotiate their class times with their participants to minimize inconvenience and opportunity costs. Even so, if the daily commitments of the participants made a single stretch of time difficult, then the phased or modular approach used by WEP/N and WEEL (as well as the ILO's use of Modules of Employable Skills for more than 20 years) might be used to encourage attendance and perseverance. Nonetheless, the SODEFITEX experience suggests that this could be a second-best solution. Further, because many participants, however well intentioned, do miss sessions and attend irregularly, a margin of as much as 20 percent might be worth adding to the duration of a course. That would allow such participants some room to catch up, while affording the more regular some more space for practice and reinforcement.

The fourth recommendation is twofold. First, to ensure that the "average" adult learner masters literacy and numeracy sufficiently well to use them in support and development of a livelihood, the literacy component of a livelihood course should offer at least 360 hours of instruction and practice (the livelihood and business components will of course require additional appropriate time). Second, to help optimize perseverance, completion, and retention of learning, the course should be offered in a single session or term, if at all practicable.

**Instructors**—The effectiveness of a course will stand or fall by its instructors. The experiences discussed in this study counsel against having the lay
people who serve as literacy instructors to be livelihood instructors or organizers of income-generating activities as well. Lay people who are sufficiently literate can be trained to be effective literacy instructors. However, appropriate specialists seem to be the best people to handle instruction in livelihoods or income-generation. It is of course possible to train livelihood specialists to teach literacy as well. Indeed, the Experimental World Literacy Programme suggested that such people seemed to teach literacy and numeracy more effectively than school teachers. Where such a combination of skills is feasible, it could be worth fostering.

All the programs reviewed place much importance on not only training their literacy instructors but also supporting them closely and continuously, as well as offering them periodic refresher training. In this, they echo the Critical Assessment of the Experimental World Literacy Programme: "... a consensus seems to have emerged from EWLP concerning the need to give great stress to in-service as well as pre-service training of instructors" (UNDP/UNESCO 1976: 135).

As for remunerating instructors, it would seem prudent to follow the majority trend of paying both livelihood specialists and literacy instructors. Where literacy instructors are paid, either by their participants or by the agency organizing the program, they tend to be more accountable, reliable, and regular. This may be one reason why most NGOs choose to offer a salary or honorarium, rather than appeal for voluntary effort.

The fifth recommendation is again twofold. First, vocational education policy should provide for two cadres of instructors: livelihood instructors and literacy instructors. While neither should be a permanent cadre, their patterns of recruitment, training, and support can differ from each other. Second, both cadres should be remunerated for the instruction they give.

Instructional methods—The consensus on teaching methods is that approaches that promote activity and interaction are likely to be most effective, however hard these approaches are to put into practice with instructors who have themselves had only limited traditional schooling. Easton writes, "Observation at the forty sites strongly suggests that teaching literacy and becoming literate in one's own language or a familiar tongue, and acquiring new knowledge on this basis, are not terribly difficult provided the application of the new knowledge is clear, and the pedagogy progressive and participatory" (1998: xxiii).

The sixth recommendation is that vocational education policy for non-literate poor adults should promote active, participatory, and interactive forms of instruction and learning in both livelihood and literacy components of training.

Finance—This study is not in a position to offer any estimates of the financial resources needed (see Chapter 7, subhead "Conditions of effectiveness—Costs" for a brief discussion).

The seventh recommendation is merely that vocational education policy makers support further research on the issue of costs.

Financial sustainability—As education in livelihoods and literacy is likely to require long-term programs, financial sustainability is a necessity. Although poor people, poor countries, and poor governments will probably be able to meet at least part of the longer-term costs on their own, they are unlikely to be able to shoulder all of them and will need external assistance.

The eighth recommendation is that countries form local alliances of government, non-governmental and community agencies, and energetic people of good will to (a) raise local fiscal and voluntary finance, (b) form appropriate consortiums with external donors and (c) attract resources from international lenders.

Mass scale—The numbers of people who could benefit from education in livelihoods and literacy are sufficient to warrant large-scale programs. However, the complex nature of such programs and the requirement that they adopt local rather than general focuses counsel slower rather than rapid dissemination. The experiences cited suggest that slower dissemination need not involve inordinately long periods.
The ninth recommendation is that strategies of capacity-building, decentralization and gradualism govern the process of going to scale, with due attention to local infrastructure, natural and other resources, norms, and institutions.

*Capitalizing on knowledge*—The final recommendation derives from the experiences of ACOPAM (ILO), ADRA, the Farmers Field Schools (FAO, CARE, World Education), and the programs supported by IFAD.

The tenth recommendation is that any review of vocational educational policy should exert itself to identify, locate, and capitalize on the empirical experience and expertise that those organizations and others like them must have accumulated in their work in Sub-Saharan Africa and elsewhere; and make it more readily accessible than this study has found it.

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1. The *faire faire* strategy, supported by the World Bank, is not discussed in this paper, as the Senegal study found that it was not yet linked to either livelihood training or to income-generating activities.
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Annex 1

Persons Thanked

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### Annex 2

### Cases from Guinea

Abdoul Hamid Diallo

*(Original French Version)*

#### Sigles et acronymes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>English Translation</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACT</td>
<td>Association de Coopération Technique</td>
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<tr>
<td>AEC</td>
<td>Association d'éducateurs communautaires</td>
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<tr>
<td>AFV</td>
<td>Association Financière Villageoise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGAKFEM</td>
<td>Association Guinéenne pour l'Allègement des Charges Féminines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASF</td>
<td>Association de Services Financiers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAOPA</td>
<td>Centre d’Appui aux Organisations Professionnelles Agricoles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CECI</td>
<td>Centre Canadien d'études et de Coopération</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CENAFOD</td>
<td>Centre Africain de Formation pour le Développement</td>
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<tr>
<td>CONEBAT</td>
<td>Commission Nationale pour l'éducation de base pour tous</td>
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<tr>
<td>CVEP</td>
<td>Comité Villageois d'Entretien des Pistes</td>
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<tr>
<td>DPA</td>
<td>Direction Préfectorale de l'alphabetisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>DPE</td>
<td>Direction Préfectorale de l'Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>DRA</td>
<td>Direction Régionale de l'alphabetisation</td>
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<td>Direction Régionale de l'Education</td>
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<td>Éducation pour tous</td>
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<tr>
<td>EBA</td>
<td>Education de Base des Adultes</td>
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<td>EUPD</td>
<td>Entraide Universitaire Pour le Développement</td>
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<tr>
<td>FAC</td>
<td>Fonds d'Aide et de Coopération Française</td>
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<td>FIDA</td>
<td>Fonds International de Développement Agricole</td>
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<td>FIDIA</td>
<td>Fonds Européen de Développement</td>
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<td>GEV</td>
<td>Groupement d'éducateurs villageois</td>
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<td>MAEF</td>
<td>Ministère de l'Agriculture, des Eaux et Forêts</td>
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<tr>
<td>MEPU-EC</td>
<td>Ministère de l'enseignement pré-universitaire et de l'éducation civique</td>
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<td>NAFA</td>
<td>Ecole de la deuxième chance</td>
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<td>ONG</td>
<td>Organisation Non Gouvernementale</td>
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<td>OCED</td>
<td>Organisation canadienne pour l'éducation au service du développement</td>
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<td>PAPE-BGN</td>
<td>Projet d’Appui aux Petits Exploitants en Basse Guinée Nord</td>
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<td>PDL</td>
<td>Plan de Développement Local</td>
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<tr>
<td>SCIO</td>
<td>Service de Coordination des Interventions des ONG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TDR</td>
<td>Termes de référence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>Organisation des Nations Unies pour l'Enfance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VSF</td>
<td>Vétérinaires sans frontière</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Introduction

En République de Guinée, il convient de dissocier au niveau des politiques, l’alphabétisation de l’éducation des adultes général. En effet, l’alphabétisation est sous la responsabilité du Service National (SNA), lequel est rattaché au Ministère de l’enseignement pré-universitaire, tandis que l’éducation des adultes est sous la responsabilité du SCIO (Service de Coordination des interventions des ONG), lequel est rattaché au Ministère de l’Intérieur et de la Décentralisation.

La formation professionnelle, elle, est dispensée à deux niveaux : (i) les centres nationaux de formation professionnelle qui sont rattachés au Ministère de l’enseignement technique et professionnel (ii) la formation professionnelle non formelle, réalisée par les ONG de la place dans des domaines divers (agriculture, cueillette, artisanat etc.).

Le ministère de l’enseignement technique et professionnel gère actuellement plusieurs centres où des élèves et étudiants de niveau Baccalauréat et plus, reçoivent des formations diplômantes conduisant à diverses professions (agriculture, Génie civil, mécanique, artisanat etc.). Le niveau est si élevé que l’apprentissage d’une langue locale n’est absolument pas nécessaire, aux dires même des étudiants.

Sur le terrain, ce sont plutôt les ONG, les agences d’appui au développement et quelques fois le SNA qui interviennent aussi bien dans le cadre de l’alphabétisation que dans les formations intégrant l’alphabétisation comme base nécessaire aux apprentissages visant l’amélioration des compétences et des moyens d’existence, pour les personnes peu lettrées voire analphabètes, surtout en milieu rural.

Si pour l’alphabétisation, le sujet est précis et peut être cerné par le SNA (en définissant une politique et des stratégies en la matière), pour la formation des adultes d’une manière générale, étant donné la multiplicité des domaines d’action et la diversité des publics cibles, il n’existe pas de politique précise d’intervention. Chaque Département ministériel tente de définir sa propre politique, et d’en informer les intervenants dans le secteur. C’est pour cela que les ONG s’organisent de leur côté pour mettre en place des réseaux. Exemples : Réseau des ONG de lutte contre le SIDA (Ministère de la Santé), le Forum des ONG (Ministère de la décentralisation), etc.

Dans tous les cas on note qu’il y a :

a. Utilisation des programmes d’alphabétisation pour améliorer les moyens de subsistance des apprenants ; ou

b. Exploitation des programmes de formation professionnelle pour y intégrer des éléments pertinents de lecture, d’écriture et de calcul.

La présente étude tente de répondre aux questions suivantes :

a. Quelles sont les expériences capitalisées en la matière ?

b. L’intégration de cette double approche pourra-t-elle accroître l’efficacité des programmes (d’alphabétisation et aussi de formation) fidéraliser les apprenants et améliorer leurs réalisations ?

c. Pourra-t-elle également promouvoir l’usage des compétences apprises et avoir plus d’effets et un meilleur impact ?

En ce qui concerne l’étude, contrairement aux prévisions initiales (basées essentiellement sur une étude documentaire), nous avons fait une brève recherche et des enquêtes sur ces questions. Ce sont les bénéficiaires des actions qui ont alimenté notre étude plus que les contenus des documents trouvés. En effet, comme déjà annoncé, ceux-ci sont en très petit nombre et de plus tous ne traitent que partiellement le sujet.

Dans les chapitres qui suivent, nous présenterons successivement : (i) un résumé de l’étude, issu des informations recueillies, (ii) ces informations elles-mêmes et (iii) les principales conclusions et recommandations.

Résumé de l’étude

En République de Guinée, compte tenu de l’histoire du pays et notamment du contexte éducatif, il y a eu
peu de capitalisation. Il n’y a donc guère de documentation sur le sujet malgré son intérêt et sa pertinence.

D’autre part, les deux approches selon lesquelles l’étude devait être menée ne sont pas dissociées en Guinée. En effet, la presque totalité des ONG de Guinée travaillent sur le terrain dans l’apprentissage de compétences visant les moyens de subsistance et l’amélioration des conditions de vie. Aucune d’entre elles ne travaille dans l’option « Environnement lettré ». Toutes font donc de l’alphabétisation ponctuelle ou semi-permanente lorsque celle-ci s’avère indispensable pour dépasser une situation difficile dans le cadre d’un projet précis. Exemples (i) les groupements de coton sont alphabétisés puis formés tout simplement pour assurer eux-mêmes la commercialisation du coton en étant sûrs de n’avoir pas été trompés (ii) les groupements maraîchers sont formés pour tenir les outils de gestion de leur exploitation, et ainsi améliorer leur productivité et accroître leurs revenus, etc.

Cela veut dire qu’en Guinée, dans la pratique actuelle, les deux approches (de l’alphabétisation au sens strict ou formations intégrant l’alphabétisation comme base de l’amélioration des compétences et de l’accroissement des moyens d’existence) sont jumelées et menées par les mêmes intervenants.

Pour cette dernière raison le rapport n’a pas traité séparément les deux approches du fait de leur incorporation, aussi bien dans la conception des projets que dans la pratique des ONG et même du SNA dans les centres communautaires, les centres NAFA et les centres d’alphabétisation professionnalisante.

A partir des cas étudiés et des quelques documents exploités, nous pouvons formuler les recommandations suivantes :

1. **Concernant les stratégies**, il est important pour la Guinée de poursuivre, comme le prévoit la nouvelle stratégie, (i) de créer un environnement lettré, fournir un appui aux écoles communautaires et à la scolarisation et, (ii) l’appui à l’alphabétisation professionnalisante et soutenir les activités des apprenants à travers les cinq volets suivants, prévus dans le projet EPT1.

- **Projet 1**
  Alphabetisation des femmes et des jeunes dans les centres de formation et d'apprentissage, dans les groupements féminins, etc., dans les zones rurales, péri-urbaines et urbaines ;

- **Projet 2**
  Alphabetisation des jeunes apprentis des différents corps de métier (mécanique, électricité, électricité du bâtiment, etc.) et des artisans (forgerons, cordonniers, etc.) ;

- **Projet 3**
  Alphabetisation des jeunes filles-mères et jeunes garçons en situations difficiles (jeunes victimes de la petite délinquance) ;

- **Projet 4**
  Alphabetisation des élus locaux des collectivités de base et des leaders d’opinions ;

- **Projet 5**
  Alphabetisation des adultes (hommes, femmes) de la tranche d’âge de 15 à 49 ans dans les secteurs de production (agriculture, élevage, pêche, etc.) dans les groupements, les pré-cooperatives et coopératives et autres associations.

2. **En ce qui concerne le projet EPT1**, nous recommandons de limiter les fonctions du SNA aux activités listées ci-dessous et de le doter des moyens adéquats qui lui sont nécessaires pour les conduire de façon satisfaisante :

- La conception et l’élaboration de la politique nationale d’alphabétisation et du suivi de sa mise en œuvre ;

- L’élaboration des méthodes, des stratégies et des programmes d’alphabétisation des différents groupes concernés ;

- La conception et l’élaboration du matériel d’alphabétisation et de post-alphabetisation, son expérimentation et son évaluation ;
1. Le suivi, le soutien et l’évaluation des activités d’alphabétisation.

2. Concernant les structures institutionnelles et organisationnelles, nous recommandons que la Guinée s’inspire largement de l’exemple du Sénégal, à cette différence près qu’on devrait insister sur la privatisation de l’opérateur et à la mise en place de coordinations à divers niveaux : (i) entre les opérateurs et (ii) le SNA. C’est pourquoi, de l’avis de l’ensemble des partenaires techniques rencontrés sur le terrain ainsi que des professionnels de l’éducation des adultes dans le pays, un opérateur aurait un rôle très important à jouer notamment dans les domaines suivants : assurer harmonisation et coordination, constituer une plate forme d’échanges, apporter une assistance technique et une aide à la gestion dans le cadre du projet EPTI. Un tel dispositif permettrait à la Guinée de relever le défi de l’illétrisme. Pour cela, il faudra choisir : (i) une institution qui jouisse d’une expérience confirmée et d’une efficacité certaine dans le domaine de l’éducation des adultes en général et de l’alphabétisation en particulier ; (ii) il conviendra en outre qu’elle bénéficie de la confiance de toutes les autorités techniques et administratives du domaine ainsi que des ONG de la place et (iii) elle devra enfin être capable d’instaurer la rigueur nécessaire pour « limiter les dégâts généralement observés en Afrique dans le cadre de la gestion des programmes » et servir de contre poids en faveur des opérateurs (ONG) et des bénéficiaires.

3. Concernant les opérateurs, on note aujourd’hui des insuffisances notamment en ce qui concerne à la post alphabétisation et à l’élaboration de stratégies cohérentes dans un processus d’auto-promotion. Pour cela, nous recommandons fortement de tout faire pour accroître les compétences des opérateurs... ne serait-ce qu’au moyen de voyages d’étude et d’échanges, par exemple.

4. Concernant cette approche d’auto-promotion, elle doit obéir aux principes suivants :

5. Concernant cette approche d’auto-promotion, elle doit obéir aux principes suivants :

6. Pour y parvenir, les étapes suivantes sont nécessaires :

7. Par ailleurs et d’une manière générale, les conclusions de notre recherche rejoignent et nous nous en félicitons, les recommandations de Jon Lauglo réa-
lisée à la demande de la Banque Mondiale, dans son étude « Inclure les adultes » ainsi que celles de l’étude PADLOS. Dans tous les cas, l’approche méthodologique recommandée est que le groupe cible soit à la fois demandeur, acteur et bénéficiaire. Pour cela sa demande doit être identifiée, analysée ou suscitée selon les cas.

8. Concernant les différents acteurs institutionnels, à titre personnel, nous recommandons que les relations institutionnelles suivantes s’inscrivent dans la réalité :

- L’État, à travers l’administration, devient véritablement garant du financement extérieur et en même temps assure sur le budget national, le financement correct du secteur.

- Du côté du pouvoir législatif, l’assemblée nationale, se préoccupe de la problématique de l’analphabétisme dans le pays et œuvre à voter des lois et élaborer des politiques nationales en faveur de la lutte contre ce fléau.

- Le secteur privé de son côté contribue au financement du secteur, car grâce à l’alphabétisation fonctionnelle, il pourra se développer davantage. Il s’agit de trouver un mécanisme de motivation et de financement pour atteindre cet objectif.

- Les ONG quant à elles, qui représentent la pièce maîtresse pour mener une lutte efficace contre l’analphabétisme dans le pays, elles exercent mieux leur rôle de catalyseur dans la mobilisation des financements extérieurs.

- Les projets de développement qui permettent d’intégrer aisément le volet alphabétisation dans les projets d’assistance (agriculture, Elevage, pêche…) intensifient cette activité.

- Quant aux Institutions de financement, elles devront plus que jamais encourager cette activité dans toutes leurs interventions. Les structures d’accueil par exemple méritent une attention particulière pour leur équipement, leur entretien et le fonctionnement.

Contexte et données recueillies

Contextes et attitude des communautés

1. Contexte économique


2. Contexte social (santé/nutrition)

Avec une population de 6.476.400 habitants en 1995 et un taux de croissance démographique annuel élevé (2,8 %), la Guinée reste l’un des pays africains dont les performances sont manifestement médiocres. Ceci est reflété par le faible niveau de l’espérance de vie (50,6 ans en moyenne, 52 ans pour les femmes et 49 pour les hommes), l’importance de la mortalité infantile (223 pour mille chez les enfants de moins de 5 ans), autant d’indicateurs qui, combinés avec un taux élevé d’analphabétisme, reflètent le bas niveau des conditions de vie.

3. Contexte linguistique

La Guinée est un état plurilingue, les langues recensées sont les suivantes : pular, soso, maninka, kissi, toma, guerzé, baga, landouma, mani, sarakole, djalonké, kono, mano, mini, kpéléwoo, lomagoi. Les 6 premières langues sont dominantes.

4. Contexte éducatif

Le Gouvernement de la République de Guinée, persuadé que la scolarisation de base conditionne tout apprentissage ultérieur, s’est engagé dans un processus de réorganisation de son système éduca-
tif, fondé sur la Déclaration de politique éducative adoptée le 19 septembre 1989 et confirmée en 1990, dans le cadre des recommandations de la conférence de Jomtien, par l’adoption d’un plan d’action à long terme d’éducation de base pour tous (1991–1999), avec pour objectifs :

- l’accroissement du taux de scolarisation de 28 % en 1989 à 53 % en l’an 2000 ;
- l’abaissement du taux d’analphabétisme de 74 % à 37 % ;
- la recherche de l’équité dans l’accès à l’éducation ;
- la réduction des disparités entre les zones et entre les sexes ;
- le renforcement des capacités de pilotage et de gestion du système éducatif, entre autres priorités...

Voici quelques chiffres extraits du dernier avant-projet Education pour tous (EPT1), actuellement en négociation avec la Banque Mondiale :

- Le nombre actuel d’écoles offrant un cycle complet est faible pour deux raisons conjuguées ; (i) la taille, en moyenne assez petite, des écoles et (ii) le faible nombre de classes multigrades. Des efforts importants ont été faits pour : d’un part accroître le nombre des écoles à 6 salles de classe et plus — principalement en zone urbaine puisque celui-ci est passé de 25 % à 30 % au cours des 4 dernières années, et, d’autre part, concentrer les écoles de moins de 6 classes vers un modèle à 3 classes — devant permettre un enseignement multigrade couvrant les 6 niveaux — dont la proportion est passée dans la même période de 24 % à 27 % tandis que le pourcentage d’écoles à 1 et 2 salles de classe diminuait de 39 % à 30 %. Cependant, 60 % des écoles du pays ont encore en 1999-2000, un nombre de salles de classe inférieur ou égal à 3.

- Le taux de scolarisation varie selon la localité et le sexe. Il était de 46 % en 1995 (mais seulement 28,75 % pour les filles) avec des disparités importantes entre le milieu rural (22 %) et le milieu urbain (58 %). Les disparités entre filles (30 %) et garçons (60 %) restent encore notables, même si les efforts en faveur de la scolarisation des filles ont permis de doubler leur taux de scolarisation entre 1989/1990 et 1994/1995 (c’est dans la capitale que ce taux est le plus élevé avec 60 %). Cependant, l’évolution qualitative n’a pas suivi l’évolution quantitative, la qualité de l’enseignement reste médiocre, ne répondant ni aux besoins collectifs ni aux besoins individuels. Le taux d’abandon dans le cycle primaire était de 3,7 % en 1993–1994 (12,10 % pour les filles).

- Le taux de redoublement était pour la même année, de 20,30 % (32,1 % pour les filles). L’effectif des classes est en moyenne de 50 élèves au niveau primaire, avec des disparités importantes entre les zones rurales et les zones urbaines et des effectifs pléthoriques dans ces dernières, atteignant fréquemment 100 élèves par classe dans la capitale.

- Quant au taux d’analphabétisme, son estimation est passée de 72 % en 1990 à 67 % en 1995 (81 % chez les femmes et 56 % chez les hommes). Concernant la répartition par régions, ce sont la Moyenne Guinée et la Haute Guinée qui atteignent les taux les plus élevés, pour les hommes comme pour les femmes.

Études de cas


Brève présentation du projet d’appui aux petits exploitants en Basse Guinée Nord (PAPE-BGN)

Désireux de promouvoir le développement rural notamment par un appui aux organisations de base ainsi qu’à leurs initiatives locales de développe-
ment, et en privilégiant les populations les plus démunies, le Gouvernement Guinéen a mis en place un Projet d’Appui aux Petits Exploitants en Basse Guinée Nord.

Ce Projet a pour objectifs l’augmentation de la production agricole, spécialement celle du riz, l’amélioration de la sécurité alimentaire et des conditions de vie de la population bénéficiaire, le développement des infrastructures rurales et le renforcement des institutions de base.

Le projet vise plus particulièrement une augmentation des revenus et la protection de l’environnement. Pour cela, le projet se propose dans sa composante « Appui aux Institutions de Basse Guinée Nord » de :

- Promouvoir des organisations paysannes solides, capables d’encourager l’auto-développement en milieu rural ;

- Recycler et/ou former les animateurs et cadres du projet, chargés d’appuyer les collectivités et associations de producteurs ;

- Renforcer les collectivités locales par la formation des responsables de districts, de Collectivités Rurales de Développement (CRD) et de Communes Urbaines (CU) ;

- Informer et sensibiliser les populations en vue de leur plus grande participation au développement de leurs localités et en particulier, de leur meilleure compréhension de la politique de décentralisation, une de leur participation accrue à la réalisation d’infrastructures communautaires et leur appropriation de celles-ci en vue d’une gestion saine et durable.

**Intérêt du programme d’alphabétisation**
Comme chacun sait, il n’y a pas de développement durable et équilibré sans une prise en main par les populations (les organisations paysannes) et les collectivités (CRD et CU) de leur propre devenir, ce qui passe nécessairement par une gestion saine et transparente de leurs activités et de leurs ressources (humaines, matérielles et financières). Mais en même temps, nous savons que le public cible du projet (responsables d’organisations paysannes et élus locaux) est en majorité illétré. Et comme dit le proverbe chinois, « ... Si on veut nourrir le peuple pour l’éternité, il faut lui apprendre à lire et à écrire ».

Dans cet objectif, pour une participation pleine et responsable des bénéficiaires à leur propre développement et pour pérenniser les actions, le projet prévoit la mise en place et le suivi de centres d’alphabétisation partout où le besoin s’en fera sentir pendant toute la durée de sa mise en œuvre.

**Stratégies**
Dans le respect de l’approche qui consiste à faire faire, le projet s’est proposé d’utiliser les compétences existantes sur le terrain pour la réalisation de l’ensemble des activités d’alphabétisation.

Pour atteindre cet objectif, une collaboration est envisagée avec les Directions Préfectorales de l’Education qui abritent chacune une Direction de l’alphabétisation, structure déconcentrée du Service National d’alphabétisation. Ceci aurait pour avantage d’une part, de conclure un Protocole d’accord de collaboration plutôt qu’un contrat de prestations de service et, d’autre part, d’inscrire les actions dans la politique nationale d’alphabétisation et enfin de pouvoir capitaliser à tout moment les expériences étant donné qu’il s’agit d’une structure pérenne.

**Critères de sélection des centres d’alphabétisation ou précisation des OP bénéficiaires**
Groupement du niveau 2 de maturité à savoir :

- Disposant d’un règlement intérieur écrit et approuvé par tous les membres ;

- Qui mène des activités concourant à la résolution de leurs divers problèmes ;

- Qui a un plan d’action et un programme d’activités ;

- Qui tient régulièrement des réunions ;

- Mais qui connaît cependant des problèmes de fonctionnement et de gestion, notamment liés aux outils de gestion ;
**SKILLS AND LITERACY TRAINING FOR BETTER LIVELIHOODS**

- Groupement d’un effectif d’illittrés supérieur à 15 personnes ;
- Groupement dont le village dispose d’une école ;
- Groupement dont le village dispose d’un potentiel d’alphabétiseurs villageois ;
- Groupement demandeur.

**Critères de sélection des alphabétiseurs villageois :**

- être natif du terroir ou bien maître enseignant dans le village ;
- connaître parfaitement la langue du terroir ;
- avoir des qualités sociales et morales et être bien accepté par le village ;
- avoir un niveau scolaire supérieur ou égal à la classe de Terminale ;
- être âgé de 25 à 45 ans, à l’exception des fonctionnaires à la retraite ;
- être en résidence stable au village ;
- être volontaire ;
- réussir au test de sélection (maîtrise de la langue, pédagogie des adultes etc.).

**Chronogramme d’activités**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Période</th>
<th>Activités</th>
<th>Responsables</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Septembre</td>
<td>Concertation pour préparatifs campagne</td>
<td>Projet, Prestataires et bénéficiaires, autres partenaires</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Octobre</td>
<td>Identification des apprenants et des moniteurs alpha</td>
<td>Prestataires en collaboration avec projet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novembre</td>
<td>Formation des moniteurs et multiplication manuels</td>
<td>Prestataires</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Décembre</td>
<td>Préparation hangars ou négociation salles de formation</td>
<td>Bénéficiaires</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Janvier</td>
<td>Mise en place comité de gestion du centre</td>
<td>Prestataires et bénéficiaires</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Janvier à Avril</td>
<td>Suivi/évaluation et rapports</td>
<td>Prestataires</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mai</td>
<td>Evaluation finale bilan campagne</td>
<td>Consultant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Grille d’évaluation de l’alphabétisation**

<table>
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<tr>
<th>N° ord</th>
<th>Indicateurs</th>
<th>Situation recherchée</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Taux d’alphabétisation des responsables</td>
<td>80 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Taux d’alphabétisation des membres</td>
<td>50 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Remplissage des différents outils de gestion</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Utilisation des supports pendant les réunions</td>
<td>50 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Utilisation des documents post-alpha (revues, livrets, journaux)</td>
<td>30 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Circulation de documents écrits de gestion du groupement</td>
<td>60 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Expérience de l'ONG Aide et Action**

- **Public cible**: hommes et femmes de 20 à 35 ans

- **Objectifs**: améliorer les conditions de vie des participants en (i) leur apprenant à lire, à écrire et à calculer (ii) appuyant des activités génératrices de revenus (iii) encourageant l'épargne et le crédit (iv) renforçant la vie associative et les capacités de gestion des apprenants

- **Langue d’alphabétisation**: langue nationale en milieu rural et le français (pour les besoins de communication) en milieu urbain

- **Structuration**: mise en place des groupements d'éducateurs villageois (GEV), des associations d'éducateurs communautaires (AEC), des comités de gestion (COGES) des centres et, progressivement, de l'institutionnalisation de la maîtrise d'ouvrage au niveau des CRD, à partir de leur plan de développement local (PDL)

- **Partenariat**: les structures ci-dessus citées, composées essentiellement de jeunes et les services déconcentrés du SNA que sont les DRA et les DPA

- **Déroulement des cours**: le calendrier est fixé en partenariat avec les apprenants. En général, ils se tiennent de janvier à mai en 3 séances de 3 heures chacune par semaine, avec un effectif maximum de 30 apprenants

- **Evaluation**: il existe une évaluation annuelle des centres et une évaluation de cycle au bout de la 2ème année. Lorsque cette dernière est concluante, l'auditeur a droit à une attestation

- **Post-alphabétisation**: pour permettre aux néo-alphabètes de consolider, transférer et réinvestir les acquis, des documents didactiques sont élaborés ou traduits sur des sujets divers

- **Evaluation**: des outils de suivi et d'évaluation existent pour tous les niveaux avec des indicateurs appropriés.

**Expérience de l'entraide universitaire pour de développement (EUPD)**

Créée en 1989, l'EUPD a pour objectif premier de mettre en place une structure de volontaires nationaux. Son programme est orienté selon quatre axes : (i) support technique et partenariat (ii) développement rural local (élaboration de projet financiers avec les villageois et exécutés sous leur responsabilité), (iii) formation et animation, dont l'alphabétisation, (iv) aide à la création d'entreprise. L'EUPD collabore avec d'autres ONG assurant la formation des agents de certains opérateurs et l'animation de leurs activités et réalise des études. Elle œuvre très largement en partenariat (FAO, PNUD, FAC, CEE, VSF, MFFP, CECI, etc.).

La cellule d’alphabétisation a été mise en place en 1993 et situe ses interventions dans les villages, surtout en zone forestière. Elle œuvre dans trois directions : (i) alphabétisation de base, dans le cadre de l’appui à la structuration du milieu paysan et des associations villageoises d’alphabétiseurs et de l’aide à la mise en place de systèmes d’autofinancement, (ii) post alphabétisation, (iii) conception d’outils d’alphabétisation. Le responsable de la formation a été formé au SNA.

La stratégie comporte quatre étapes : (i) l’identification du mécanisme d’opérationnalisation du programme (le point de départ étant l’émergence et la mise de conscient d’une problématique), (ii) la définition des contenus, avec la participation des paysans et la conception d’outils didactiques sur les thèmes retenus, adaptés aux besoins identifiés, (iii) la mise en place d’une structure paysanne de prise en charge (comité d’alphabétisation), (iv) le suivi et l’évaluation des actions d’alphabétisation, menés par les villageois eux-mêmes.

Elle a conduit une vingtaine de programmes d’alphabétisation et de post alphabétisation, sur l’ensemble du pays, particulièrement dans les zones suivantes :

- **le projet « Assodia »** (1991–1993), à Coyah, Forécariah, Boffa et Boké ;

- **le projet « RC 2 »** pour la relance du café (1992–1997), en Guinée Forestière, notamment à Macenta, N’zérékoré, Lola, Yomou, Guéckédou, Kissidougou ;

• le projet « MFPG » (1995–1996) pour des groupements féminins de pêche (fumage du poisson) à Conakry, sur financement Canadien (New Brunswick) ;


• le projet « PNUD/PAIB » (1996–1997) qui appuie les initiatives de base à Kankan et Kissidougou ;

• le projet « VSF » (1992–1997), avec l’association vétérinaires sans frontière à Dabola, Dinguiraye et Kouroussa sur financement CE/ FED actuellement PDD (Projet Dabola-Dinguiraye) ;

• le projet d’élevage « SAGE/DNE » (1996–1997) qui concerne la formation des animateurs en moyenne et Basse Guinée ;

• le projet « AGFC » (1997) en collaboration avec l’association des femmes (chercheurs et avec l’unité pilote de l’USAID), pour la création de groupements d’appui aux femmes (maraîchage et aspect culturels). Un volet alphabétisation vient en appui aux groupements féminins de producteurs, réalisé grâce à des fonds Canadiens ;

• Un autre projet à Boké, « KAPAKCHEZ ».

Plus de 3500 adultes ont été alphabétisés et 2000 sont en cours d’alphabétisation. Le taux de réussite est estimé à 80/85 %, le taux d’abandon ne dépassant 10 %. Les langues utilisées sont le français et les langues nationales ; la durée des cours varie entre 3 et 5 mois à par jour. Le personnel comprend un superviseur par zone (une vingtaine en tout) disposant d’une moto, assurant, dans certains projets, le suivi de la démarche pédagogique, des alphabétiseurs qui sont des paysans, recrutés sur test (niveau de fin d’études primaires) qui perçoivent entre 1000 et 1500 FG par jour et encadrent entre 15 et 20 apprenants. Si ces personnes sont étrangères au village, un logement leur est attribué. Les villageois fournissent également le local.

Les apprenants participent en s’acquittant d’environ 2000/4000 FG pour la durée du cycle. Il est chaque fois constitué un comité villageois pour l’alphabétisation. EUPD publie un journal en Français « le planteur » et un journal en pular, « badar Koloba » ainsi que des livrets de post alphabétisation sur la gestion, la vie pratique, le crédit, les organisations paysannes, les banques céréaliers, entre autres.

Les critères de sélection des alphabétiseurs et des auditeurs sont pratiquement les mêmes que ceux du PAPE-BGN.

**Différents résultats enregistrés**

(participation, mise en pratique, effets et impacts)

Les recherches ont maintes fois mis en lumière les effets bénéfiques d’une éducation de base chez les plus vulnérables de la société : les filles, les groupes ethniques minoritaires, les orphelins, les personnes handicapées et les habitants des régions rurales.

Une éducation de base de qualité est un moyen efficace de donner aux participants les compétences nécessaires pour participer pleinement à la vie économique et d’en bénéficier. L’éducation est un des moyens les plus efficaces de prévention contre la pénurie ; elle permet d’améliorer les revenus, d’accroître la mobilité professionnelle, de faire la promotion de la santé auprès des parents et des enfants, de réduire les taux de fécondité et de mortalité, ainsi que de donner aux plus démunis une chance de prendre leur place dans la sphère publique et de participer au processus politique.

L’alphabétisation des adultes constitue une stratégie importante de lutte contre la pauvreté. La démocratisation de l’éducation primaire contribue à éliminer graduellement l’analphabétisme chez les adultes.

Cependant, pour la Guinée, l’attente sera trop longue avant de pouvoir bénéficier des impacts
économiques dû à la réduction de l’alphabétisme. L’acquisition d’une éducation de base à partir de programmes non formels pour adultes et jeunes déscolarisés contribue non seulement à améliorer la situation économique de la famille, mais aussi l’état de santé de chacun de ses membres, le rendement scolaire des enfants ainsi que la capacité de gérer efficacement les ressources naturelles. Une plus grande autonomie et confiance en soi en public sont des effets souvent rapportés par les apprenants adultes.

L’éducation de base des adultes est importante en terme d’équité parce qu’elles s’adresse justement aux plus pauvres de la société. Il en est de même pour l’égalité entre les hommes et les femmes : les femmes sont beaucoup plus nombreuses que les hommes dans les programmes d’éducation de base des adultes. L’écart est parfois même considérable dans les centres NAFA. En somme, en attendant que ladémocratisation de l’éducation primaire soit menée à son terme, les programmes d’éducation non formelle permettent aux plus démunis d’acquérir les compétences nécessaires pour participer pleinement à la vie économique et sociale et, grâce à l’acquisition d’une certaine autonomie, à contribuer à l’édification d’une société juste et équitable.

C’est pour cela que nous rejoignons une fois de plus les conclusions des deux ateliers tenus récemment à Dakar sur le sujet.

En Guinée, l’alphabétisation a eu un impact divers et varié sur la vie des apprenants. Selon les endroits et les personnes interrogées, elle leur a donné des capacités d’analyse, un nouveau rôle social, une fierté culturelle, et aussi du courage.

**L’impact personnel**

Les expressions qui reviennent assez souvent, et qui sont les mêmes dans la sous région, sont les suivantes :

- « C’est seulement à travers étudier qu’une personne peut changer » ;
- « Au début, je ne connaissais même pas comment écrire mon nom. Maintenant je sais quoi faire de ma vie » ;
- « Je connais maintenant mon propre esprit, et je refuse d’être triche ! » ;
- « Dès maintenant, toute chose que je ferai, je m’arrêterai premièrement pour y penser, pour obtenir une information et savoir si c’est une bonne ou mauvaise action » ;
- « Etudier m’a réveillé, m’a donné connaissance, et a amélioré mon comportement et ma patience » ;
- « Ce qui a changé dans ma vie est que maintenant, je suis devenu une personne plus humble et pardonnant » ;

**L’impact économique**

Au CAOPA de Kankan, nous avons particulièrement relevé comme effets et impact :

- la participation des bénéficiaires à la prise en charge financière du programme à hauteur de 59 % ;
- Le recensement des intentions de culture par l’équipe technique du groupement de producteurs de coton (GPC) ;
- La maîtrise des itinéraires techniques ;
- La gestion des stocks intrants ainsi que celle des caisses des groupements ;
- La commercialisation du coton par l’équipe paysanne ;
- La participation des paysans à la rédaction des articles du journal des producteurs de coton ;
- La tenue des documents de comptabilité pour assurer une gestion transparente des revenus collectifs ;
**L'impact social**
Des changements dans le comportement en public sont également mentionnés et les expressions qui sont souvent revenues sont les mêmes qu'au Sénégal, à savoir (citations) :

- « Etudier m'a donné le courage de m'arrêter au milieu des gens et de parler la vérité » ;

- « Maintenant quand j’entre dans un groupe, premièrement j’écoute ce que les autres ont à dire, j’essaye de comprendre et alors j’ajoute respectivement ce que peux ; basé sur la technique de bonne écoute » ;

- « Ce qui a changé dans ma vie est que maintenant j’ose m’asseoir avec les grands, choses je ne pouvais pas avant » ;

- « Si les personnes sont vieilles ou jeunes, un homme ou une femme, je connais maintenant comment nous pouvons être ensemble comme égaux » ;

- « Etudier m’a enseigné beaucoup sur les gens » ;

- « Etudier a amélioré mes relations sociales » ;

- « Ce que nous avons vu en étudiant est que hommes et femmes sont égaux dans le travail » ;

**Catégories des ressources mises en œuvre**

**Nature des intervenants**
Aujourd’hui, tout le monde s’accorde à admettre que la lecture, l’écriture et le calcul sont des éléments indispensables pour acquérir et pérenniser un savoir, un savoir-faire et un savoir être. Les organisations d’appréciation au développement constatent que l’acquisition des moyens d’existence passe de plus en plus par un minimum d’alphabétisation de base et un maximum d’alphabétisation fonctionnelle (peu importe la langue). On sait par exemple que :

- le tailleur a besoin d’enregistrer les mesures du client ;

- le menuisier a besoin d’utiliser le mètre pour prendre des mesures ;

- le maraîcher a besoin des normes techniques ;

- le conducteur doit savoir lire ne serait-ce que les panneaux de signalisation ;

- le voyageur a besoin de savoir lire son ticket de réservation et les indications dans les aéroports.

Ceci signifie que l’alphabétisation, comme base d’acquisition des moyens d’existence et d’amélioration des compétences, est depuis bien longtemps perçue en Guinée comme un élément incontournable du développement. C’est pourquoi l’État a très tôt mis en place le SNA.

L’ensemble des ONG de la place, la plupart des Projets et les organisations confessionnelles et privées font de l’alphabétisation avec la philosophie suivante : Alphabétisation, non pas comme une fin en soi, mais comme un moyen pour (i) acquérir un savoir et un savoir-faire en vue (ii) d’améliorer le travail (iii) accroître ses revenus et améliorer ses conditions d’existence et enfin être mieux reconnu au sein de la
société et mieux communiquer avec les siens. Ces organisations sont présentées dans le section qui suit.

**Identification des opérateurs**

De manière générale, les bénéficiaires ne sont que peu ou pas impliqués dans l'identification des opérateurs. Par contre les projets et certains organismes passent par des appels d’offre pour identifier les opérateurs.

Il existe actuellement 23 ONG et programmes de développement impliqués, directement ou indirectement et à des degrés divers, dans des activités d’alphabétisation. La plupart sont de création récente, l’alphabétisation ne constituant souvent qu’une partie, plus ou moins importante, de leurs activités. Les ONG en Guinée sont récentes et la plupart ont des difficultés à se procurer des ressources notamment auprès des bailleurs de fonds qui pensent (quelquefois à juste raison) que leur capacité de gestion et de suivi ainsi que leur potentiel humain ne sont pas très développés. Il en résulte que leurs interventions sont souvent réduites. Les limites des ONG sont classiques : moyens financiers, accessibilité, capacité de gestion, infrastructures, équipements, capacité de développer des programmes, etc.

Il faut dire aussi qu’une autre des raisons de leur faiblesse est la compétition, voire la méfiance qui règne entre elles, principalement pour bénéficier de la « manne » que pourraient constituer pour elles, les financements extérieurs.

**L’origine de l’initiative**

Quand on aborde la question d’initiative en matière d’alphabétisation, il faut remonter aux questions de développement d’une manière générale et de formation à l’apprentissage ou à l’amélioration d’un métier en particulier.

Dans le cas de la Guinée, l’initiative d’alphabétisation se situe à deux niveaux : (i) l’alphabétisation est jugée nécessaire par un intervenant extérieur et (ii) l’alphabétisation jugée plutôt utile par des bénéficiaires potentiels est demandée en conséquence par eux.

Le premier cas est le plus courant. Les organisations d’appui aux développement sont les initia- teurs de l’alphabétisation surtout lorsqu’il s’agit d’une alphabétisation de base. Il n’est donc pas sur- prenant de constater que toutes les ONG de la place, de même que les projets pratiquent ou font faire de l’alphabétisation.

Le deuxième cas, lui, est très rare. On ne le rencontre que dans deux situations précises : (i) les bénéficiaires savent déjà lire et écrire et souhaiteraient dépasser ce cap. On parle alors de post-alpha, (ii) l’approche adoptée par l’intervenant obéit à la démarche d’auto-promotion, (iii) les bénéficiaires potentiels voudrait absolument acquérir ou améliorer un métier pour lequel savoir lire, écrire ou calculer constitue un préalable (centres NAFA, centres communautaires et centres d’alphabétisation professionnalisant).

En Guinée, dans près de 80 % des cas, l’initiative vient de l’intervenant et pas du bénéficiaire, même si par la suite, ce dernier est sensibilisé et devient volontaire et même plus tard, demandeur.

Les sections qui suivent présentent les approches utilisées.

**Identification des apprenants, de leurs désirs et de leurs besoins**

On observe une relative homogénéité chez les opérateurs pour l’alphabétisation de base qui initie les apprenants à l’écriture, à la lecture et au calcul. On note une plus grande diversité en ce qui concerne la post-alphabétisation où un manque de maîtrise se fait sentir chez la plupart des opérateurs.

La plupart des opérateurs invoquent néanmoins la mise en place des structures locales pour parler de pérennisation. Aussi la post-alphabétisation bien que moins maîtrisée est considérée comme facteur-clé de pérennisation des acquis par les opérateurs.

Concernant le cas où l’initiative doit émaner du bénéficiaire, l’alphabétisation est généralement inscrite dans un programme global de développement à l’intérieur duquel il existe un volet « animation, formation et alphabétisation ».

L’approche consiste, dans une démarche participative (avec et au profit des bénéficiaires) à procéder tout d’abord à une identification des besoins de formation, à les analyser puis à élaborer un plan de formation.
Il s’agit en particulier d’identifier les savoir, les savoir-faire et les savoir être nécessaires pour satisfaire les aspirations du public. Il s’agit de catalyser un processus de changement social, conçu, produit et évalué par les populations elles-mêmes. Ce partenariat est matérialisé par un document de convention qui définit les objectifs communs pour suivis, les résultats attendus ainsi que les obligations des partenaires engagés dans la mise en œuvre des activités.

L’approche est donc essentiellement basée sur le principe de l’auto-promotion selon lequel le public cible est auteur/acteur de son propre épanouissement dans un processus d’auto-apprentissage.

Nous présentons tout d’abord les stratégies en matière de formation puis celles adoptées en matière d’alphabétisation.


Puis les comportements ou savoir-faire nouveaux sont mis en pratique par les intéressés, en vraie grandeur, entre deux séances d’animation formation.

La séance suivante est l’occasion d’analyser les questions nouvelles survenues au cours de cette pratique et de consolider les connaissances. Ainsi, sera mise en place une pédagogie de l’alternance, débouchant tout naturellement sur la mise en œuvre dans la réalité, des savoir-faire et/ou savoir être visés à travers la formation.

C’est dire que la démarche est centrée sur l’atteinte d’objectifs clairement formulés, décou rant de l’analyse de l’activité concrète que nous voulons voir assumer par le bénéficiaire de la formation. Il est ainsi possible à tout moment de procéder à l’évaluation des résultats obtenus.

La démarche s’appuie sur le groupe, comme lieu et moyen de formation (discussions de groupe, méthodes de cas, etc.), soit à l’occasion des séances de sensibilisation au niveau du village (ou la notion de groupe prime de façon habituelle sur celle d’individualité), soit dans des sessions au niveau micro régional.

En matière d’alphabétisation, la stratégie consiste à :

- Favoriser la mise en place d’associations villageoises d’alphabétisation à travers le choix d’alphabétiseurs par les villages et par les villageois auxquels incombera, l’animation de l’après-programme.

- Assurer la formation des facilitateurs assistés dans leur travail par la section alphabétisation.

- Utiliser dans la mesure du possible comme facilitateurs dans certaines localités les enseignants, déjà familiarisés avec populations locales et ayant acquis de l’expérience dans l’exercice de leur profession.

- Collaborer avec les services publics, les ONG et institutions d’alphabétisation en sollicitant leur participation à la mise en œuvre de l’ensemble du programme.

Capitalisation des expériences

Comme déjà annoncé, les documents de capitalisation relatifs au sujet sont rares.


Qu’il s’agisse de l’une ou de l’autre de ces deux ONG qui sont aujourd’hui les plus expérimentées en la matière en Guinée, l’approche méthodologique recommandée est que le groupe cible soit à la fois demandeur, acteur et bénéficiaire.
Identifier, former et soutenir les instructeurs

Le choix et la formation des instructeurs constitue une préoccupation majeure pour quelques uns des intervenants mais plus particulièrement pour IIZ/DVV, le CENAFOD et Aide et Action. Pour d’autres, une autonomie du monde rural en la matière ne ferait que réduire leur « portefeuille de contrats ».

En tout cas, l’objectif, pour tous ceux qui œuvrent dans le sens d’une auto-promotion durable, est de doter les communautés des capacités pouvant leur permettre d’identifier, d’organiser et de satisfaire de façon durable les besoins d’éducation des populations.

C’est pourquoi, de plus en plus, avec l’impulsion de IIZ/DVV et de « Aide et Action », sont mis sur place des GEV (groupements d’educateurs villageois) et des AEC (association des éducateurs communautaires).

Le GEV permet de donner plus d’autonomie et de pérenniser les activités d’alphabétisation tandis que l’AEC intervient au niveau des sous-préfectures pour jouer le rôle d’interface et de représentativité entre les communautés à la base, les groupements d’éducateurs, les autorités de l’éducation et les autres intervenants.

Avant donc d’appartenir au GEV, les animateurs alpha reçoivent une formation en méthodes et en techniques d’alphabétisation. Les thèmes portent généralement sur :

- Alphabétisation (définition, alphabétisation fonctionnelle, étude du milieu, démarche pour l’alphabétisation fonctionnelle) ;
- Techniques de gestion des centres ;
- Méthodologie d’enseignement (lecture, écriture et calcul) ;
- Connaissance de l’apprenant adulte ;
- Qualités requises de l’animateur ;
- Documents des centres alpha ;
- Suivi et évaluation des centres, des campagnes et des cycles.

Adéquation entre contenus d’alphabétisation et formation aux moyens de subsistances et d’amélioration des compétences

En dehors des campagnes traditionnelles d’alphabétisation dont l’objectif est de donner à chacun la possibilité de savoir lire et écrire, tous les programmes entrepris intègrent une formation visant l’accroissement des moyens de subsistance. C’est ainsi qu’en Guinée, le SNA a mis en place : (i) les centres communautaires d’alphabétisation, (ii) les centres NAFA ou l’école de la 2ème chance, et (iii) les centres d’alphabétisation « professionisante ».

Les projets et ONG, dans le cadre d’appui au développement réalisent de leur côté des activités d’alphabétisation avec des objectifs d’amélioration de la qualité du travail et des compétences.

Les centres communautaires d’alphabétisation
Crées en principe à l’initiative des communautés de base, la plupart ne reçoivent aucun appui ni de l’Etat ni des bailleurs de fonds, sinon de la craie et quelques cahiers de brouillons pour les participants situés en majorité en milieu rural.

L’encadrement est le plus souvent constitué d’un instituteur volontaire et d’un membre de la communauté, non rétribué. La plupart sont dévoués et motivés mais sont assez vite gagnés par le découragement, compte tenu des conditions matérielles d’apprentissage et de l’absence de matériel didactique.

Les locaux utilisés sont les salles de classe de l’école primaire. Les cours ont lieu souvent le soir, avec un éclairage déficient, utilisant une lampe à pétrole (souvent celle de l’alphabétiseur) ou des bougies. Certains remèdent à cet inconvénient en utilisant les locaux scolaires pendant les deux jours hebdomadaires de congé des élèves, mais le risque est alors que tous les apprenants ne soient pas disponibles dans la journée ! Dans les centres ouverts par le SNA l’alphabétisation se fait dans les langues nationales (alphabet latin), parfois en français.

Les autres centres utilisent l’arabe « harmonisé » ou l’alphabet Guékédou, exclusivement dans les langues nationales ( principales pular et maninka). Ils se reçoivent aucune aide, à l’exception parfois de la craie donnée par le directeur de l’école.
Les locaux utilisés sont divers, allant de la salle de classe à la mosquée ou à l’abri rudimentaire, la « classe sous l’arbre ». Les cours durent 5/6 mois, les centres fermant pendant l’hivernage.

Seuls les alphabetisateurs possèdent un syllabaire et un livre de calcul (fournis par le SNA) et encore pas tous. La plupart ont été formés par l’antenne préfecturale du SNA, mais la plupart utilisent une méthode d’apprentissage plutôt scolaire (du moins dans les centres visités par la mission) et le calcul est peu fonctionnel. Les centres utilisant N’ko et l’arabe harmonisé ont pour la plupart une approche de l’apprentissage de la lecture proche de celle utilisée à l’école coranique, le calcul est parfois absent. Dans les localités sans école, la majorité des participants sont des enfants.

Les livrets complémentaires de lecture sont rares au niveau des alphabetisateurs, les participants n’en possèdent pas ou peu. Dans l’ensemble, l’apprentissage est lent et les résultats disparates, allant du médiocre au satisfaisant, le médiocre dominant. Parmi les facteurs négatifs qui conditionnent ces résultats, il faut citer le manque de motivation, la participation irrégulière, la formation inadaptée des alphabetisateurs, l’absence de matériel didactique, le désintérêt des responsables locaux et les conditions matérielles de la « classe ».

Pour 1996, le SNA donne le chiffre de 2.404 centres communautaires et centres d’alphabétisation professionnalisante, dont 1.908 dans les zones rurales, se répartissant comme suit : SNA (654), ONG (134), projets de développement (724), confessions religieuses (892).

Les centres d’alphabétisation professionnalisante
Ces centres assurent aux jeunes des possibilités de formation générales (lire, écrire et calculer), tout en leur permettant l’apprentissage de compétences liées au métier de leur choix. L’enseignement est donné en français (à la demande des participants) dans la majorité des centres, parfois dans la langue nationale adéquate, suivi, après sept mois, d’un apprentissage en français. Les effectifs sont souvent pléthoriques (la demande est plus forte que l’offre, la motivation étant plus forte pour la formation professionnelle que pour l’alphabétisation), l’équipement et l’outillage (parfois rudimentaire) très insuffisants. Les locaux sont exigus sans sanitaires ni eau courante. L’encadrement est constitué le plus souvent d’un instituteur détaché et d’un volontaire (non rétribué) pour l’alphabétisation et de moniteurs (souvent des artisans) pour les activités professionnelles. réalisées.

La mission n’a pas constaté dans les centres visités de lien entre l’alphabétisation censée être fonctionnelle et les activités pratiquées sinon l’apprentissage limité d’un vocabulaire technique. Les remarques faites concernant les centres communautaires d’alphabétisation s’appliquent également à ces centres. Au terme des études, les jeunes s’installent à leur compte soit isolément soit en coopérative, mais le plus souvent ils continuent à utiliser les équipements des centres en leur versant une ristourne sur la vente de leurs produits.

Par ailleurs, le terme de « professionnalisante » nous paraît ambitieux, s’agissant plutôt de pré-apprentissage professionnel. En conclusion, comme nous le verrons pour les centres Nafa décrits ci-après, l’initiative est heureuse, originale et a encourager et pourrait donner de meilleurs résultats, pour peu que soit revues les méthodes d’apprentissage, notamment pour l’enseignement du français. Il s’agit en effet principalement de jeunes non scolarisés et n’ayant pratiquement aucune connaissance orale de cette langue au départ. Un grand nombre sont des centres privés. Par ailleurs, un certain nombre d’ONG travaillent dans ce secteur, associant souvent formation professionnelle et aide à un groupe défavorisé tels enfants des rues, handicapés ; l’alphabétisation étant censée être associée aux activités.

Les centres NAFA
Les centres NAFA (le terme signifiant dans la plupart des langues « bénéfique, profitable, intérêt évident »), ouverts en principe aux jeunes déscolarisés ou non scolarisés de 10–16 ans, en donnant avec une priorité aux filles, devaient permettre aux apprenants d’acquérir les connaissances instrumentales de base (lecture, écriture, calcul), de développer des savoirs et des savoir faire, de promouvoir de meilleures pratiques en matière d’hygiène, de santé et de sécurité et des droits et d’offrir une chance, à ceux qui en ont la capacité et le désir, d’accéder au système formel. Le programme, élaboré pour 1.080 heures (4 H. par jour
à raison de 3–5 séances hebdomadaires) sur trois ans, comprend trois domaines de capacité (i) la communication et la résolution de problèmes, (ii) la connaissance de l’environnement, et (iii) le développement des compétences de base.

Ces centres sont gérés par la CONEBAT au niveau central et par un coordonnateur directement rattaché à l’IRE au niveau régional, mais sont par contre sous la responsabilité du DPA au niveau préfectoral. La presque totalité des participantes sont non scolarisées. Les mêmes remarques faites ci-dessus concernant les locaux, l’équipement, les effectifs et l’alphabétisation pour les centres d’alphabétisation professionnalisante s’appliquent à ces centres. Car il y a peu de différences entre ces deux structures, si ce n’est que les centres Nafa ont ou vont avoir des locaux à la construction desquels contribuent les communautés que l’UNICEF contribue aux équipements, aux fournitures et à la formation.

Ces deux types de structures visent implicitement deux objectifs : formation professionnelle et pour les plus jeunes (10–12 ans), réinsertion scolaire. Or, ces deux objectifs exigent des stratégies et des approches pédagogiques différentes et ne peuvent être confondus, s’agissant de l’apprentissage d’un métier dans une structure non formelle pour le premier et de réintégration dans le système scolaire pour le second. En fait dans les motivations des plus jeunes comme dans l’enseignement dispensé, c’est l’objectif scolaire qui domine (la mission, qui avait demandé à l’instituteur de faire parler les élèves en français, a assisté à la révision d’une leçon de conjugaison de verbes du 1er et du 3ème groupes comme à l’école primaire) alors même que le pourcentage de ceux qui réintègrent le formel est très faible (7 %).

Il nous semble qu’il devrait y avoir deux structures distinctes, l’une pour l’objectif préformation ou formation professionnelle, l’autre pour l’objectif de réinsertion scolaire, s’inspirant du programme du système formel et pouvant être confiée à ce dernier des passerelles devraient être mises en place entre ces deux voies de formation.

**L’alphabétisation, volet de projets de développement**

Il s’agit le plus souvent de projets intégrés menés par certaines ONG (CAOPA, EUDP, Aide et Action) et des programmes de développement qui font l’alphabétisation la plus efficace, une alphabétisation réellement fonctionnelle basée sur la problématique et les besoins des groupes cibles visés. Ils ont tous commencé par entreprendre une enquête socio-économique préalable des milieux concernés. Il faut dire que ces opérateurs s’adressent à des groupements organisés et disposent de moyens importants sur financement extérieur.

**Conclusions**

Pour conclure, nous soulignerons les principaux points suivants :

- On constate donc que dans le cas de la Guinée, la première et la seconde approche, capacités de base et formation visant l’amélioration des moyens de subsistance se recoupent fortement. Cependant, ces stratégies méritent encore des améliorations, notamment au niveau de la pérennité et de la reproductibilité. Il faudrait : (i) mettre en place des GEV (groupements d’éducateurs villageois) et des AEC (association des éducateurs communautaires) (ii) élaborer une stratégie précise pour arriver à une Guinée délivrée de l’analphabétisme. (iii) confier la maîtrise d’ouvrage (aussi pour l’alphabétisation) au niveau des collectivités décentralisées (iv) trouver une solution au problème des langues pour une Guinée lettrée et communicative. Le GEV permettrait d’autonomiser et de pérenniser les activités alpha tandis que l’AEC interviendrait au niveau des sous-préfectures pour jouer le rôle d’interface et de représentativité entre les communautés à la base, les groupements d’éducateurs et les autorités de l’éducation et autres intervenants.

- Il a existé en Guinée, notamment sous la première République, une alphabétisation qui était une alphabétisation de masse, sans grande retombée aussi bien du point de vue de l’impact que de la pérennité. Les stratégies étaient peu adaptées. C’est l’un des scandales qui aura marqué négativement plusieurs promotions d’élèves et étudiants de l’époque, aujourd’hui en fonction. Ce sont pour la plupart aujourd’hui des travailleurs dont la qualité des prestations laisse à désirer.
• Le SNA a divorcé avec le passé, même si l’on enregistre encore, pour des raisons de moyens ou de personnes, des insuffisances. Heureusement que l’UNICEF, la Banque Mondiale, l’étude financée par IIZ/DVV ainsi les ONG en général, proposent tous la stratégie présentée dans le chapitre I à savoir :

■ La conception et l’élaboration de la politique nationale d’alphabétisation et le suivi de sa mise en œuvre ;

■ L’élaboration des méthodes des stratégies et des programmes d’alphabétisation des différents groupes concernés ;

■ La conception et l’élaboration du matériel d’alphabétisation et de post-alphabétisation, son expérimentation et son évaluation ;

■ Le suivi/appui et l’évaluation des activités d’alphabétisation.

• La presque totalité des ONG de Guinée travaillent sur le terrain dans l’apprentissage visant les moyens de subsistance et quelques fois pour un savoir et un savoir être favorables à l’amélioration des conditions de vie. Toute font de l’alphabétisation dans l’objectif d’une amélioration des conditions de subsistance ou tout simplement des conditions d’existence.

• L’alphabétisation fonctionnelle et professionnalisante est pratiquement généralisée. Malheureusement, au stade actuel, tout le monde s’accorde à admettre que celle-ci s’arrête en chemin dans la plupart des cas car (i) les supports post alpha manquent cruellement même si par endroit, il existe quelque publication, (ii) l’activité est très liée au financement, et (iii) comme on vient de le voir, la stratégie GEV et AEC n’est que peu développée par les opérateurs.

• Dans les centres communautaires, les centres NAFA et centres d’alphabétisation professionnalisante, on emploie l’alphabétisation comme support à l’amélioration des moyens de subsistance et des compétences. Cette alphabétisation permet parfois une plus grande reconnaissance au sein de la société et plus de confiance en soi. Elle est bien accueillie et elle constitue un outil indispensable à la motivation et à la réussite dans les apprentissages de métier.

• L’intégration du français, au-delà de la langue initiale d’apprentissage de la lecture et de l’écriture, est également bien accueilli et permet à l’apprenant de sortir de son terroir pour être reconnu et utile dans d’autres horizons. Un apprentissage autodidacte est possible étant donnée la plus grande possibilité d’accès à des documents en français qu’en langue locale.

• Il existe une liste exhaustive de livrets élaborés par les ONG et le SNA. La plupart de ces livrets sont des livrets de lecture mais quelquefois ils sont thématiques. En matière d’alphabétisation fonctionnelle, certains portent sur des sujets divers (agriculture, santé, environnement, etc.) selon l’activité principale de l’organisme d’appui ayant commandé l’élaboration du document.

• Les difficultés exposées par la majorité des opérateurs sont d’ordre logistique et financier, exception faite des ONG étrangères qui rencontrent des difficultés d’ordre socio-économique au niveau des apprenants.

• Enfin, la combinaison des deux approches « formation pour obtenir, accroître ou améliorer les moyens de subsistance et l’alphabétisation et formation générale comme base à l’accès » est déjà combiné en Guinée. Pour cela, on peut se réjouir de constater que cela se matérialise une fois de plus à travers le projet EPT actuellement en négociation avec la Banque Mondiale.
Annex 3

Cases from Kenya

Anna P. Mwangi

Abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BTL</td>
<td>Bible Translation and Literacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAE</td>
<td>Department of Adult Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIT</td>
<td>Directorate of Industrial Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GoK</td>
<td>Government of Kenya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GTZ</td>
<td>Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ) GmbH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FL</td>
<td>Functional literacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFAD</td>
<td>International Fund for Agricultural Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KDDP</td>
<td>Kilifi District Development Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MEHRD</td>
<td>Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFE</td>
<td>Non-formal Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-governmental Organisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>NPEP</td>
<td>National Poverty Eradication Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLP</td>
<td>Post-Literacy Project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REFLECT</td>
<td>Regenerated Freirian Literacy through Empowering Community Techniques</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRDP</td>
<td>Special Rural Development Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UBEP</td>
<td>Undugu Basic Education Project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children’s Fund</td>
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<tr>
<td>USK</td>
<td>Undugu Society of Kenya</td>
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<tr>
<td>WTO</td>
<td>World Trade Organisation</td>
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Executive summary

This study undertook a critical examination of the use in Kenya of two specific educational program strategies. The first of these incorporates livelihood skills as part of literacy education, while the second incorporates literacy skills as part of livelihood training, and has been termed the “literacy second approach.”

The study was based on extensive consultation with key agencies and organizations that have supported skills development in Kenya and on a review of both unpublished and published documentation.

A fact to bear in mind during this account is that the official rates of illiteracy in Kenya are much lower than those in the other three “case” countries: in 1997, they were estimated at 13 percent for men and 28 percent for women over the age of 15 years. This difference is reflected in the observation by FAO, SIDA, and the Kenya Agriculture Research Institute (KARI) that the farmers in the Farmer Field Schools in the Central Province needed no instruction in literacy or numeracy, as all the participating farmers could read and write Swahili, and some could manage English. Most of the difference is explained not by the government’s literacy programs, but by its success in promoting the virtual universalization of primary schooling.

The main provider of adult literacy in Kenya is the Department of Adult Education (DAE) in the Ministry of Labor and Human Resource Development. In spite of ambitious policy goals to eradicate
illiteracy, the government’s literacy program remains severely under-financed. Although the government’s allocation is supplemented by international donor agencies, international and local NGOs, and community and individual contributions and reaches all corners of the country through the government’s administrative system, the numbers actually enrolled are too few to reduce the rates of illiteracy substantially.

The under-financing of adult literacy programs is reflected in numerous other constraints: a lack of incentives for instructors leading to a lack of skilled instructors and unreliability among those who are available, a lack of suitable teaching materials, a lack of adequate learning facilities, and unsurprisingly high drop out rates.

Attempts have been made to promote functional literacy through the introduction of economic and social projects as components of adult education programs. Adult learners are expected to improve their skills in areas such as agriculture, livestock rearing, home economics, and small-scale business, as they learn to read and write.

The study found that the “literacy second approach” has not been prominent in the Kenyan context. Available vocational or livelihood training programs required a Primary School Leaving Certificate as an educational prerequisite, so that basic literacy does not feature in curricula.

On the other hand, the findings of the study indicate that adult literacy education programs tend to be more effective if they incorporate livelihood skills training. Programs that did so had higher attendance rates and lower drop out rates and received better ratings on average from their participants than programs that focused solely on the provision of literacy and numeracy skills.

The study generated several recommendations, which should help improve the effectiveness of both livelihood and literacy skills training:

- Programs should be more responsive and participatory, encouraging clients to articulate their needs to ensure program relevance to participants.

- Programs should be put into contexts to enable courses and curricula to be shaped to meet the requirements of participants. The diverse and stratified nature of Kenyan society must be taken into consideration in an effort to create programs that are relevant to all sections of society.

- Funding for adult education programs needs to be increased. This indicates the need for more studies to demonstrate how literacy programs result in real returns and thus to encourage increased government resource allocation.

- Programs need to be more sustainable in order to ensure that they do not become redundant prior to fulfilling their objectives. In addition, coordination between the different service providers must be improved to ensure effective delivery of services.

**Literacy and livelihoods**

**The first literacy campaign (1967)**

The first National Literacy Campaign was launched in 1967. An evaluation in 1971 concluded that, despite several weaknesses and shortcomings, those sections of the campaign that had adopted the functional approach, combining literacy learning and acquisition of other practical skills, had proven the most suitable for the design of an overall national literacy strategy. Following this, a work-oriented literacy project was launched in 1972 as an integral part of the Special Rural Development Program (SRDP) in six districts in the country. On the model of this effort, income-generating projects became an essential component of literacy classes.

**The second literacy campaign (1979)**

The 1978 Gachathi Report on the objectives and policies of education recommended the development of a National Literacy Campaign Program to eradicate illiteracy and to integrate literacy programs into development projects, a move in line with the literacy training with livelihood components approach. Accordingly, the approach promoted by the Department of Adult Education aimed at establishing systematic links between literacy teaching and the everyday activities of the
participants. The “functionality” of the program included the following features:

- The literacy materials are locally designed and their content reflects local socio-cultural conditions and economic activities.

- Each group of learners is encouraged to undertake some form of collective project work as an integral element of their learning. Such projects can be directly income-generating for the learners or for community improvement or just for entertainment.

- Teachers are encouraged to invite local officers of different development sectors to address their literacy learners on topics related to their respective fields of competence.

Such activities are expected to help learners acquire skills for home management and in areas such as agriculture, livestock rearing, poultry keeping, and small-scale business. Unfortunately, due to lack of start-up money, most literacy classes do not fully incorporate these activities.

However, the Department of Adult Education has been able to secure the collaboration of such ministries as Agriculture and Health in producing learning and reading materials that support the functional approach.

The functional approach appeals to adult learners, as evidenced by the reports from 11 of 15 focus group discussions held with prospective participants and local leaders. The general view linked literacy with the ability to start and manage small businesses and commercial farming. Literacy would help in keeping proper records, calculating profits, and using different measures correctly. One group observed that, if learners were taking practical subjects like animal husbandry, bookkeeping, and childcare, they would be more motivated to enroll. Another group expressed similar sentiments; the chairman of the Village Development Unit explained that, if literacy would support income generation, people would spend less time looking for casual employment and would be available for classes. They would also be able to contribute to the cost of the literacy program. They mentioned micro-enterprises such as poultry keeping, piggery, bee keeping, crop production and crafts. Any proposed functional adult literacy program needs to respond to such needs in very practical ways. The projects reciprocally reinforce the need for literacy, as they demand proper record keeping, search for further information, and general business communication (Kiogora & Wambugu 2000: 2).

Despite these policies and ambitious goals, the financing and implementation of the National Literacy Campaign and other literacy programs have fallen far short of hopes. A large factor in the imperfect realization of the functional approach is that most literacy teachers are primary school teachers who assist the DAE in teaching adult learners as part-time instructors. They have neither the time nor the expertise to instruct people in ways to generate income or to start and run small businesses successfully. Further, in 1996, the then Director of Adult Education, David Kirui, disclosed that out of the 8,000 full and part-time teachers employed by the DAE, only 2,000 were qualified (Daily Nation 10/08/96).

Added to all this are the facts that the teachers and learners do not have adequate teaching and learning materials to match the “functional” aims: lower primary school textbooks are often the only instructional materials at hand. Lack of training, dissatisfaction at the level of reward for teaching, and absence of prospects for any kind of advancement tend to exacerbate the situation, while the absence of decent learning spaces does not help matters.

**International and local NGOs**

The role of NGOs in supplementing the government’s efforts and in promoting innovative approaches to literacy education should not be underestimated. They have stabilized literacy centers, initiated new strategies, and mobilized citizens for participation in adult basic education (Patel 1999: 8–9). Further, through their own programs, NGOs supplement the efforts of the government in promoting adult literacy education. In Kenya, ACTIONAID, Plan International, Literacy and Evangelism, Bible Translation and Literacy, the Kenya Adult Education Association, and Kenya Adult Learners Association have contributed significantly over the years in promoting adult literacy.
The small and focused literacy programs of NGOs are often much more effective than those of the government in imparting critical literacy skills and empowering adult learners. Here is only one example of an NGO:

ACTION AID–Kenya (AAK) started the Kibwezi REFLECT Literacy Development Program in 1989. The emphasis of the program was functional literacy – providing literacy and skills for the learners to enhance their capacities to develop solutions to practical problems. AAK organizes income-generating projects, which include irrigated horticultural production, tree nurseries, goat rearing, poultry keeping, and basket weaving. These projects have tended to provide a critical binding action for the groups and their participation in the literacy program is noted to be high. This has also significantly improved the men’s participation rate in the literacy centers.

By 1995 AAK was supporting 72 FAL centers in Kibwezi with an enrollment of 585 learners, between eight and 10 percent. The AAK support included training of teachers and supply of learning materials. The Kibwezi FAL Program was based on Freire’s methodology (psychosocial method). A Participatory Review Report of July 1996 noted that while the FAL program has been successful and its impacts were visible, it recommended that AAK should take up ActionAid’s revised Freirean method, REFLECT.

AAK commenced implementation of the REFLECT method in Kibwezi on a pilot basis in 1996. After this successful pilot phase, it expanded to other centers and in 2000 there were 751 participants in the program. Part of the success of the REFLECT circles in Kibwezi is attributable to the care AAK takes in ensuring that the instructors are trained and well equipped to implement their new teaching method.

**Attitudes of local communities toward literacy and livelihood projects**

Community attitudes toward literacy projects vary. In a study on Tukjowi Center, in Rongo Division of Nyanza Province, Fujisawa (2000: 22) notes that the attitude towards adult education in the community is quite negative. Adult learners are seen as ignorant and lazy and are categorized as people with plenty of time to do nothing. As farmers, most people in Tukjowi do not attach any importance to adult education, which they see as having little or nothing to do with their daily lives. Similarly, in Kikambala Division, Kilifi District, Coast Province, the community displays negative attitudes towards adult learners who, they claim, spend more time at literacy classes than they do with their families (Nyawana 1999). Negative attitudes towards adult education among the general populace have also been cited as one of the primary factors discouraging potential and continuing adult learners at in Kamariny Division, Keiyo District; Rift Valley Province (Moturi 2000).

On the other hand, people in Siala Center value education more than those in Tukjowi do, even though the two centers are not too far from each other and are in the same division Fujisawa (2000:23). Their positive attitudes may be attributed to the fact that many of them are employed or operate their own businesses, and they are able to assess and appreciate the value of functional adult education. Furthermore, in that Center, prominent members of the community are regularly invited to participate in learning programs. For instance, educated women regularly attend classes to encourage other female learners. Literacy is also promoted through the local Seventh Day Adventist Church, and the program supervisor is often a member of the community. This level of interest has been linked to the fact that a former cabinet minister created awareness of the important role adult education in providing people with educational opportunities to raise the living standard of the community.

Community attitudes have been positive toward class projects, which incorporate an element of income generation into literacy classes. According to Kering, for literacy projects to succeed, they must incorporate an income-generating approach because this enables the community to discern the benefits of participation. Kering noted that, on average, members of the public exhibited negative attitudes towards adult education classes. However, this attitude was modified and tended to be more positive toward projects that incorporated livelihood components. Fifty-five percent of the mem-
bers of the public and users of adult centers in Keringet viewed class projects as one way of improving their standard of living and contributing to development. This has resulted in extremely effective learner motivation and in the maintenance of a constant attendance record (Kering 2000).

In conclusion, literacy classes that include an income-generation component appear to be more effective than standard adult education courses. The former have attracted many adult literacy students, many of whom have left regular programs of adult study for the chance to attend a course that they perceive to offer future economic benefits. This suggests that incorporating livelihoods projects into literacy classes acts as a pull factor for a large section of the low-income population because it provides the opportunity to study and also acknowledges the importance of being able to make a living (Mwale 1998).

Out-of-school youth

A new phenomenon that is causing great concern in Kenya is the fact that while the number of adult illiterate people is decreasing, the number of illiterate young adults is increasing. This is a direct result of a growing number of families unable to provide basic needs for their children. A positive recent development is the increasing number of local and international NGOs beginning to get involved in alleviating the plight of street children and taking care of their basic needs. One of the most active Kenyan NGOs in the field of children and young adults in especially difficult circumstances is the Undugu Society of Kenya (USK).

As part of the implementation of its Co-operation Action Strategies in Basic Education (CASE) Africa Project, the UNESCO sub-regional office for Southern Africa wanted to identify and document innovative educational experiences in key areas in basic education. Functional literacy was one of the key areas identified, with particular focus on processes of the empowerment of disadvantaged youth to survive and overcome economic pressures. The CASE Africa Project carried out an in-depth study on the Undugu Basic Education Project (UBEP), a non-formal education program targeted at street children.

The objective of this program is to provide functional literacy and practical skills-training opportunities for children in especially difficult circumstances, particularly street children and those in the slums of Nairobi. The program has three phases and each phase lasts for one year. After phase three, the learners receive vocational training in carpentry, sheet metal, and tailoring. The subjects offered in phases one to three are similar to those in primary schools. The success of UEBP is attributed to sound management and a high level of community involvement. Management support from the Ministry of Education was called for in such areas as curriculum development, monitoring, inspection, and supervision.

The study reported the following findings:

- Undugu Basic Education Program is meeting the learning needs of students in reading, writing, and practical skills.

- Learners use the skills they acquire from UEBP to generate income.

- UEBP has contributed to the reduction of education wastage and to the rehabilitation of street children.

- Lack of adequate physical, teaching and learning facilities was reported.

- UEBP is dependent on donor funding. This called the sustainability of the program into question (Thompson 2001: 18).

Bible Translation and Literacy

Bible Translation and Literacy (BTL) is a Christian charitable organization, incorporated in Kenya in 1981 and registered as an NGO. It is a good example of the new trend developing in Kenya of NGOs whose primary concern had initially been solely literacy but are now changing their policies to incorporate livelihood training. BTL also provides a good example of management that closely involves the community, collaborates with other organizations, and works with minimal staff at the headquarters but expands (bottom-heavy) at the community
level. It is also a good example of what a small but dedicated staff can achieve with limited resources.

A typical BTL project would make contact with all the churches in the area and with local and divisional District Development Committees. The objectives would be to:

- Analyze the language and produce a good alphabet.

- Assist local people to develop their language in a written form under the auspices of a language committee. This would help give them a greater appreciation of their language and cultural heritage.

- Assess the community literacy needs. Assist in the development of primers and literacy materials and prepare an adequate literacy program to provide functional literacy skills to a critical mass in the community.

- Assist the church to translate portions of the Scripture to meet church needs. Normally the New Testament and portions of the Old Testament are translated, but that would depend on the needs of the churches and the users of the Scriptures.

- Work with the local churches to foster the use of translated Scriptures.

- Train literacy workers and translators in the community to continue literacy and translation work as an ongoing church ministry.

- Motivate the community to set up self-sustaining and self-managing systems that would enable them to respond to their felt needs in community development. When it was not possible to assist directly, then assist indirectly by involving other community development agencies that could respond to the felt needs of the community.

BTL's coordinating office is in Nairobi with a skeleton staff for administration and consultancy services. The BTL staff is a combination of salaried Kenyans and volunteer expatriates. However, the actual work carried out by this organization is done in the field. This is where most of its staff members are stationed. BTL has managed to develop a reasonably substantial project system that includes local supporting committees, project staffs, the inclusion of voluntary expatriate personnel, and a reasonably strong support structure.

Despite evident program weaknesses, BTL has considerable promise as a delivery vehicle for literacy for the following reasons: the staff commitment, development of the local infrastructures, and the fact it occupies a niche no one seems to be filling in Kenya. A board of directors are elected from BTL members manages the operations and policies of the organization. The general secretary is the chief executive officer and reports to the board of directors. The various programs undertaken by BTL are coordinated by program coordinators. Each project area has an operational base in the language group with a project leader, who develops a team to work with.

Although BTL projects started with basic adult literacy, following recommendations from an evaluation done in 1996, there is now more emphasis on transition literacy programs. The transition literacy takes less time, and BTL has been able to recruit volunteer teachers because they do not need to put in many hours, as opposed to the basic literacy program, which takes up a whole year.

BTL has evolved from having literacy components of only transition literacy, basic literacy, and functional literacy, to literacy components using the literacy and livelihood approach. The literacy with livelihood component is expected to:

- Integrate basic literacy with community development activities. This may build a motivation for the learners who may realize immediate gains from the program, but it may not necessarily motivate the teachers.

- Integrate basic literacy with income-generating projects. This may be aimed at raising income to support the program by providing money to offer incentives to the teachers. The challenge is to have income-generating programs that would generate enough income to support the teachers. The learners, too, may want to have an income, given the level of poverty of learners in the proj-
ect. Management and accounting are a challenge, and money for such income-generating projects may be needed from other funding agencies outside the traditional BTL funders.

- Approach local NGOs that have interest in promoting basic adult literacy. They may assist in partnering with the community in many ways, such as providing the seed money for the income-generating projects.

This approach to literacy is still at the early stages of development and BTL is currently involved in establishing structures that will help develop and establish it at the projects level.

**PLAN International**

PLAN International is an example of collaboration between the government and an international NGO. Furthermore, it is an example of involving even the poorest members of the community in cost sharing. PLAN addresses five interrelated areas of focus, which lay the groundwork for its community development interventions. These are growing up and health; learning; habitat; livelihood; and building relationships. Adult literacy falls under the learning domain.

Under the learning domain, PLAN recognizes education for adults and children alike as a process that enables individuals, families, and communities acquire basic tools needed to access information for their empowerment. This means that PLAN sees both formal and nonformal education as powerful tools for preparing community members to acquire essential life skills, which in turn result in improved understanding of and interaction with their social and physical environments.

PLAN works directly with children, their families, and communities to design, implement, and evaluate development projects. To achieve this objective, PLAN has incorporated Community Based Organizations (CBOs) as partners in the program delivery. This support takes the form of technical assistance, financing, and capacity-building. Through this support, it is hoped that CBOs will in the long run be self-sustaining and be effective vehicles for aiding development from below.

The Thika PLAN operational areas are called Village Development Units (VDUs). A VDU's mandate is to take effective responsibility for the development process of their communities—with support from PLAN—from initiation, planning, and design, to implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of all projects in their villages. In essence, the effective management of the entire project cycle is the current challenge facing the VDUs, given the past prevalent culture of dependency on PLAN funds.

**Vignettes of literacy groups**

Following are the summarized findings of some Diploma in Adult Education candidates from the University of Nairobi. These are mature students with wide experience in the area of adult education. The studies have been conducted in all provinces of the country, starting from the capital city to the farthest corners of the ASAL (arid and semi-arid lands) areas. Most of them focus on and evaluate the extent to which livelihood projects have been integrated in the FL program of DAE. These examples are offered to give the reader a direct impression of how the literacy program works on the ground and also to answer questions on as rates of attendance, dropouts and causes, psycho-social effects of the program on the learners, approaches used to identify and mobilize learners, and combining and balancing literacy content with livelihood content.

**Keringet Division, Nakuru District, Rift Valley Province (A study by Kering, 2000)**

In Keringet division, many government and non-governmental agencies, provide some form of adult education. These programs mainly take the form of extension programs run by government ministries in the areas of health, agriculture, livestock development, culture, and social services. These programs provide different services. NGOs have similarly based social welfare and education programs aimed at improving the quality of life of the client communities.

Official policy directs that the Department of Adult Education should plan, organise and lay down strategies for the implementation of programs. The department is also responsible for providing tangible resources in the form of finance and
materials. The content of literacy materials is supposed to be based on the socio-economic and cultural activities of the learners’ environment. In reality, the department is handicapped in that it has been allocated too small a share of the total budget available for educational resources. Keringet has not received any material resources for a long time. Teachers often have to contribute personal funds to meet the International Literacy Day expenses.

The upshot is that, of a total estimated population of 11,084 illiterate adults in Keringet division, there is a current enrollment of 17 male and 126 female learners, 143 learners in all in literacy classes, amounting to 1.3 percent of the target group.

Teaching is conducted by unskilled or semi-skilled teachers. Just over half, 55 percent, of the classes do not attempt to link their learning activities with livelihoods or other development. The other 45 percent try to motivate learners by integrating their teaching with other development activities such as farming, knitting, and merry-go-round (revolving loan fund). Among 11 centers observed, one uses a primer and one uses a textbook; five use improvised materials, and four use pre-primary materials. This is one clear indicator of the poor standards the DAE maintains in equipping literacy centers. Adult teachers and the institutions where they teach constitute 82 percent of material providers, while the department provides only 18 percent.

Seven of the 11 literacy centers have invited guest speakers. It has been noted that guest speakers enhance the performance of the teachers and motivate the learners.

Kakamenga Municipality Division, Western Province (A study by Owenga, S. Violet)

In the Kakamenga Municipality division the enrollment totalled 295 adult learners—126 men and 169 women (Statistics at year-end 1999). Eight adult education centers had class projects, and one did not. The projects included Merry-go-round (revolving loan fund), Making of fireless cookers, and Broom making.

Most learners reacted positively to the projects, and they were perceived as beneficial because a lot of income was generated for those who had participated in economic activities. Participants also benefited socially because the projects created a cohesive group. The projects served to maintain learner interest and motivated participants to complete the program. Learners benefited from the literacy skills in the following ways:

Economically
- They used the skills they acquired to make fireless cookers, which they sold.
- Those who were engaged in business were able to calculate their profit or loss margins.
- Those who were engaged in agriculture have raised their production as a result of their ability to use new technology. This has resulted in surplus yields, which can be sold as a means of generating extra income.

Socially
- Working in the groups ensured more intensive learner interaction and encouraged participants to draw on each other’s experiences.

Problems encountered
Four out of nine teachers complained about the lack of teaching/learning materials. Three teachers stated there was no community support for their courses. Four teachers said that there were inadequate facilities. All nine teachers indicated that the learners decide on what they should learn. However, teachers stressed that a post literacy program for the neo-literates should be started so that they do not relapse into illiteracy. In addition, they felt that an adult literacy curriculum should be designed.

The learners, meanwhile, said they had joined literacy classes primarily to learn how to read and write (4), to learn business (3), to socialize (3), to learn to care for their family’s health (2), or because they lacked money for formal education (2). When asked whether they were able to read and write, all the learners said yes. Twelve of them had taken proficiency tests between 1978–1984; one had not passed. Two of the interviewees had not sat for the test. Learners were asked how they were using the knowledge and skills acquired in literacy classes. The following responses were received in order of frequency:

- Improved farming (4)
• Reading and writing own letters and keeping records (3)

• Started business (3)

• Furthering education (2)

• Read doctors prescription (1)

• Improved communication through socialization (1)

When asked how literacy contributed to their roles and responsibilities, the participants gave these responses:

• As fathers, learners felt they could now more effectively monitor their children’s progress in school. Their increased income was budgeted towards paying school fees for their children and providing for their families’ basic needs. Several of them stated that they no longer believed in witchcraft and now took any member of their family that was sick to hospital. They were now also able to keep family records.

• As mothers, learners felt they were better equipped to care for their health of their families by preparing a balanced diet. They were now taking their children for immunization and keeping homesteads clean. They also knew how to budget for their family needs. They could supplement family income by starting a small business.

• As maids, learners believed they could now do their jobs more effectively by keeping the houses clean and preventing diseases. They could not be abused as they were now aware of their rights and, in return, they could now not misuse the resources that their employer had put at their disposal.

The researcher also interviewed a carpenter who ran a wood workshop and who had attended an adult education center between 1982 and 1983. He responded that the knowledge acquired in the literacy classes had helped him in his business because it had given him the confidence and ability to communicate with different customers. In addition, he could now read measurements and evaluate his progress. He could take stock of his business, keep written records, and conduct transactions with customers by writing out orders. A female interviewee show sold horticultural produce attended literacy classes between 1991 and 1993. She said she had learned how to calculate whether her business was yielding a profit or a loss. Consequently, since she became literate, her business has improved.

Izava Location, Vihiga District Western Province (A study by Luyayi, V.E.R.)

This study provides an example of the parallel existence of income-generating projects and literacy projects and of learners making use of both programs. It would be interesting to know if the users became members first of the income-generation project or the literacy program. Unfortunately, the study does not document this.

Vihiga District has a total 110 of literacy centers with 26 full-time teachers, 69 part-time teachers, 13 self-help teachers, and two NGO teachers. Only 10 out of 110 have income-generating projects. Izava location has 10 centers with only three income-generation projects. There are two full-time teachers, five part-time teachers and one self-help teacher. The location also has more than 20 women’s groups, according to statistics in the office of the social development officer.

Three centers have enrollments of more than 51 learners, and two centers have enrollment figures of between 41 and 50 students. One center has enrolled 31-40 learners, one have up to 20 and another has up to 30. However, in five of the centers a maximum of only ten learners attend classes. Three centers record attendance of between 11and 20, one center records attendance of between 21 and 30, and one of between 31 and 40. In other words, half of the classes have fewer than 10 of their learners actually attending. Findings showed that literacy learners were not attending classes daily, but 60 percent of the learners attend three times a week. The findings further show that on the days learners are not attending classes, they go to the market to sell their wares or participate in
income-generating activities organized by women's groups.

Class projects include cow keeping, merry-go-round, and vegetable farming. These projects encourage learners to attend classes and to have their own source of income. Findings indicated that 90 percent of learners in classes with class projects benefited in the form of income after selling their products. The remaining 10 percent were not sure whether the project had helped them. The study found that centers with projects had 80 percent attendance rates, while centers without projects had only 20 percent attendance rates. Observation indicated that incorporating projects into adult education classes encouraged learners to attend in larger numbers.

Kikambala Division, Kilifi District, Coast Province (A study by Nyawana, John, 1998)

This study is a good example of a concern expressed earlier about the rising number of illiterate young adults. The increasing number of underage learners may limit implementation of livelihood projects in functional literacy classes.

The findings of the study indicate that 27.5 percent of the learners were between the ages of 21 and 30 years and 25 percent were in the 10–20 year bracket. Learners at this age who attain the first level of literacy usually want to continue learning and are interested in education will offer them employment opportunities or daily life skills. They are most interested in learning about business skills, health care, and home economics.

Moyale location, Central Division of Moyale District, North Eastern Province (A study by Shariff, Omar)

Moyale District is situated in the far north and is bordered by Ethiopia. The majority of people are pastoralists and practise nomadic lifestyles. Prosperous businesses are found in the border town of Moyale, which is also the district headquarters. Women’s group projects were started in 1975. They engaged not only in sewing, weaving, buying plots, growing vegetables, and cookery, but also in spearheading educational activities in all fields of social life. Success was not universal: out of 29 projects only nine are functioning. The failure in promoting income-generating activities in many instances has been attributed to the women’s groups themselves and blamed on the age and the illiteracy of the members and the leaders’ insufficient leadership skills due to illiteracy.

Interviews with some members of the nine surviving groups revealed that they meet to undertake sewing, weaving, tailoring, bee keeping, growing vegetables, renting houses, embroidery, cooking, and other minor activities.

Reasons given for joining the women groups included:

- Buying plots for commercial purposes (20)
- Learning how to sew and weaving baskets (15)
- Learning better methods of growing vegetables (10)
- Learning how to read and write (5)

Achievements

- Made baskets for their own use and sale (6)
- Earned money to pay school fees from growing vegetables (10)
- Literacy (3)

Problems encountered by the members of the group:

- Illiteracy (20)
- Lack of enough finance (15)
- Poor leadership (18)
- Lack of security (10)
- Lack of combined effort from other officers (12)

Illiteracy was the most disturbing issue to both leaders and members of the projects. Most of the
active members do not know to read or write. The leaders also quoted the same problem of illiteracy, which resulted in poor leadership. Even if they attend seminars or courses organized by some NGOs, the participants do not get the full information, as they cannot record the discussions.

**Mwatate Division, Taita Taveta District**
*(A study by Mwale, C.J., 1998)*

Virtually every literacy project in every country starts with over enthusiasm and over subscription of enrollment where people would indeed like to be literate. However, when they attend classes for a certain period and find that the program does not provide any immediate benefit or any clear prospect for the future, they develop a negative attitude and hence they start dropping out.

In many cases where literacy education is not associated with learning of survival skills, participants withdraw. This has become a major problem. Daily attendance of the adult learners is extremely low. The majority of the learners who attend literacy classes belong to the deprived group. They join these classes with a hope that their economic situation will be improved. If literacy does not cater for their needs, they will abandon classes. Experience has shown that the most vibrant and sustainable literacy classes are those that have income-generating activities. Economic projects, therefore, will solve the problem of dropout and poor attendance in literacy classes.

It is evident that in most literacy centers the learners are mainly female with only one or two males. In Kenya women join together in groups for the common purpose of securing and promoting their socio-economic survival.

- Apart from increasing women's skills, the activities also hold the members together
- Aim at improving the welfare of the group members
- Create an atmosphere for learning other new things, and have many benefits.

Learners are motivated when they see the results of work-oriented literacy because it is usually planned in such a way that the learners make rapid progress and are able to use their new skills quickly. This encourages them to continue.

Teachers who are not capable of incorporating such activities in their classes may lose most of their class members in due course.

The learners were asked their reasons for joining adult literacy classes. Among those interviewed, 40 percent had class projects and 60 percent had no projects. Of the 40 percent, 41.7 percent said that they used the money from selling their project items to buy their writing materials, as well as to meet their children's and other family needs. Twenty-five percent relied on these projects as their sole source of income, while 33.3 percent said that they acquired knowledge and skills on the project.

Respondents suggested that in order to sustain class attendance, each class should start an income-generating project by:

- Holding seminars for adult learners on project management.
- Visiting other centers that have started projects in order to learn from them.
- Having government and NGOs provide funds for these ventures because financial assistance is their major problem.
- Initiating fund-raising specifically for adult literacy center projects, so that they can start such projects and attract others to class.

**Reasons for dropping-out**

The largest proportion of the dropouts (37.5 percent) said they were bored with being taught only reading and writing. Twenty-five percent said that they had other work to attend to, and 25 percent said that their center had no project, which was their main interest. Some 6.25 percent said that by the time they dropped out, they had learned how to read and write. The remaining 6.25 percent said that they did not see the use.

This survey shows that what they were taught in class could not meet the learners' needs. Some 87.5 percent of the drop-out respondents have since
joined other groups with income-generating projects that are not linked to literacy classes. Clearly, these members were very interested in such projects, but since they were not available in their literacy center, they were forced to drop out and join other groups. This evidence links unsustainable classes to lack of income-generating projects. Fourteen out of 16 dropout respondents said that they would be willing to go back to the literacy class if such projects were started.

Of the 10 literacy teachers interviewed, four had class projects and six did not. It was observed that in centers with projects, the attendance was higher than in centers without projects.

Livelihood training with literacy components

Although there is indeed much training for livelihoods and employment, little of it caters to people who have not had much schooling and who are to all intents and purposes illiterate. However, the Karungu Women’s Group provides an interesting exception.

The Karungu Women’s Group

The Karungu Women’s Group (KWG) started in 1981 as an income-generating project but later incorporated literacy training as a service to new members and to the community in general. The initiators were a few local women who had some basic primary education. In 1982, the group was registered as a self-help group in the Ministry of Culture and Social Services. They approached the Kenya Adult Education Association (KAEA) to help them to write a proposal to the Hellenic Institute for International Co-operation (HELINAS) for a loan to construct a building for the group’s activities.

Through hard work and with the help of the community, they managed to construct the ground floor of the building. With the help of HELINAS, the group started a cow project: some members of the group were given a grade cow-in-calf and when the cow calved, the calf would be given to a member of the group who had not received a cow previously. With the help of KAEA, the group approached the Ministry of Agriculture to provide an extension officer to train the women in better methods of cow care. While the agricultural extension officer remained employed by the government, the donor (HELINAS) topped up his salary for the extra work he was doing for the group. Later on, HELINAS donated a project vehicle, which they used to deliver the milk and to hire to the public to raise additional funds. Furthermore, a second trainer was employed to train the women in home economics.

As the group attracted more members, some of whom were illiterate, it became evident that a literacy class was needed to enable these non-literate members keep records and receive training in health, agriculture, and livestock rearing. These classes were also made available for any other members of the local community.

With financial assistance from CARE Kenya, the Kenya Adult Education Association developed a functional literacy training curriculum, specifically designed for the KWG literacy classes. This curriculum was designed with the participation of representative members of KWG, using the task-oriented method.

The group has now expanded with over 400 members and also has male members. Perhaps, the best unexpected result of the success of this group is not only the members of the group but also the community in general benefit from its activities.

A multi-purpose building was built, housing a dispensary, pharmacy, agro-vet shop, TV/video, classrooms for the literacy class and basic education classes as well as some utility rooms. In this way, the group provides, for a minimal fee, important services to the surrounding community. Furthermore, when the Ministry of Livestock Development discontinued the services of artificial insemination for livestock in the districts, two members of the group were trained as AIs and provide the needed services to all members of the community.

The project is run by a management committee, which includes members of the group and of the KAEA Executive. Narrative and financial reports are sent to KAEA quarterly. KAEA evaluates the project regularly and sends reports to the donor. KAEA also organizes exchange visits between this group and other groups to enrich their experiences and generate new ideas.
Conclusions

Perhaps the most important observation on adult literacy programs in Kenya is one that helps to explain their lack of effectiveness: most programs have been largely confined to the education sector. Kenya appears to be a firm believer in literacy for literacy's sake. However, the findings of the study suggest that such a strategy is misplaced. Literacy programs should not be confined simply to issues of education. They would be considerably more effective if they were embedded within the wider framework of both individual and community development. After all, literacy is expected to contribute to more than simply educational achievements.

Literacy skills contribute not only to peoples' economic opportunities and financial capital, but also to their self-esteem and confidence to participate in public affairs. A willingness to do a job is even more crucial than the knowledge and skill with which to do it. A good general education lays an essential foundation for training and employment, increased earnings, and employee mobility. Furthermore, it should also be noted that people's livelihoods are not static, but change according to their circumstances. Literacy programs embedded in livelihood skills and training therefore must also be flexible and adaptable to meet changing needs.

The emphasis on livelihoods as a strategy in the poverty eradication is a positive step in the right direction. However, if it is not integrated with providing opportunities for basic education, it may not achieve its aims. In discussions with a number of project officers who provide excellent services in the field of vocational training, it became clear that while the illiterate population forms the vast majority of the poorest people, they are often not involved, for various reasons, in the development programs. A major reason is that they cannot fully participate in the skills training programs, since such programs demand some level of basic education. Secondly, a high percentage of illiterate people feel intimidated by the bureaucracy, which involves filling out various forms.

In conclusion, we may say that literacy and livelihoods should be fully integrated if they are to achieve their goals.

References


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1. Language used is often that of the respondents or the researchers.
Annex 4

Cases from Senegal

Oumar SALL

(Original French Version)

Introduction

Dans cette étude sur le Sénégal, nous nous intéresserons principalement aux aspects "contenus et approches" de l’alphabétisation et de la formation des adultes dans les langues nationales ; en d’autre termes, au secteur de l’éducation non formelle.

L’activité d’alphabétisation au Sénégal remonte à plusieurs décennies, avec les expériences entreprises par les précurseurs de l’ARP (Association pour la Renaissance du Pulaar) et autres militants des langues nationales et de l’éducation des adultes.

Cependant, les États Généraux de l’Éducation et de la Formation, qui se sont tenus en 1981, constituent le repère le plus net pour situer historiquement l’intervention systématique de l’État dans ce domaine, ainsi que la participation active des ONG œuvrant en matière de formation et de développement.

Signalons qu’en 1983, un décret présidentiel a officiellement fixé les règles de transcription de six langues nationales, à savoir : le Wolof, le Pulaar, le Serer, le Joola, le Mandinka, et le Soninké.

A côté de ces langues, parlées par les différentes composantes de la population, on retrouve le Français qui est la langue officielle du pays.

L’enseignement formel dans les établissements primaires, secondaires et supérieurs, ainsi que dans les écoles de formation technique et professionnelle est dispensé en langue française.

L’accès aux fonctions et emplois dans le secteur moderne dépend, dans une large mesure, de la plus ou moins bonne maîtrise du Français.

Cependant, la faiblesse des ressources budgétaires disponibles, ajoutée aux insuffisances et lacunes du système formel rend de plus en plus difficile l’accès de tous à l’éducation, à la formation et à l’emploi.

Que faire alors de tous ces adultes, femmes et hommes illétrés qui constituent la force de travail sur lesquels doit reposer le développement économique et social du pays ?

Comment leur donner les compétences qui leur permettraient d’améliorer la productivité de leur travail ?

Quels mécanismes institutionnels doivent être mobilisés, quelles approches adopter liant la formation et les moyens de subsistance des apprenants ?

L’Éducation Non Formelle tente d’apporter une réponse à ces interrogations, à travers différents programmes d’alphabétisation et de formation des adultes.

Sur le plan institutionnel, le secteur de l’Éducation Non Formelle est placé sous la responsabilité et la tutelle d’un département ministériel aux domaines de compétences désormais élargis. En effet, d’importantes mutations viennent renforcer le secteur de l’alphabétisation qui est passé du statut de « Ministère délégué » à celui de « Ministère de l’Enseignement Technique, de la Formation Professionnelle, de l’Alphabétisation et des Langues nationales ».
Dans cette formulation actuelle, la connexion avec la formation professionnelle se trouve clairement établie. Une telle approche institutionnelle de la question, aussi clairement exprimée, est tout à fait nouvelle au Sénégal et épouse parfaitement la problématique de notre étude.

Elle semble également indiquer un renforcement et une amplification de la démarche du « faire-faire » de rigueur depuis bientôt quelques années, particulièrement depuis le démarrage du Projet PAPF (Projet d’Alphabétisation Priorité Femmes).

Actuellement, les activités d’alphabétisation sont menées principalement par quatre catégories d’intervenants :

- L’Etat et les structures décentralisées ;
- Les Projets Nationaux de développement ;
- Les Sociétés parapubliques Nationales ;
- Les Organisations Non Gouvernementales nationales ou étrangères.

Cependant, le défi à relever est celui de la pertinence et de l’efficacité des programmes d’alphabétisation, de leur impact positif sur le vécu des apprenants.

Or, la situation des apprenants, dont la majorité est constituée de femmes, est caractérisée par une certaine précarité des conditions d’existence. Ce qui pose d’emblée la question de la liaison entre les programmes d’alphabétisation et les moyens de subsistance.

Autrement dit, il est indispensable d’articuler les programmes d’alphabétisation avec les stratégies de lutte contre la pauvreté.

Ne devrait-on pas, d’ailleurs, aller plutôt vers la notion de « Formation pour le développement » ?

Nous examinerons successivement ici les deux principales stratégies qui sont :

- Une formation « lettrée » intégrant des moyens de subsistance ;
- Une formation aux moyens de subsistance intégrant une formation « lettrée ».

En ce qui concerne la première stratégie, nous présenterons deux expériences menées grâce à l’implication d’organisations non gouvernementales d’alphabétisation et de développement, en partenariat avec des structures extérieures similaires. Toutes les deux mettent l’accent sur une alphabétisation tournée vers l’amélioration des conditions de vies des apprenants, composés en majorité de femmes rurales des régions de Louga (avec ANAFA) et Fatick-Kaolack (avec ALPHA FEMMES). Nous mentionnerons aussi brièvement d’autres cas.

En ce qui concerne la deuxième stratégie, nous avons retenu le cas d’une société de développement qui a intégré dans sa démarche l’alphabétisation des populations de sa zone d’intervention.

Enfin, des expériences étudiées nous tirerons une série de recommandations destinées aux professionnels et autres intervenants de l’Education Non Formelle en Afrique SubSaharienne.

Formation « lettrée » avec composantes moyens de subsistance

Au Sénégal, beaucoup d’ONG et de Projets participent activement à la promotion et au développement des communautés de base, en particulier par des activités d’alphabétisation, accompagnées généralement d’activités génératrices de revenus. Ces différentes expériences se déroulent dans un contexte en pleine mutation.

Contexte

La longue tradition de multipartisme au Sénégal a finalement débouché, le 19 Mars 2000, après beaucoup de pérépéties, à ce qu’il est convenu d’appeler l’alternance politique à la tête de l’État. Le pays franchit une nouvelle étape dans la consolidation démocratique.

De fait, le principe de continuité et le maintien de certains grands programmes, initiés avec l’appui de partenaires au développement, font que dans le domaine de l’alphabétisation et de la formation, les options ont été confirmées, voire renforcées.

A partir des années 90, beaucoup de partenaires au développement ont consacré de nouvelles res-
sources au financement de l’alphabétisation, en par-
ticulier celle des femmes. Ces dernières se sont sou-
vent organisées dans des structures dénommées
GPF (Groupements de Promotion Féminine).
Les groupements de femmes, dont le nombre dé-
passe aujourd’hui 5.000, sont à leur tour organisés
dans une structure fédérative, la Fédération Natio-
 nale des Groupements de Promotion Féminine. Celle-
ci compte des structures décentralisées au niveau des
régions et des départements, voire des arrondisse-
ments et des communautés rurales du Sénégal.
La Fédération des Groupements de Promotion
Féminine représente une formidable force sociale sur
laquelle il est possible de compter pour modifier fon-
damentalement les paramètres de la situation so-
ciale, culturelle et économique du pays, caractérisée
par la précarité et l’insuffisance de la productivité.
La plupart des structures intervenant à la base
dans le domaine de la formation et du dévelop-
ment considèrent les groupements féminins comme
une structure adaptée au déploiement durable de
leurs activités.
C’est ainsi que de nombreux Projets et Pro-
grammes ont été mis en place pour soutenir la lutte
contre l’analphabétisme et les mauvaises conditions
de vie des populations, surtout chez les femmes. En
effet, la lutte contre la pauvreté ne peut avoir d’effi-
cacité sans prise en compte de l’une de ses dimen-
sions les plus fondamentales, à savoir la formation.
* Programme Elargi de Lutte Contre la Pauvreté
PELCP ;
* Programme d’Action Décennal de la Femme,
suite à la Conférence Mondiale de Pékin sur les
femmes ;
* Programme Décennal de l’Education et de la
Formation PDEF ;
* Projet Développement des Groupements de
Promotion Féminine ;
* Projet de Développement des Ressources
Humaines.
Le secteur formel est marqué par un très grand
taxe de chômage en même temps qu’un faible taxe
de productivité. Cette situation d’insuffisance de la
productivité est due, dans une large mesure, à un
faible niveau de formation et de qualification. D’où
toute l’importance d’une activité de renforcement
dans ce domaine.
Aussi bien en ville que dans les campagnes, le
manque de qualification technique se fait sentir et
limite considérablement la qualité du travail et le
niveau de productivité.
Sur le plan des orientations, on remarque de
fortes tendances à la décentralisation des activités,
y compris dans le domaine de l’alphabétisation et de
la formation par le principe du « faire-faire ».
Dans le même temps, une demande sociale de
plus en plus « impérieuse » et pressante se mani-
feste on observe une grande volonté de participa-
cion citoyenne, sous l’égide d’une « Société Civile »
naissante.
Pourtant, des milliers de personnes adultes
restent encore dans une situation marquée par
l’analphabétisme qui est un élément caractéristique
du sous-développement économique et social.
Il n’y a pas encore de solution pertinente à cet
important problème qui, pourtant, conditionne
dans une large mesure le devenir des États
africains.
La lutte contre l’analphabétisme ne peut être
engagée sans aller de pair avec celle de la promotion
individuelle des apprenants et de leur motivation.
Telle semble être la perception de nombre d’ONG et
Projets parmi lesquels on peut citer :
* Le PAPF « Projet d’Alphabétisation Priorité
Femmes » qui, dans sa phase actuelle dite Inte-
grée, semble aller dans la direction qui fait l’objet
de notre présente étude. Cependant, cette expé-
rience n’en est qu’à son début, ce qui fait qu’on
ne dispose pas encore de documentation perti-
nente utilement exploitable.
* L’intérêt de cette expérience du PAPF est que lors
de sa phase de lancement et d’extension au
niveau des régions concernées par le Pro-
gramme, il ne s’est d’abord agi que de donner
des capacités instrumentales dans une perspec-
tive « fonctionnelle » et de post-alphabétisation.
Aucune composante « moyens de subsistance »
n’était prise en considération ; il n’y avait alors
aucune activité de soutien économique pour améliorer le vécu quotidien des apprenants (composés à plus de 75 % de femmes dont l’âge varie de 15 à 45 ans). C’est d’ailleurs lors du déroulement du programme que la nécessité d’intégrer des activités génératrices de revenus s’est imposée.

- Projet Alpha-Femmes qui intervient dans les régions de Fatick et de Kaolack, grâce à l’appui de la coopération allemande.

- Organisation ANAFA (Association Nationale pour l’Alphabétisation et la Formation de Adultes) dans la région de Louga.

- TOSTAN qui intervient dans plusieurs régions du Sénégal.

Pour illustrer la stratégie de formation intégrant une composante « moyens de subsistance », nous retenons ici le cas de deux expériences développées au niveau des régions dites « de l’intérieur » par des structures d’éducation non formelle. Il s’agit de :


2. Projet Alpha-Femmes dans les Régions de Fatick et Kaolack. L’approche retenue par les deux Projets (ANAFA-Louga et Alpha-Femme à Fatick et Kaolack) est bien de lier alphabétisation et sa lutte contre la pauvreté, et cela aussi bien quant aux régions concernées (les plus désertées du pays) qu’aux catégories de population (les femmes, couchée à la fois vulnérable et déterminante dans la lutte contre le sous-développement du Sénégal).

Les deux Projets travaillent sur les deux leviers que sont : les éléments de formation et l’intégration des moyens de subsistance ayant comme finalité l’amélioration des conditions de vie des apprenants, dont la grande majorité est composée de femmes organisées au sein des Groupements de Promotion Féminine au niveau des régions.

Les composantes « moyens de subsistance » trouvent un support d’application dans la mise en œuvre d’activités économiques concrètes qui renforcent et améliorent considérablement les conditions de vie des personnes bénéficiant des activités d’alphabétisation et de formation.

Le Projet de Développement des Groupements de Promotion Féminine dans la Région de Louga a démarré dans un contexte marqué par la reconnaissance, un peu partout dans le pays, du rôle que les femmes peuvent et doivent jouer dans le développement économique et social du Sénégal.

Les femmes rurales en particulier ont entamé un processus d’organisation et ont créé des structures connues partout sous la dénomination de Groupements de Promotion Féminine.

L’essentiel des travaux domestiques, (productives et de reproduction) reposent sur elles. Elle sont par conséquent de véritables « protagonistes du développement ».

Pour qu’elles puissent jouer véritablement et pleinement leur rôle, il est nécessaire de leur fournir, simultanément, les deux instruments que sont : une formation de qualité (y compris organisationnelle) et des moyens de production économique.

Les efforts de formation, dans cette double approche apportent en effet une réponse à leurs préoccupations, leurs attentes et leurs demandes. La preuve en est donnée par leur forte adhésion aux programmes.

Le Projet de développement des groupements de promotion Féminine dans la Région de Louga, ainsi que celui d’Alpha-Femmes dans les régions de Fatick et kaolack viennent en appui à la politique de promotion de la femme, engagée par les pouvoirs publics du Sénégal depuis déjà plusieurs années.

La promotion de la femme recouvre, entre autres, les aspects liés à la valorisation des ressources humaines, l’éducation, l’organisation et l’amélioration des conditions de vie et le statut des bénéficiaires. Dans le cadre de leurs Groupements, elles se posent
de plus en plus comme protagonistes actives, du développement.
La volonté des femmes d’apprendre est forte, mais elles posent le problème simplement en ces termes : A quoi sert-il d’apprendre à lire et écrire si on sait que l’on n’aura ni la possibilité ni les moyens de mettre en pratique notre savoir-faire ?
Il se manifeste effectivement, un besoin de plus en plus pressant de formation au bénéfice des femmes qui demandent une formation utilitaire prenant sérieusement en compte leurs motivations mais aussi s’insère dans des activités socio-économiques d’accompagnement.
De telles activités nécessitent la mobilisation de beaucoup de ressources tant sur le plan humain que matériel.

Sur le plan humain :
Pour ce qui est du Projet ANAFA, une équipe de volontaires est constituée qui prend en charge les programmes de formation.
Elle est composée de :

- des alphabetisateurs (de 20 à 30 selon les années) ;
- des superviseurs (1 superviseur pour 10 alphabetisateurs) ;
- d’un coordinateur, responsable du Projet.

Pour ce qui concerne l’expérience de ANAFA, les alphabetisateurs sont des jeunes ayant déjà atteint au moins le niveau de l’enseignement secondaire et qu’ils engagent, pour la durée du Programme de formation, à servir comme alphabetisateurs au niveau des localités touchées par le Projet. Ils reçoivent une formation qui leur permettra d’effectuer convenablement le travail.
La structure se compose également de superviseurs chargés d’appuyer pédagogiquement les alphabetisateurs sur le terrain, deux fois par mois.

Sur le plan matériel (Projet ANAFA) :
Des supports didactiques sont mis en place : livres, cahiers d’apprentissage et d’exercices, écrivains, tables, tableaux, locaux pour faire les cours.

Outre ces moyens matériels, l’alphabetisateur dispose d’un support pédagogique, le Manuel ou « guide du moniteur ».
Le financement des projets économiques est également assuré grâce aux partenaires techniques. Les activités des femmes consistent à mettre en place des banques de céréales villageoises, des équipements qui allègent les travaux des femmes, des boutiques d’approvisionnement.

Sur le plan logistique (Projet ANAFA) :
Des voitures sont également mises à disposition pour effectuer les missions de suivi rapproché aussi bien du programme de formation que des activités économiques, les supervisions et les contrôles sur le terrain.
Aussi bien dans le cas d’ANAFA que d’ALPHA FEMMES, une structure ayant l’équipement adéquat se trouve au niveau de la Région d’intervention pour assurer un suivi et une exécution correcte des activités.

Partenariat avec les structures d’appui
Beaucoup de partenaires au développement, en accord avec les autorités de la Direction de l’alphabétisation et de l’Education de Base, apportent un appui institutionnel et financier qui permet aux structures d’intervention de procéder non seulement à la formation des apprenants dans le domaine de la lecture et de l’écriture, mais aussi à la mise en place d’activités qui puissent améliorer leurs conditions d’existence.
C’est ainsi que des activités génératrices de revenus (unités de transformation des céréales locales, unités et espaces de commercialisation, caisses d’épargne et de crédit, embouches ovine) ont pu être mises à la disposition des groupements de femmes. C’est le cas pour le Projet ALPHA FEMMES qui bénéficie du soutien de la coopération allemande par le canal de la GTZ (Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit).
De même, ANAFA a pu réaliser ses programmes d’alphabétisation et d’activités de promotion économique grâce au partenariat technique avec une ONG étrangère, la CISV, et au financement de l’Union Européenne et d’OXFAM-Grande Bretagne.
Participation en nature des populations bénéficiaires

Les populations apportent une contribution aux programmes par l’hébergement des moniteurs qui sont généralement bien intégrés au milieu et par un apport forfaitaire dans le cadre de certaines activités économiques.

De même, elles mettent à la disposition des programmes les locaux nécessaires.

Choix des organisations pour l’élaboration d’un projet, mise en place d’une coopération et d’un soutien institutionnel

Les associations de langues et les organisations de la société civile ont été actives depuis de longues années dans le domaine de l’alphabétisation.


Une expérience de cette démarche a été le démarrage du Projet d’Alphabétisation Priorité Femmes (PAPF), financé par la Banque Mondiale.

Toutes les organisations juridiquement reconnues sont habilitées à postuler la conduite d’une partie de ce Projet. Les coûts de fonctionnement sont assurés sur les fonds publiques qui fournissent ainsi un appui institutionnel à des associations qui se professionnalisent de plus en plus dans cette activité. ANAFA a pu bénéficier de cette opportunité pour enrichir son expérience.

Dans les cas qui nous intéressent ici, c’est à la suite d’un appel d’offre que les organisations sont retenues pour entreprendre le Projet. Elles sont sélectionnées en fonction principalement de leur capacité à conduire de tels programmes et de leur bonne insertion dans le milieu. Un cadre de partenariat est mis en place pour garantir le respect des engagements de la part des différentes parties impliquées.

Origine de l’initiative

Ce sont les populations appuyées aussi bien par ALPHA FEMMES que par ANAFA-Louga qui sollicitent, à travers leurs structures organisationnelles (Groupements Féminins et Fédération des Groupements) un appui en matière de formation, sous-tendue par une activité à caractère économique et un renforcement sur le plan organisationnel.

Au préalable, ANAFA, tout comme ALPHA FEMMES, ont procédé à des enquêtes et études de milieux pour déterminer les contours de la demande et la pertinence des besoins.

Dans le dispositif du Projet, il est prévu de soutenir les efforts d’auto promotion des cibles. Les activités de développement sont soutenues et accompagnées par l’alphabétisation et la formation.

Mais en tout état de cause, les bénéficiaires pour l’essentiel, adhèrent à l’initiative qui est donc prise de manière participative et consensuelle.

Identification et mobilisation des apprenants

Dans un premier temps, des assemblées générales d’information et de sensibilisation sont tenues au niveau de toutes les localités touchées par le Projet aussi bien dans le cas d’ANAFA-louga que d’Alpha-Femmes. Des tournées de sensibilisation sont régulièrement organisées dans le but d’identifier les personnes volontaires pour participer aux séances de formation.

Leurs coordonnées sont enregistrées dans des carnets de classes où figurent le nom de la localité, les noms et prénoms des apprenants, leur âge, leur sexe.

La mobilisation des apprenants se fait sur la base du volontariat, mais les candidats prennent un certain nombre d’engagements qui garantissent l’assiduité aux séances d’alphabétisation et de formation jusqu’à la fin du programme.

De plus, les apprenants mettent sur pied dans chaque centre d’alphabétisation un comité de gestion de la classe. Ce comité est chargé de maintenir la mobilisation et de renforcer la motivation, tout en veillant sur la discipline.

Centres d’intérêt des apprenants, leurs attentes et leurs besoins

Le contenu de la formation comporte toujours un aspect « normatif », à savoir, les capacités instrumentales à acquérir en lecture, écriture et en calcul. Ce contenu peut, pour ainsi dire, être considéré comme « obligatoire » pour tout apprentissage.
Outre cet aspect didactique, les centres d’intérêt des apprenants sont identifiés de manière participative, à l’occasion des rencontres d’animation et de sensibilisation avec les bénéficiaires.

À cette occasion, la curiosité des apprenants se manifeste par exemple très fortement. Ils expriment leur besoin de connaître des éléments de géographie et des sources de financement qui permettraient une amélioration croissante de leurs conditions de vie. C’est également lors de ces rencontres que les apprenants fixent les lieux de de formation, les jours et les horaires des cours.

Des discussions sont engagées pour conformer les horaires aux normes généralement admises en termes de durée minimale pour un programme d’alphabétisation (au moins 300 heures).

Les besoins des bénéficiaires sont donc déterminés, aussi bien par ANAFA-Louga que par Alpha-Femmes, de façon participative.

**Evolution des attentes des participants**

Pour connaître les attentes des apprenants et ce qui peut être un plus pour eux, les Projets (ANAFA-Louga et Alpha-Femmes) effectuent des études de terrain et des enquêtes de terrain. De plus, pendant toute la durée de la phase initiale, le moniteur et le superviseur notent l’évolution de la demande supplémentaire en formation.

Les Projets organisent en outre régulièrement des assemblées générales pour tester la conformité de la démarche avec les attentes des populations concernées par les programmes. En cas de besoin, des inflexions peuvent être apportées en cours d’exécution.

**Amendement et adaptation au fur et à mesure de la mise en œuvre du Projet**

Dans la mesure du possible, le programme de formation en lecture et écriture prend en compte la finalité qui est de donner aux apprenants des capacités pratiques étroitement liées à leurs conditions de vie. Mais au fur et à mesure de son déroulement, le programme évolue et intègre des éléments que les apprenants considèrent comme essentiels dans le cadre de leur vécu quotidien ou à venir.

Les activités de post-alphabétisation visent justement à renforcer certains aspects des capacités qui ont été acquises lors de la phase d’alphabétisation proprement dite.

**Identification, formation et soutien des formateurs**

Recrutés parmi les jeunes (garçons et filles) diplômés au chômage, sur la base de leurs compétences (pédagogie, communication sociale, technicité), et de leur engagement personnel, les alphabétiseurs de ANAFA vivent au village durant toute la durée du programme. Cette proximité leur permet à la fois de connaître et d’adapter leur pratique aux réalités villageoises et d’entretenir des relations soutenues avec l’ensemble des composantes de la communauté. Cette position leur confère un rôle de facilitateur et de régulateur des changements sociaux visés.

Pour certains, c’est aussi un apprentissage de la vie, puisqu’ils découvrent, parfois pour la première fois, la réalité du milieu rural. Cette expérience permet à ANAFA-Louga de contribuer à la lutte contre les préjugés entretenus entre ville et campagne.

Des séminaires de formation des formateurs sont organisés pour donner aux moniteurs la capacité de conduire les enseignements et d’être en mesure d’évoluer dans un milieu composé d’adultes, grâce donc à la maîtrise des éléments de pédagogie des adultes.

Durant toute la durée des sessions d’alphabétisation, le moniteur reçoit l’appui pédagogique du superviseur qui, lui-même, travaille sous la direction d’un coordinateur du Projet.

Des sessions de recyclage sont régulièrement organisées à l’intention des moniteurs pour renforcer et compléter leurs capacités.

Ceci est fondamental pour la bonne réussite d’un programme d’alphabétisation. En effet, il est indispensable d’accorder un grand soin à la formation des formateurs chargés en dernière instance de dispenser les cours aux apprenants.

C’est sans doute un des plus grands facteurs d’efficacité pour la réussite d’un programme d’alphabétisation.

Alpha-Femmes choisit de travailler avec des « opérateurs » évoluant dans ses régions d’interven-
tion (Fatick et Kaolack). Le Projet aide également les opérateurs dans l’estimation des coûts et dans la planification financière, ce qui constitue en soi un appui institutionnel appréciable. L’objectif visé ici est renforcer les capacités des intervenants dans le secteur de l’Éducation Non Formelle au Sénégal. Donc, Alpha-Femmes met en pratique, au niveau local, la politique du « faire-faire » telle que déjà initiée par le Gouvernement du Sénégal au niveau central.

Articulation entre enseignement général et formation visant d’amélioration des moyens de subsistance

Le contenu des séances de formation est conçu de façon à permettre aux apprenants de se familiariser avec les moyens de promotion socio-économique nécessaires à une amélioration de leur situation. La méthode d’enseignement est toujours associée à une animation portant sur les préoccupation du groupe d’apprenants.

C’est ainsi qu’une formation spécifique est toujours associée au programme général d’initiation stricto sensu à la lecture, à l’écriture et au calcul. Au niveau du Projet de Développement des Groupements Féminins de Louga, les activités génératrices de revenus sont mises en place après la première session d’alphabétisation. Tandis que Alpha-Femmes met dès le démarrage des cours un petit fonds 5.000 cfa pour chaque centre d’alphabétisation ouvert.

Méthodes et matériels d’instruction

Les matériels d’instruction relatifs aux contenus d’enseignement général sont produits par des structures spécialisées en la matière ; on note, il est vrai, une certaine insuffisance dans le domaine de la production et de l’édition en langues nationales.

Une partie des coûts de ces matériels est prise en charge par les apprenants. Cela illustre le niveau d’engagement et de motivation des bénéficiaires de ces programmes de formation.

Quant aux moyens de soutien économique pour les activités génératrices de revenus, ils sont assurés par le Projet, avec également une participation forfaitaire des bénéficiaires.

Système interne et externe de contrôle, évaluation formative, validation des connaissances, évaluation finale, feedback, adaptation

Le Projet ANAFA-Louga met en place un système de supervision : deux fois par mois les taux de présence, les absences et abandons sont enregistrés, les superviseurs suivent également le niveau des motivations (sur le plan domestique, sanitaire, social, et autres), ainsi que le niveau de progression atteint par les apprenants. Ce système permet aussi de déceler les insuffisances et autres difficultés qui se présentent et de proposer des solutions aux apprenants et à l’alphabétiseur.

La supervision est également un moment de renforcer la mobilisation, le dialogue avec les populations. Elle permet de déceler les éventuelles difficultés de quelque nature qu’elles soient et d’y apporter la solution la plus appropriée possible.

Elle est une occasion pour mesurer les progrès réalisés dans la gestion des activités de promotion mises en place par le Projet (Ligne de crédits, petits projets économiques, fonctionnement de la structure organisationnelle, etc.).

Des carnets individuels d’évaluation permanente permettent au moniteur de suivre les performances de chaque apprenant et le niveau de progression de la classe en général.

Cela lui permet d’accorder une plus grande attention aux personnes qui rencontrent le plus de difficulté.

Des tests à mi-parcours et à la fin de la session sont organisés pour voir les résultats obtenus par les apprenants.

Tout le long du processus d’appui aux initiatives économiques, un suivi est effectué sur le terrain pour accompagner les efforts fournis par les bénéficiaires, surtout en matière d’autonomie.

Résultats en termes de fréquentation, d’achèvement et taux de «succès»

Les taux de fréquentation sont assez élevés et avoisinent souvent plus de 70 % des effectifs du Projet de Développement des GPF de Louga. Les abandons constatés sont très faibles dans l’ensemble. Les abandons sont généralement dus à la
santé (il n’est pas rare, par exemple, que les femmes soient en état de grossesse en cours de programme).

Le nombre total de personnes impliquées dans le programme de Alpha-Femmes de 1997 à 2000 s’est élevé à 5 685 adultes.

Pour ce qui du Projet de Développement des Groupements de Promotion Féminines dans la Région de Louga, le nombre s’élève à 5 530 femmes avec un taux de réussite de 76,6 % et un taux d’abandon de 12 %.

Résultats en termes d’utilisation de l’apprentissage

Il est évident que les acquis des apprentissages ne peuvent être maintenus que s’ils sont régulièrement utilisés par les apprenantes. C’est le cas lorsque des ouvrages sont disponibles en langues nationales. C’est le cas également lorsque la gestion quotidienne d’une activité économique fait l’objet de documents écrits.

La première mesure prise par Alpha-Femmes est de mettre de petites bibliothèques d’une vingtaine d’ouvrages à la disposition des apprenantes afin qu’elles se perfectionnent en lecture ou, tout simplement, se familiarisent avec le médium écrit. Le choix des livres est assez varié pour répondre aux intérêts individuels de tous (poèmes, contes, documents techniques sur la santé, l’élevage, l’agriculture, bandes dessinées, etc.).

La gestion de leurs activités se trouvent également sensiblement améliorée sur le plan qualitatif.

Au terme de l’apprentissage, dont la durée est de douze mois pour le Projet de Développement des Groupements de Promotion Féminine avec ANAFA-Louga, les femmes commencent à tenir un cahier de caisse, remplir des requêtes et des décharges, ouvrir un compte en banque.

L’usage et la manipulation, par exemple, de la monnaie pour lire l’heure et du téléphone constitue des utilisations pratiques que les apprenantes accueillent favorablement.

La maîtrise du calendrier, aussi banale que cela puisse être pour quelqu’un qui a fréquenté l’école, n’en constitue pas moins pour la « néo-alphabète » un acquis très important.

Au niveau du savoir-être, la mise en place de la classe et de l’activité économique amène les femmes à négocier, à prendre des décisions communes, à faire face ensemble aux difficultés qui se présentent. Ces acquis présentent un premier pas vers l’autonomie et la prise de conscience réaliste des forces et faiblesses de la classe en tant que groupe.

Une forme de démocratie élémentaire se met ainsi en place, fondée sur le choix éclairé et libre des dirigeantes et responsables des activités du Groupement.

Résultats en termes d’effets sur les apprenants et les groupes en matière de revenus, de qualité de vie, et sur le plan psycho-social

Les apprenants savent mieux gérer leurs revenus et conduire leurs activités économiques avec beaucoup plus d’autonomie et de contenance, ce qui accroît le niveau de confiance des femmes en elles-mêmes.

En outre, l’organisation interne des groupements est nettement améliorée, grâce à une plus grande démocratie dans les modes de fonctionnement du groupement.

L’introduction d’une gestion écrite des activités économiques collectives, dans des documents accessibles à toute personne sachant lire, est une donnée fondamentale pour promouvoir les principes de la transparence et introduire les notions de rentabilité économique.

Les mesures d’hygiène et de prévention dans le domaine de la santé sont de plus en plus intégrées dans les habitudes courantes.

Le statut social et économique de la femme se trouve fortement revalorisé. Une perception nouvelle de la femme se répand. Le groupement des femmes atteint de ce fait un niveau de fonctionnalité beaucoup plus grand.

Dans la plupart des villages où intervient le Projet ANAFA-Louga, l’habitude se crée de prendre exemple sur le groupement des femmes.

Il ne faut pas perdre de vue que le niveau de socialisation est très élevé chez les femmes rurales où la personne est fortement imprégnée des valeurs du groupe.

Ces résultats sont également constatés au niveau des villages appuyés par Alpha-Femmes.
Les avantages d’une « alphabétisation intégrée »

L’expérience de ANAFA dans la Région de Louga fait apparaître concrètement une synergie des activités d’éducation et de formation avec celles de développement socio-économique (santé, environnement, citoyenneté, activités génératrices de revenus, renforcement organisationnel et institutionnel).

La plupart des apprenants posent toujours la question de savoir à quoi servira finalement la formation, sans une application concrète dans les différents actes de la vie. Généralement, l’adulte n’aime pas « perdre son temps ».

Autrement dit, la lutte contre l’alphabétisme des femmes c’est aussi la lutte pour la transformation des rapports sociaux fondés sur l’inégalité des sexes, de leurs bases infra-structurelles et de leurs prolongements institutionnels et idéologiques.

L’alphabétisation et la formation peuvent y contribuer, mais elles sont loin de suffire à elles seules. Il est donc important de procéder à une réflexion riche et approfondie sur les connexions à faire entre l’alphabétisation d’une part, et Emploi, Production, Santé, Population, Environnement, Citoyenneté, activité génératrice de revenus, etc., sur le renforcement des capacités des élus, dans le cadre de la décentralisation administrative et locale. Indirectement, il donne aux élus locaux l’une des possibilités accrues de prendre plus tard en charge les problèmes de développement de leurs localités.

En revanche, les sociétés de développement ont commencé par prendre en charge les préoccupations de subsistances des populations en y intégrant une formation « lettrée ».

Formation aux moyens de subsistances intégrant lecture et écriture

Sur une longue période, les Pouvoirs Publics ont pris d’importantes initiatives institutionnelles destinées à traduire concrètement sur le terrain la volonté politique d’alphabétisation au Sénégal.

C’est ainsi que des structures d’Etat ont pu être mises en place :

- La Direction de l’Alphabétisation et de l’Education de Base
- Le Ministère Délégué Chargé de la Promotion des Langues Nationales
- Ministère de l’Enseignement Technique, de l’Alphabétisation et de langues nationales.

Parallèlement à ces mesures d’envergure en matière d’alphabétisation, des pratiques de formation et de qualification professionnelle ont été développées par les pouvoirs publics principalement en direction des secteurs productifs modernes.

Parmi les premières sociétés parapubliques d’encadrement des agriculteurs à avoir introduit l’alphabétisation dans les programmes de développement, on peut citer :

- la SODEVA (Société de Développement et de Vulgarisation Agricole) qui intervenait dans la
zone de production arachidière. Elle a incorporé des éléments de formation destinés à rendre les producteurs beaucoup plus performants. La suppression des activités de cette structure a mis fin à l’expérience.

- La SODESP (Société de Développement de la zone Sylvo Pastorale) qui a également aujourd’hui disparu. Elle était active dans l’appui et l’encadrement des élévateurs.

- Toujours dans cette catégorie de structures, on peut parler de la SAED (Société d’Aménagement et d’Etude du Delta) qui intervient dans la partie Nord du Sénégal, pour soutenir les producteurs du riz dans la Vallée du Fleuve Sénégal.

- Le PAPEL (Projet d’Appui à l’Elevage)


Nous avons choisi de nous intéresser à cette dernière structure à titre d’exemple de « formation visant les moyens de subsistances avec intégration d’éléments de formation générale de base ». 

Pendant près d’une trentaine d’années, la SODEFITEX s’est consacrée au développement du secteur agricole en encadrant des producteurs de la zone cotonnière dans la Région du Sénégal Oriental et en réalisant des investissements matériels et financiers considérables.

La SODEFITEX dépendait à ses débuts du Ministère du Développement Rural et de l’Hydraulique. Elle est actuellement sous tutelle du Ministère de l’Agriculture. Dès sa création par l’Etat du Sénégal, en 1974, comme société mixte, la SODEFITEX s’est assignée, entre autres objectifs, d’améliorer les revenus des producteurs de coton de la Région et de stimuler la croissance économique de la zone d’intervention, en misant notamment sur :

- le renforcement du dispositif de vulgarisation et d’appui aux organisations de producteurs (plus de 80.000 personnes) ;
- la modernisation des pratiques agricoles ;
- l’organisation et la responsabilisation des producteurs ;
- la mise en place de programmes d’alphabétisation et de formation.

Après une dizaine d’années de présence sur le terrain, la SODEFITEX a finalement pris la résolution de lancer un programme d’alphabétisation en faveur des producteurs.

En effet, elle en était arrivée à la conviction qu’un des freins les plus importants à la responsabilisation des producteurs et à la modernisation de l’agriculture était assurément l’analphabétisme.

C’est pourquoi la Société a décidé de démarrer, au cours de la campagne 1983/84, un vaste programme d’alphabétisation et de formation des producteurs.

Contexte

Cette période de démarrage du programme d’alphabétisation et de formation de la SODEFITEX correspond à la mise en place de ce qu’il est convenu d’appeler, la « Nouvelle Politique Agricole » au Sénégal, qui traversait une situation de profondes et difficiles réformes économiques alors en cours dans tout le pays.

Un des axes essentiels de cette Nouvelle Politique Agricole était précisément « la responsabilisation des producteurs » du monde rural.

Le monde rural représente plus de 70 % de la population en âge de travailler. Mais malgré son importance en termes de création d’emplois, le taux d’analphabétisme y est très grand. Certains avancent des chiffres qui dépassent 80 %.

Cette situation ne manque pas de se répercuter au niveau de la productivité du travail et donc sur les performances globales du secteur agricole.

Partant de ce constat, la plupart des structures d’appui et d’encadrement du monde rural ont initié des politiques d’accompagnement de leurs activités de production par des activités d’alphabétisation et de formation.

La SODEFITEX s’était fixée comme objectif à moyen terme l’alphabétisation et la formation de 5
agro-pasteurs pour chacune des 1740 Associations de Base des Producteurs (APB) dans sa zone (objectif atteint à hauteur de 78 %).

À long terme, la SODEFITEX œuvre pour que chacune des 27.179 exploitations agricoles qu’elle encadre dispose d’au moins une personne « lettrée » en mesure de se comporter en agriculteur moderne susceptible de capitaliser les progrès techniques et d’assurer une comptabilité et une gestion rigoureuses.

Les objectifs quantitatifs cités ci-dessus montrent clairement tout ce qu’il reste encore à faire dans le domaine de la lutte contre l’illettrisme. Cela n’enlève rien au mérite de la SODEFITEX, et à la pertinence de la direction choisie : donner des éléments de formation aux producteurs.

Mais il faut reconnaître que le nombre de personnes touchées par l’alphabétisation comparativement à la masse des producteurs organisés est naturellement encore très faible pour le moment.

Ressources actuellement affectées : sur les plan humain et matériel

Sur le plan humain, un personnel est mis en place chaque année. A titre d’exemple, pour le programme de l’année 1998/99, avec un effectif de 2.898 auditeurs à alphabétiser dans l’une des trois langues nationales parmi les plus parlées dans la zone (le Wolof, le Mandinka, le Pulaar), la SODEFITEX a engagé 117 moniteurs.

Ces moniteurs sont placés sous la responsabilités de 26 superviseurs. En outre, il y a 6 responsables de programmes qui sont mobilisés pour les besoins de la campagne d’alphabétisation 98/99.

La moyenne calculée sur une période de 5 années donne les chiffres suivants : 147 classes ouvertes par année (donc, autant de moniteurs) pour 3528 auditeurs.

Au tout début, la période d’alphabétisation se déroulait sur 8 mois répartis sur un cycle de 2 années. Mais depuis 1990, une méthode dite « intensive » a été testée, puis généralisée à partir de 1992. Elle se déroule sur 4 mois, de Janvier à Avril, à raison de 24 heures par semaine, soit 400 heures d’enseignement pour le cycle qui, lui, a été ramené entre temps à une année.

Les membres du personnel (agents-vulgarisateurs et assistants superviseurs) disposent chacun d’un vélocimoteur pour assurer le suivi du programme, l’animation des associations de villages, la formation générale et la formation permanente et continue des techniciens paysans.

Nature des organisations qui entreprennent pareille formation

La SODEFITEX est, comme déjà indiqué, une société mixte de développement. Mais le programme de formation est assuré actuellement grâce aux structures-relais des producteurs qui ont établi avec la société un contrat de partenariat qui garantit la poursuite des activités déjà engagées.

Coopération et soutien institutionnel

Les organisations effectuent les programmes grâce aux « néo-alphabetisés » issus des villages auxquels la Société garantit un soutien institutionnel dans le cadre d’un partenariat.

Origine de l’initiative

L’initiative de mettre en place un programme d’alphabétisation est venue de la SODEFITEX, mais les producteurs ont très vite adhéré à ce projet.

Au début, les cours étaient assurés par le personnel technique de la Société, avant que les villageois eux-mêmes ne prennent le relais comme moniteurs.

Identifier et mobiliser les apprenants

Les auditeurs sont choisis parmi les volontaires du village qui abrite le centre d’alphabétisation. Ils peuvent aussi provenir des villages environnants.

Ces volontaires dont l’âge est compris entre 20 et 40 ans, s’engagent devant l’assemblée villageoise à suivre avec assiduité les cours d’alphabétisation. Leur intérêt pour les apprentissages est très grand, conscients qu’ils sont du fait que l’autonomie et le progrès dans leurs méthodes culturelles passent nécessairement par l’alphabétisation.
Centres d’intérêt des apprenants, leurs attentes et leurs besoins

Les centres d’intérêt des apprenants sont identifiés grâce aux multiples rencontres et assemblées que les encadreurs de la Société effectuent régulièrement auprès de producteurs. Ils tournent essentiellement autour du besoin de plus grande maîtrise des techniques et méthodes modernes de production, ce qui détermine dans une large mesure, le niveau de leurs revenus.

Amendement et adaptation au fur et à mesure de la mise en œuvre du Projet

Au fur et à mesure que de nouvelles données et innovations apparaissent, elles sont intégrées dans le programme de formation tout en répondant au mieux aux préoccupations des apprenants.

Identification, formation et soutien des formateurs

Comme nous l’avons signalé plus haut, les formateurs étaient tout d’abord issus du personnel technique de la Société. Mais avec l’accroissement du nombre de personnes alphabétisées, le recrutement s’effectue parmi elles à l’aide de tests de sélection. Un séminaire de renforcement est organisé pour les préparer à leur travail de formateurs.

Articulation entre enseignement général et formation visant l’accroissement des moyens de subsistance

Le relais technique villageois alterne la formation d’enseignement général et l’acquisition de meilleures capacités de production agricole. En fait la formation « lettrée » va de pair avec la formation technique qu’elle contribue à « éclairer ».

Méthodes et matériels d’instruction

Le matériel pédagogique est composé de livrets, de cahiers, d’ardoises et d’écritoire dont la valeur peut arriver approximativement à la somme de 5000 Cfa par apprenant.

Pour ce qui concerne les moyens d’accroissement de la production (donc des revenus), la SODEFITEX met à la disposition des apprenants des intrants agricoles (semences, matériel) et un système de financement et de commercialisation, le tout, sur la base de contrats de partenariat signés avec les organisations paysannes dénommées Groupements de Producteurs de Coton (GPC).

Système interne et externe de contrôle,
évaluation formative, validation des connaissances, évaluation finale,
feedback, adaptation

Les superviseurs et autres responsables de l’alphabétisation effectuent des tests, aussi bien en cours de programme qu’à la fin du cycle, pour connaître les niveaux des connaissances acquises par les auditeurs.

Les résultats finaux sont également établis à la fin de chaque campagne.

Résultats en termes de fréquentation,
d’achèvement et taux de « succès »

En considérant toute la période couverte par les différentes campagnes d’Alphabétisation de la SODEFITEX, c’est-à-dire de 1984 à 1999, les résultats cumulés sont les suivants :

- Nombre total de centres d’alphabétisation ouverts : 1 378
- Nombre total de villages inscrits : 5 013
- Nombre total d’auditeurs inscrits : 35 865 dont 5 908 femmes
- Nombre total d’auditeurs testés : 24 814 dont 3 393 femmes
- Nombre total de « succès » : 19 634 dont 3 275 femmes.

NB : Il faut signaler que les femmes sont parvenues à réaliser un taux de « succès » plus élevé que les hommes. Peut-être sont-elles plus motivées ?
Pour ce qui est des fréquentations et des abandons, la seule indication dont nous disposons porte sur la campagne 1998/99 qui montre une moyenne de 20 % d’abandons.

**Résultats en termes d’utilisation de l’apprentissage**

Globalement, le programme de la SODEFITEX se traduit par la mise en œuvre d’un message technique basé sur l’intégration agriculture-élevage.

En outre, on assiste au remplacement du personnel technique de la Société par des villageois devenus moniteurs d’alphabétisation, ce qui indique un réinvestissement des connaissances acquises en formation.

Dans le domaine des activités productives, des agriculteurs assument avec compétence le relais des services de vulgarisation au profit de leur communauté de base.

Un des résultats de l’assistance aux APB est l’émergence d’organisations d’agriculteurs capables d’assurer la commercialisation primaire du coton, de gérer le crédit agricole et diverses activités d’intérêt public : sécurité alimentaire, boutiques villageoises, pharmacies vétérinaires, magasins d’intrants, entre autres.

Dans notre contexte de développement, ces relais techniques villageois sont devenus un maillon essentiel pour un accroissement rapide de l’ensemble de la production, et par conséquent, des revenus.

**Résultats en termes d’effets sur les apprenants et les groupes en termes de revenus, de qualité de vie et sur le plan psychosocial**

Les responsables de la SODEFITEX ont pu constater un accroissement de 6 % du rendement agricole par rapport à celui du producteur analphabète, et donc de la productivité du travail chez les agriculteurs ayant bénéficié d’une alphabétisation.

Cela se traduit par une demande en alphabétisation de plus en plus de la part des producteurs. Les avantages liés à l’autonomisation dans sont également un élément très apprécié par les alphabétisés qui savent que le facteur déterminant dans la responsabilisation qu’ils ont obtenue de la SODEFITEX a été justement l’alphabétisation.

Désormais, ils sont bénéficiaires de transferts de compétences croissants dans le cadre de leurs organisations de base que sont les Groupements de Producteurs de Coton.

**En résumé :**

L’expérience de la SODEFITEX montre que la formation peut parfaitement servir les activités de production de moyens de subsistance qu’elle contribue à améliorer dans une large mesure. Les paysans sont aujourd’hui conscients du fait que l’autonomie villageoise et partant, le progrès, passent nécessairement par une alphabétisation de qualité.

**Conclusions et recommandations concernant principalement l’Afrique subsaharienne**

Il semble se dessiner partout dans le monde, une forte volonté d’admettre la nécessité d’articuler la lutte contre la pauvreté et la lutte pour une politique de formation des hommes. Il s’agit donc d’une part, d’un engagement politique, s’assurant la participation des populations concernées et, d’autre part, d’une mobilisation des ressources humaines et matérielles nécessaires à une telle entreprise.

La position déterminante des femmes dans le processus de développement semble également une donnée acquise. Les statistiques indiquent qu’au Sénégal, les femmes assurent 60 % du travail agricole et 40 % de la main-d’œuvre dans le secteur informel. Mais l’accès aux progrès techniques pour renforcer leurs aptitudes à tirer profit de leurs ressources est hypothiqué par l’analphabétisme féminin qui avoisine 80 %.

La réponse à cette situation de fait est à chercher non seulement dans la structure de la population, mais dans l’ensemble des finalités économiques, sociales et culturelles que recèle toute opération d’alphabétisation.

Il est vrai que des efforts notoires ont été faits dans le domaine de l’alphabétisation par différents intervenants (États, ONG, Projets de développement, Partenaires institutionnels extérieurs). Néanmoins, beaucoup de problèmes demeurent encore.
Une échelle de priorité

Il est possible de s’inspirer des outils utilisés dans le secteur formel pour les adapter dans le domaine de l’éducation non formelle, tout en tenant compte bien sûr, des spécificités de chacun des deux.

Faire en sorte que l’alphabétisation ne soit plus une action d’appoint, mais plutôt une action prioritaire préalable à tout projet de développement. L’alphabétisation permet d’accroître la productivité des producteurs à la base, des ouvriers, et des opérateurs du secteur informel. Elle permettra aux alphabétisés de maîtriser leur environnement immédiat et de s’épanouir pleinement dans le cadre de leur milieu naturel.

Les deux stratégies doivent, comme nous l’avons dit plus haut, pouvoir aller de pair et tout semble indiquer qu’une formation qui s’en tient à la lecture, à l’écriture et au calcul, même si elle présente un intérêt pour un adulte, reste toutefois insuffisante.

De même une formation visant uniquement les moyens de subsistance sans un « éclairage » obtenu grâce aux symboles du code écrit est loin de lever tous les handicaps.

La question des langues

Dans les entreprises, les ouvriers manifestent le besoin de s’alphabétiser en Français, mais hélas trop souvent les budgets ne prévoient que des programmes de perfectionnement des cadres, en vue d’accroître leurs performances.

Par ailleurs la non utilisation des langues nationales dans l’administration et les services publics n’est pas de nature à encourager les travailleurs à s’alphabétiser dans les langues nationales. Cependant, un espoir apparaît avec la récente décision des autorités du Sénégal de faire alphabétiser tous les fonctionnaires de l’État dans l’une au moins des langues nationales. Cette mesure constitue un signal fort en direction de la valorisation et de la promotion de ces langues.

Il faut également s’orienter vers des mesures et initiatives qui puissent donner des raisons supplémentaires aux apprenants de comprendre et d’accepter que s’alphabétiser dans les langues nationales n’est pas une « perte de temps », mais plutôt une voie d’accès à la maîtrise de certains outils nécessaires à leur information, leur formation et leur promotion sociale.

Le personnel d’appui sur le terrain

Le problème qui se pose ici est celui d’une bonne maîtrise de la gestion administrative et budgétaire qui nécessite la formation des intervenants et le renforcement des capacités dans un secteur qui requiert de plus en plus de professionnalisme.

Il est nécessaire de faire appel à des formateurs ayant déjà une bonne formation technique, pour les engager comme alphabétisateurs.

Le choix de moniteurs ayant déjà une technicité serait un gage de succès.

L’efficacité d’un programme de « formation au développement » dépend dans une grande mesure des capacités et de la technicité des alphabétiseurs eux-mêmes. C’est pourquoi, ils doivent être sélectionnés avec un grand soin. L’esprit de volontariat et l’engagement de respecter les principes qui guident l’action de formation sont une préqualification nécessaire chez les instructeurs. De même, il est bon qu’ils aient un certain background qui leur permette de bien assimiler notre problématique, à savoir : la nécessité d’une connexion étroite entre la sphère de l’éducation et de la formation d’une part, et la sphère des conditions de vie et moyens de subsistance, d’autre part.

Une formation permanente est également requise pour que l’alphabétisateur soit en mesure de donner « une valeur ajoutée » aux apprenants, pas seulement des notions de lecture, écriture et calcul, mais un plus dans les domaines de préoccupation des bénéficiaires des programmes.

Il doit être capable de s’ouvrir aux nouvelles innovations et approches qui pourraient intervenir dans le secteur de la formation et de l’éducation des adultes, qui est en constante mutation.

Une valorisation des acteurs de l’alphabétisation est nécessaire afin de formaliser de plus en plus cette activité, voire la « normaliser ».

Approches et articulations qui semblent promettre une plus grande efficacité

Il est donc important de procéder à une réflexion riche et approfondie sur les connexions à faire entre
Alphabétisation d’une part, Emploi, Production, Santé, Population, Environnement, Démocratie et Culture d’autre part.

De là ont émergé des approches, des programmes et des projets d’alphabétisation intégrée qui peuvent apporter des réponses stratégiques et opérationnelles à l’analyse de la situation et la satisfaction des besoins des apprenants.

Réfléchir sur les connexions entre l’alphabétisation, la production des moyens de subsistance, dans une dynamique mettant la femme au premier plan se révèle alors d’une importance capitale.

Il est nécessaire d’arriver à une harmonisation des actions d’alphabétisation à travers un cadre de référence qui définira une Grille Nationale d’Évaluation.

Cette harmonisation des méthodes devra cependant permettre aux acteurs sur le terrain de l’alphabétisation de garder leurs spécificités.

Il est nécessaire d’identifier le contenu, les approches matérielles et pédagogiques et les supports les plus efficaces.

L’articulation entre la formation générale et la formation visant l’amélioration des moyens d’existence est la voie la plus indiquée pour apporter un plus aux apprenants. Ce programme doit s’accompagner d’une politique de conception d’ouvrages qui traitent de façon spécifique tous les aspects liés au développement des ressources productives.

Ressources nécessaires sur les plans quantitatif et qualitatif pour une efficacité satisfaisante

Pour atteindre une efficacité satisfaisante, il nécessaire qu’un consensus résulte d’une concertation entre les différents acteurs du développement.

La combinaison entre les activités productives et les activités de formation doit trouver un terrain d’application dans la conception de tous les projets de développement.

Il doit être possible d’établir un pourcentage de formation à intégrer dans tout projet qui vise le développement.

En s’inspirant de l’indice de développement humain (qui semble bénéficier d’un consensus minimum) il est parfaitement possible de mesurer le « coût du développement humain » pour une personne adulte considérée. Il peut constituer une base de référence.

Les coûts

L’extrême variabilité des coûts de formation, des crédits horaires d’une structure à une autre ne facilite pas la mise en œuvre de programmes de formation élaborés et homogènes. Nous partageons bien cette conviction selon laquelle l’éducation n’a pas de prix, même si elle comporte un coût.

Systèmes de monitoring, estimation, évaluation et feedback

Des normes reconnues partout en la matière sont indispensables. Elles auront l’avantage de permettre une mesure fiable de tout programme de formation, grâce notamment à l’adoption d’indicateurs objectivement vérifiables et validés. Il est nécessaire d’arriver à un cadre de référence qui définira une Grille Nationale d’Évaluation.

Partenariat solidaire

De par la nature même du contexte actuel de la coopération dans les domaines aussi bien du développement que de la formation qui sont, de notre point de vue, deux sphères indissociables, il est indispensable de travailler en partenariat solidaire, cela signifie que tous les acteurs soient soumis aux règles et principes unanimement reconnus en matière de Planification, Suivi, Evaluation et Réalisation.

La nécessité de la coopération impose de fait une certaine ouverture d’esprit, le partage des résultats, des processus pour les atteindre, de leur impact et du contexte d’évolution.

Références

Annex 5

Cases from Uganda

Anne Ruhweza Katahoire

Preliminary note

The study’s basic task was to examine two broad approaches to combining livelihood training with literacy instruction. One approach incorporates training for livelihood skills into mainly literacy instruction or “literacy first.” The other incorporates literacy instruction into training for mainly livelihood skills or “literacy second.” The study used available documentary accounts to come up with the case studies presented in this report. While there are many literacy programs and projects currently being implemented in the country, only a few cases are presented here. It was evident during the course of the study that there is very little systematic documentation of literacy programs in Uganda, especially documentation that could help those not directly involved in the programs to learn about them and to draw lessons from their experiences. Many of the reports available were very scanty indeed, with hardly any analytical descriptions of the programs. Systematic documentations of the impact of the literacy programs were also almost non-existent.

Particularly difficult to find were reports on literacy programs run by local NGOs and Community Based Organizations (CBOs). An evaluation study of literacy programs in Uganda in 1999 observed that the explosion of NGOs and CBOs on the Uganda scene in recent years has seen quite a number of them involved in literacy and adult education. Attempts to get documentation on these programs however were fruitless. Those that were available had very scanty information indeed. There is a very urgent need in Uganda for both government and NGOs engaged in literacy to systematically document their experiences in a detailed manner that will enable others to understand the process they have been through and to learn from their experiences. There is also the urgent need to conduct detailed impact studies of these programs. This kind of documentation of literacy programs in Uganda seems to be currently non-existent. Reasons for this are not very clear. While as previously noted there are many adult literacy programs in Uganda, those presented in this report are those programs that have tried to combine literacy with livelihood training. Secondly because this study was a documentary review, the cases described are those that have documented their experiences over the years or that have been documented through process review and evaluation. These programs include the Government Functional Adult Literacy Program, Action Aid’s Literacy Programs and ADRA’s Functional Learning Program.

Introduction

Uganda’s estimated population is 22.2 million people, of which 50.8 percent are women. The literacy rate for Uganda is currently estimated to be 65 percent, but this is a very crude estimate, given that the last national census was in 1991. Adult literacy rates are higher in the urban (87 percent) than
in the rural (59 percent) areas, and the literacy rate among women (51 percent) is lower than that among men (77 percent) (National Household Census 2000: 16–17).

In Uganda 75 percent of the total population are employed in the agricultural sector working as subsistence farmers who get very little return through cash crop production. This has heightened rural-urban migration, which has led to unemployment and underemployment. The government has put in place programs like the modernization of agriculture, micro credit schemes (like Entandikwa) targeted at decreasing rural poverty. These programs, however, mainly benefit those already literate. Illiterate people lack the skills to use such monies and hence miss out on what could have helped their situation (Okech et al. 1999 and FAL 2000 Annual Report on the Functional Adult Literacy Program, Functional Adult Literacy Strategic Investment Plan 2001). In 1997, Uganda introduced Universal Primary Education, and parents are increasingly expected to play an active role in their children’s education, but this may be impossible when a parent cannot read, write, or count. In addition, illiterate people continue to miss out on vital health information by not understanding what is being said or passed on, due to the lack of reading and writing skills. Consequently, Uganda’s population is still characterized by high levels of infant mortality, maternal mortality, morbidity, malnutrition, poor sanitation and hygiene, unemployment, and poverty. Over the years there has been a great demand for literacy programs, with the majority of participants being women. The critical question for this study is how and to what extent are literacy programs strengthening poor people’s livelihoods.

The Programs

Livelihood in this study is taken to mean simply making a living. It restricts itself to the knowledge, skills, and methods used to produce or obtain food, water, clothing and shelter necessary for survival and well being, whether the economy is subsistence, monetized, or a mixture of both. Livelihood seems more appropriate than either “employment” or “income generating activities,” because the majority of people who participate in programs with literacy components derive their living mainly from subsistence agriculture (Oxenham et al. 2001).

The Functional Adult Literacy Program

The government Functional Adult Literacy (FAL) program in Uganda is an example of literacy first. It incorporates training for livelihood skills into literacy instruction. As demonstrated by the case study, this approach attempts to integrate livelihood training, income-generating activities, and literacy. One of the aims of the FAL program is to help learners establish the usefulness of literacy and their new knowledge through combining instruction with actual applications to a range of activities. The approach used is called “integrated” and covers three dimensions:

Integration of subject matter: The approach applies the knowledge from different subjects (or program areas as they are called in this program) to the problem or effort at hand. Such integration has been found to be necessary because in real life, one problem may arise from several causes, and it is usually not possible to solve a problem or promote an effort by looking at one aspect only.

Integration among service providers: The approach is also integrated because it makes use of different professionals or sectoral workers in the field to address the learning or development issues at hand. It is often not possible for the literacy instructor alone to adequately cover the different subject areas needed to address the learners’ needs. They are therefore encouraged to bring in extension workers from agriculture, health, co-operatives, and so on to strengthen the learning process.

Integration of learning and life: The approach keeps learning and life together by tying the learning to those things that the learners are already doing, first helping them to do those things better, and then enabling them to start on new activities. To ensure this link to life, the approach aims at immediate application of what is learned in real life situations. Follow-up activities are therefore designed to take the instructors and learners from the classrooms to the learners’ work, which for the vast
The FAL program under the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development is by far the largest literacy program currently being implemented in Uganda. Because it is a government program, there have been deliberate efforts to cover the whole country within a short time. With the help of the German Adult Education Association (DVV) and UNICEF, implementation of the FAL pilot phase began in 1992 covering eight pilot districts. From 1996 onwards, the program gradually expanded from eight districts to 26 by the end of 1998. The program is currently being implemented in 37 districts and has approximately 127,000 learners (FAL Annual Report 2000). Its actual geographical coverage, however, is much more limited; the program is only operational in a maximum of four parishes in each of the districts in which it is in effect.

Although the program activities started in 1992, the launching of the actual teaching and learning took time. The government went through a comprehensive and systematic process of preparing the curriculum and materials in advance. These were in response to needs identified through a needs assessment survey. Professionals in adult education, curriculum development and language took part, and attempts were made to ensure that different program areas were covered, namely, agriculture, cooperatives and marketing, health, gender and culture, and civic consciousness (Okech 1994).

The instructors in the FAL program were selected by the learners, based on given criteria. These instructors were then trained, encouraged to identify income-generation projects, and to initiate projects with the learners. In reality, the methodology actually used by the FAL instructors is a practical improvisation whose final shape depends on the ability and ideas of the instructor. Therefore, it was not possible to say that any one particular methodology is in general use.

A process review of the FAL program was carried out in October 1995. The team observed that there was overwhelming demand for adult literacy at all levels, evidenced by the fact that there were almost as many literacy classes outside the program’s areas of operation as inside. Those had sprung up because of the strong demand for literacy. The majority of learners, who were women, testified that the program had increased their self-esteem and confidence in participating in political and economic activities. They also testified that, with literacy, they had improved their domestic hygiene, agriculture, and diet. The team observed that with more investment in the training of instructors, the program would be even more effective. They noted that the methodology and its delivery were sound in terms of problem-solving but needed to be backed up by a rural credit scheme and more imaginative approaches on the part of instructors.

The team recommended that the functional literacy program should be expanded in a controlled, systematic, and planned manner, starting with its consolidation in the eight pilot districts. They further recommended that a decentralized program structure should complement the political process with clear definition of roles of the center and the districts. They recommended that a system of incentives for instructors should be worked out, with the cost borne by districts. The center should be responsible for the cost of teaching and learning materials, the training of trainers and allowances from Community Development staff. They also recommended that a large-scale credit scheme be set up and actively linked to the literacy program (A Process Review of Functional Literacy Projects in Uganda 1985).

In 1999, the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development, with support from the World Bank, commissioned an evaluation of this program. Its purpose was to compare and contrast the resource requirements and the effectiveness of the FAL approach and the Regenerated Freirean Literacy through Empowering Community Techniques (REFLECT) approach. The evaluation attempted to assess the implementation of adult literacy education and recommended future policy on the development of adult literacy education.

The evaluation analyzed effectiveness in two areas: (a) the attainment and retention of reading, writing and arithmetic skills and (b) facilitating practical knowledge, attitude change and skills. Elements considered were (a) the factors affecting performance in each those area, (b) the quality of the materials, (c) the extent of local commitment, and (d) the adequacy of monitoring and supervision.
These evaluations were specifically required to emphasize outcomes and cost effectiveness rather than process or methodology. The evaluation was carried out in 19 sub-counties of eight districts located in six of the country’s eight regions. This case study draws heavily on the findings of the evaluation, while also drawing from the annual reports of the program.

The 1999 evaluation noted that the overwhelming majority of participants in this program were women. The participation of such high proportions of women made a strong case for the program's potential for bringing about socio-economic transformation. The evaluation noted, however, that the literacy programs were in danger of missing their primary clients, who were the people who have not been to school. Almost three-quarters of the graduates sampled had been to school, many for more than five years. Surprisingly, even those who graduated from the program did not leave but continued attending classes. During the focus group discussions, some of the FAL graduates explained that they continued to attend the FAL classes because of the opportunities offered through these classes to learn skills other than literacy and numeracy.

The majority of the graduates, regardless of their schooling and age, had attained a level of reading, writing, and numeracy higher than that of Primary 4 pupils. However, the average level of attainment was very limited. The quality of implementation of the program was the major explanation for the variations in the learners' attainment. Graduates performed considerably better than non-literate in the same communities in terms of their functional knowledge, attitudes, and practices. Further, an impressive number of income-generating projects had been started in the communities, and many individuals attributed their initiative to their participation in the FAL program.

The findings suggested that the literacy programs had equipped the learners with practical knowledge, especially in the areas of agriculture, crop and animal husbandry and handicrafts. Other benefits mentioned by the sampled graduates included (a) stronger participation in the governance of their communities in terms of frequency and in the significance of roles played, (b) adoption of better health practices, especially through better personal and environmental sanitation, and establishing successful income generating activities.

It proved difficult to extract consistent information about either enrollments or expenditures for the FAL program, and the team found no consistent pattern. Although the community development officers (CDOs) and community development assistants (CDAs) had received new monitoring forms, they appeared to be having difficulty persuading volunteer instructors to complete them regularly or systematically. The average attendance rate over the four years in all the districts was estimated to be 80 percent. Although this varied widely among the districts, the year-on-year average was surprisingly stable. The 20 percent of irregular attendees included those who had never attended classes, even though they had enrolled, as well as those who were absent from time to time.

There were large disparities in the resources available to the FAL program in the different districts. The program was generally under-resourced. Two-thirds of the instructors reported that classes took place outside—under a tree or in someone's backyard. Many of the classes still depended on borrowed blackboards and relied on other collaborating organizations for chalk. The learners bought their own materials like exercise books, pencils, and pens. The government provided the primers.

All the FAL instructors were unpaid volunteers. Their median level of schooling was two years of secondary education. Only 13 of the instructors reported being primary school teachers and only four others had salaried employment. It was noted that the use of unpaid volunteer instructors was not very sustainable. Some incentive system would have to be introduced—whether in cash or in kind—if the program was to retain and recruit good quality instructors (Okech et al. 1999).

The training of instructors was particularly limited. Most of the sampled instructors (78 percent) had received the initial training of one or two weeks, and just over half of these had received follow up training. This varied widely between districts and tended to be dependent on outside support. In one of the districts, half the instructors had not received even the initial training. Many of the instructors had been trained for just three days and had never had any refresher training. This was true of their supervi-
sors, most of whom had received no orientation in adult education and literacy methodology.

The instructors received limited support in the form of supervision and monitoring from the extension workers in the district. Of the 46 instructors who reported having received a visit from a CDA, fewer than half had received a visit in the last six months. While the graduates appreciated the help the instructors gave them, a number of them did suggest that some of their instructors needed training, as they were unable to expand on some topics. In particular, when some of the instructors reached practical lessons, which required the participation of an extension worker, they often skipped those sections because they could not get extension workers to come.

**FAL Rukungiri — A case of literacy second**

The FAL program in Rukungiri is an example of literacy second. In this case, the women's groups were engaged in different kinds of economic activities, then they realized that their progress was being frustrated, unless they learnt to calculate more comprehensively, record their incomes and outgoings and read their records. So literacy training was introduced into already existing women's groups at their request.

The establishment of this FAL program is different from the other programs in the other districts, in that the establishment of this program was demand driven. Rukungiri district's FAL program was included in the 1999 evaluation and to some extent it provides an interesting contrast in terms of outcomes and impact when compared to the FAL programs in other districts. Data for this case study are drawn mainly from the 1999 evaluation and also from an interview with the commissioner in charge of literacy in the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development.

The literacy program in Rukungiri started in 1996. It was adopted by women's groups that were already in existence and engaged in income-generating activities such as bee keeping, poultry keeping, basket making, and savings and credit. The FAL program started in four sub-counties of Kirima, Bwambara, Kebisoni, and Nyarushanje. When the women's groups in these areas requested literacy programs, the Assistant Community Development Officer asked them to identify instructors amongst themselves. Once this was done, the Community Development Staff helped the groups get their instructors trained and also helped them get some learning materials, like primers.

According to the 1999 evaluation, these groups were made up of relatively young women, with nearly half being under 30, while fewer than a fifth were aged 45 and over. The majority of them (76.9 percent) were married and 83.3 percent of the graduates sampled in the evaluation had been to school. The period of schooling was years. Although Rukungiri district had the highest number of women graduates sampled in the study (97.5%), this high percentage of women graduates was common to almost all other sampled districts.

The focus group discussions with the literacy graduates in Rukungiri revealed that one reason they joined FAL classes was to consolidate their reading, writing, and numeracy skills. Other reasons given for joining were that they wanted to learn how to read and write so that, when signing agreements they could understand what was involved. In saving and credit groups, often some kinds of agreements were signed. Also to access loans from micro credit schemes, members of a group were sometimes required to sign agreements that bound them as a group, so it was important for these women to read and comprehend what was in these agreements. The majority (83.8 percent) were subsistence farmers. Only 8.8 percent were engaged in small-scale cash cropping. None were engaged in business or employed. Due to scarcity of land, women who were farmers were increasingly being forced to venture out into trade, so numeracy skills were becoming increasingly essential for commercial transactions. Women explained that some unscrupulous traders cheated them when selling and buying produce by using faulty weighing scales and by not giving them back the right change. Women also wanted to be able to write and read confidential letters.

Although these women had some education, they were relatively poor. The majority lived in houses with mud walls (88.4 percent) and mud floors (83.5 percent). While all their homes had latrines, 71.9 percent of them used paraffin candles.
and fewer than half (41 percent) had a working radio. These women had come together in groups in an attempt to improve their socio-economic well-being and that of their families.

The women observed that being part of already established groups had made it easier for them to start literacy classes. As one learner observed:

“For those who were not in groups already, it was difficult to start literacy classes and get voluntary instructors. Groups which were already in existence identified some of their literate members as good instructors and these willingly volunteered to teach without pay.”

The learners’ enthusiasm was revealed in their high investment in the classes, especially when compared to investment by learners in the FAL programs in the other districts. The majority (89.2 percent) of the learners paid for the basic materials. The evaluation study noted that Rukungiri was one of the more deprived districts in terms of materials; this was probably because it was one of the newer districts to be included in the FAL program, and the government’s contributions to the program were diminishing. However, just under three-quarters of the graduates did not have to share primers, and they kept their own copy after graduating. In some of the other districts the investment was as low as 32.8 percent. Slightly more than a third of the learners (35 percent) of the Rukungiri learners made a contribution to the instructors, mainly in kind, such as baskets of beans during harvest, a few eggs, potatoes, bananas and similar items.

The majority of the instructors interviewed in Rukungiri had more than two years’ experience. They were rated quite highly by the learners in terms of attendance, clarity, commitment, teacher/learner relationship, and making lessons interesting, but not so well in terms of bringing outside speakers and using teaching aids. All the instructors in Rukungiri reported that their learners kept time, were always present, participated fully, did homework, and were generally assiduous.

In a test administered by the evaluation team, the literacy graduates in Rukungiri scored highest on the complex comprehension and numeracy tests. One of the reasons suggested for the high scores was the enthusiasm for the program. The majority of the graduates reported further improvement since the proficiency test. In the functional knowledge questions, like those on HIV/AIDS and governance, respondents in Rukungiri also scored highest. Apart from the two questions where there was almost universal adoption of modern practices, respondents in Rukungiri were overall the most modern, with the highest proportion giving the modern answers to eight of the 19 questions. Respondents in Rukungiri were particularly modern regarding agricultural practices.

A high percentage of the learners in Rukungiri district (88.4 percent)—second highest in the national sample—reported that they did generate income. Three-quarters of them had subsequently done income-generation and nearly all (96.5 percent) said that they had improved their life because of this project. Unlike the graduates in the other districts included in the evaluation, nearly all the Rukungiri learners (94.2 percent) had taken a final test, and all of them had continued to go to literacy class after the test.

The women in Nyarushanje mentioned that, among the benefits of the literacy classes, they were economically empowered in their groups to buy mattresses and blankets and even repair their houses, since their men did nothing but drink. From their handicrafts, they managed to sell at least three items every three months and get some money to support their families. Focus group discussions with sub-county officials from the same place indicated that community members had also noted an improvement in the lives of these women. As one official observed:

“We notice that those who have been to FAL classes send all their children to school and seem to appreciate the value of education. The women have learnt the importance of safe water. We have also noticed that even people who do not attend are trying to copy good practices from those who attend.”

According to the women and some of the sub-county officials the functional component of the literacy program, particularly regarding modern agriculture, had proved to be very useful. Literacy was
also said to be helping the women to get information on their own through reading the local newspaper, the "Orumuli."

Sub-county officials in Kirima Sub-County felt that women's groups that had literacy injected into them had benefited. One remarked that:

“Our people have gained self esteem and self reliance through attending literacy classes, we feel more children are being sent to school since mothers now appreciate the value of education. Our women are no longer cheated in selling their produce; mothers can follow how to administer drugs to their sick children. Women who are literate now get more information from reading our weekly newspaper the 'Orumuri' the new literates are now able to make written wills and agreements. The agricultural methods are better.”

The women themselves said that they could now budget for their homes. The functional knowledge on fuel-saving stoves had helped to reduce the amount of wood fuel they used. They felt that they had improved their status and that the knowledge of organic farming had helped them to grow vegetables both for home consumption and for sale. They felt that they had gained self-confidence and had learned how to prepare tree nursery beds and how to give their children a balanced diet. The FAL program in Rukungiri shows that, when a group of learners truly feel a program is important, they are willing to invest in it and to benefit from it fully.

ADRA: Uganda’s Functional Adult Learning Program (FAL)

The Functional Adult Learning Program sponsored by ADRA is an example of literacy first. Literacy in this case is a prerequisite for livelihood training. In this case, training in a livelihood is the longer-term aim, but people are encouraged not to start livelihood training until they have mastered reading, writing and calculating enough to cope with its operating and development requirements. There is a planned progression between the two. Materials for this case study were drawn from a concept paper and progress reports on the program and from interviews with the program staff. Unfortunately there has been no systematic impact study of this program so far.

ADRA is an independent, humanitarian, worldwide agency. In Uganda, ADRA was established and registered with the government in 1987, soon after the civil strife. It mainly started relief activities. Since then, ADRA has evolved into a reputable, community-based development agency operating in many parts of the country. FAL is one of the community-based development programs in which it is involved. ADRA has four active literacy projects, and four others are in the pipeline.

ADRA’s vision is for a better-informed and literate society, which has the ability to positively contribute to development activities in the local community and beyond. Their mission is to Promote literacy and functionality for adult women and men by promoting their ability to exploit the limited resources around them for the purposes of developing their surroundings and eventually becoming self reliant.

The objectives of the FAL projects are:

- To empower adults with reading, writing, and numeracy skills and to raise the current literacy rate to a projected percentage, depending on the literacy levels in different areas;
- To equip learners with essential life skills for personal and community development;
- To build the capacity of the community for income generation and self-reliance;
- To administer loans for income-generating activities;
- To build the culture of continued learning at home and at work;
- To enable learners to appreciate and conserve their environment for developmental purposes.

ADRA Uganda is operating four FAL projects in the western, central, eastern and northern parts of Uganda, with a retention rate of 80 percent so far. There are over 18,500 learners in all, 90 percent of
whom are female (ADRA Annual Report 2000). The project goal as stipulated in the project paper is “to improve learning and the income levels of the different target communities. It is for this reason that micro finance components are also put in place for purposes of boosting the activities in the form of inputs, loans, and demonstration sites.” ADRA Uganda has adapted Functional Adult Learning as a broader concept that takes into account many components, the major one being adult literacy. Designed in line with the government Functional Adult Literacy Policy Guidelines, ADRA Uganda’s FAL is an expansion of the government FAL curriculum. In addition to adult literacy, ADRA Uganda’s Functional Adult Learning Program is a functional one with practical implementation made possible by the inclusion of the loan component that supports income-generating activities (IGAs) through micro-financing.

The instructors are volunteers who are drawn from a cross section of people within the community and are chosen by the learners themselves. Some are schoolteachers, health workers, civic leaders, or opinion leaders who offer service to guide the learners on a voluntary basis. They get a monthly stipend from ADRA as a form of motivation. The instructors are supposed to fulfill the following criteria: they should (a) have a basic education background higher than that of the learners, (b) be conversant with the language used, (d) be acceptable to the communities and the learners in particular, (e) have integrity and maturity, and (f) be at least 18 years old. The instructors are given initial and follow-up training on instructing learners in literacy, life skills, and income-generating activities (IGAs).

ADRA’s FAL classes in different places make use of whatever venue is available: community centers, churches, school classrooms, or even shady tree. Where possible, the communities contribute by providing the premises. ADRA gets its primers from the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development. When these are not enough, they photocopy them, so that learners can have easier access to them. The learners cover reading, writing, and arithmetic integrated with functionality (the ability of the learners to put into practice what they have learned). The topics are progressively set up in learners’ primers in level 1 and level 2. The teaching aids such as blackboards and paper charts are provided on a cost-sharing basis from the government, community, or donor.

The learners are first made literate through the use of modules, which are professionally and technically designed for adult learner. They use the primers developed by the government. The intention here is to enable the individual learners to become literate, which is demonstrated by their ability to read, write, and manipulate figures. This, according to ADRA, is a form of capacity-building because the person is empowered to read instructions, write and record his activities, and count his or her money with confidence. At this level, the learner’s self-esteem and confidence are boosted.

According to ADRA, the adults they work with need to have a livelihood strategy that is viable and sustainable in order to be self-reliant. Since sustainable livelihoods involve a complex network of socio-cultural, economic, and political components, learners are trained in essential life skills activities that enhance productivity, social and environmental health, and social and civic responsibility. Learners are encouraged to choose those activities in which they have a competitive niche and receive training to master them. These include improved agricultural methods, income-generating activities, IGA identification, and management.

ADRA works with the poor who do not have the required capital to kick-start the economic activities they are interested in. For this reason, the learners are trained in loan management and encouraged to form solidarity groups that act as collateral, after which they are advanced micro-loans at an interest rate of 4 percent per quarter. Using the skills attained during the learning process, the learners are able to start and manage economic activities successfully and meet their domestic and personal obligations more easily. The learners are able in this process to apply the knowledge and skills acquired. Apart from building the individual learners’ capacity, the FAL program also aims at community and organizational capacity-building to sustain the project activities when ADRA finally phases out.

Learners are divided into groups of between 40 and 70 per class. They are given six hours of training a week, divided into sessions of two or three hours a day, depending on the season (learners usu-
ally prefer to come for two three-hour sessions a week during the rainy/planting season). They are taught continuously for a period of nine to 12 months before they take the proficiency test.

ADRA has introduced micro credit schemes, in several districts, Mbale being one of the first ones in 1998. In order to guarantee successful operation of the scheme, ADRA chose to use the FAL classes to implement the program. Continuous training and regular follow-up proved essential for the assured return of the small-scale loans. FAL classes offered background training and management of small-scale business. ADRA's micro loans are between 50,000 and 100,000 Uganda shillings (between 30 to 50 US$), returnable in installments within 16 weeks.

ADRA's project in Mbale has established the following strict criteria for issuing micro loans: During the first stage, the participants must: participate in FAL training, know how to count, and understand the process of buying and selling. During the second stage, the participants must: be able to assess the feasibility of a project, start a small activity without financial assistance, and be able to save a small amount of money. During the third stage the participants must build solidarity groups of five trusted members, open an account at a bank of their choice, and put their savings, together with the loans, into one group fund.

The assumption is that at that stage, the members are mature enough to grasp the concept of money and the importance of accountability. Due to ongoing group pressure and guidance, their determination does not relax, and they often find that their teamwork can lift projects onto larger scales. ADRA staff's experience is that smaller loans and short periods keep the commitment alive and ensure success.

Literacy classes without financial support are mainly frequented by women. When there is the possibility of getting loans, men are not only ready to allow their wives to attend the classes but the classes themselves become socially acceptable for the men to attend. This has popularized the ADRA FAL classes to the extent that spontaneous enrollment of 200 learners at the launch of a new class is not unusual.

During project implementation, the community members form an association committee with a community-oriented constitution. This is registered as a Community Based Organization (CBO) with legal rights and powers. The association then elects the officers, who are then trained to take over the administration of the project. ADRA officials train the officers on how to run the loan fund. Upon handing over the project to the community, ADRA monitors the project for some time to ensure that it is running properly. The CBOs are usually made up of the graduates of the literacy program.

Community capacity-building begins with the individual members who collectively make up the community. According to ADRA, the most critical proof of that capacity is the community group's ability to provide an alternative sustainable source of income. It was evident from the different project reports that in all project areas, learners have shown enthusiasm, and this has inspired local authorities, political leaders, and opinion leaders to contribute moral, material and monetary support to the program.

Ms. Heidrun Siebeneiker of the German Development Service and a technical advisor to FAL projects in the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development, conducted a small case study of ADRA's project in Mbale. On the basis of visiting eight FAL classes in three different sub counties, six of which had qualified for and enjoyed the benefit of ADRA micro financing, she observed the following:

The combination of the ADRA micro-financing scheme and the FAL training has boosted both programs and set standards for a good concept that works. It reaches the poorest of the poor, and, without immense budgets, makes a difference at the grassroots. The successful combination of FAL and micro finance spoke for itself. All six groups had close to 100 percent repayments within the required time frame. No one had been found wasting money. One or two participants had aimed too high in their enterprise and failed or delayed, but they had learned from the experience. Many even had made small profits, which were now being invested into expansion. The two classes that had been struggling without financial input, on the other hand, also managed to get some small-scale businesses going, but all of them had found it frustrating, with many not being able to get off the ground. While learners of all classes emphasized the value of FAL education, the effects on those who had gained independence through financial support was remarkable. All the
participants reported positive change in their communities, in their homes, and in their own attitudes.

There was now money to send children to school. Women have become more independent because they earn their own money. There was less drinking and abuse because people have an aim. People’s houses were cleaner. Farming and animal husbandry were managed more successfully. People have higher self-esteem, as they could manage their own affairs. Businesses were more successful because of the new management skills, and people were more successful at managing their lives. Communities had become more peaceful.

Besides Ms. Siebeneiker’s observations, there is a report from the Kioga Integrated Functional Adult Literacy Project. According to its progress report, during the first session, the project trained 4,222 learners, 3,229 (76.5 percent) of which passed the proficiency test. During the second session, a total of 2,204 learners registered, of whom 1,880 turned up to start classes. The FAL program guide recommends 20 to 40 learners per class. The report observed that in the last year, the instructors complained about the large numbers in their classes. This high turn-out of learners is partly explained by the fact that ADRA gives loans to learners who successfully complete their literacy training. One of the challenges noted by the project manager in Kioga was that many learners had approached them for loans, but they did not have proper business plans. Therefore the managers decided to go slowly in order to limit the chances of defaulting.

The report noted that they had so far given loans to 11 groups. Seven of the groups were dealing with agriculture and four in petty trade. A total of 1,540,000 shillings had been disbursed and a total of 1,780,000 had been repaid, reflecting the low interest that is charged. According to the project manager’s report, there have been marked changes in the community lifestyle, including improvement in the area of micro finance. Petty traders who joined the project in the year 2000 have acquired business skills, and they can now sell and make some profit.

**ActionAid’s FAL Buwekula Project (ABP)**

This case and the one that follows on REFLECT are both instances of literacy first, and are both run by the international NGO, ActionAid. Literacy training in this case is followed by separate livelihood or income-generation activities. Here, literacy is regarded as a self-standing and worthwhile aim in itself and is undertaken first. Thereafter, training is sometimes offered in either livelihoods or some form of income-generating activity under the other program components.

An important principle applied to ActionAid programs is that of participatory approaches to development. The strategy is meant to create awareness in the community and assist in enhancing the capacity of the community to do for themselves those things which will enable them to raise their standard of living through education, improved agriculture, and community-based health care. It is this recognition of the importance of awareness and of the need for the people to manage all aspects of their life in a sustainable manner that led ActionAid to accord an important place to adult literacy.

"By teaching them how to read and write, and through a functional literacy approach, by giving them knowledge and skills in health and agriculture, these people will have been given the empowerment they require to more effectively control their environment" (Okech 1994).

From 1989 to 1995, ActionAid’s adult literacy programs in Buwekula used the functional literacy approach (Okech 1991). However in 1993, ActionAid introduced into one district in Uganda the REFLECT approach to literacy education. After a trial of two years, it introduced it in 1995 to its program in Buwekula (ABP).

The six-year FAL project covered two sub-counties that had a population of approximately 73,000 people engaged mainly in agriculture, with about 20 percent of them pastoralists. Much of the population at the time consisted of newly settled migrants from various parts of western Uganda. A combination of a poor road infrastructure, poor social infrastructure, and pastoralism resulted in weak economy in this area. The new settlers were people who had had no opportunities for education in their areas and had arrived empty-handed to start from scratch, just with their labor. Some were
on the look out for opportunities to improve themselves. The adult literacy activities in ABP were part of a broader intervention and were initially meant to strengthen other program activities (Okech 1994).

The integrative approach used by the project, placed literacy in the context of development. This was perceived as a strength because it led to immediate use of the new ideas and skills to solve real life problems. Community involvement in identifying needs, mobilizing learners, recruiting instructors, selecting class centers and erecting shelters was also positive, in that it made the community members feel that they were really part of the project. The fairly adequate funding ensured the availability of learning/teaching materials, remuneration of instructors, and supervision and monitoring (Okech 1994).

The discussions in the literacy classes revolved around 21 generative themes: reading, work, farming, government, immunization, taxes, roads, nutrition, trade, reproduction, development, writing, AIDS, breastfeeding, sanitation, animal industry, war, money, hospitals, and alcohol. These themes served as a curriculum or syllabus for the basic stage of the learning. The approach emphasized the need to link the new literacy skills and new awareness to practical work back at home and in the fields, such as in health and sanitation, agriculture, business promotion, and participation in community activities (Okech 1994).

The ABP manager at the time stated that, while the program had indeed made an impact on the individual participants and general community development, it was difficult to ascertain to what extent the impact was a result of adult literacy intervention or of the overall integrated approach of ActionAid programs. Among the positive changes mentioned were improved agriculture, ability to participate better in business transactions, and motivation to start income-generating activities.

Several weaknesses were also noted. These included insufficient community understanding of the importance and functions of literacy, lack of trained adult educators to manage the program, and imposed structures that were not linked to the existing structures, thus at risk of not being sustained. In addition, the supervisory and monitoring staff were distracted and over-stretched by other work and there were no assessment procedures appropriate for adult education (Okech 1994).

These weaknesses notwithstanding, the integrated thrust was clearly effective, and the two tracks of development and literacy did seem to reinforce each other.

**Bundibugyo Action Aid Project (REFLECT)**

This second case of “literacy first” differs from the preceding case only in that it used the REFLECT approach instead of the FAL curriculum. REFLECT as an approach seeks to build on the theoretical framework developed by the Brazilian Paulo Freire, but it also provides a practical methodology by drawing on Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) techniques. An important characteristic of this approach is that there are no textbooks, no literacy primers, and no pre-printed materials other than a guide for facilitators, which is produced locally, preferably with input of the facilitators themselves. The material for this case study is drawn from an earlier study by Okech (1994) and from annual reports from the REFLECT Co-ordination Unit. There were no systematic impact studies available on this program. It was not possible to include this project in the 1999 evaluation because of insecurity in the district at that time.

REFLECT in Uganda was first piloted in Bundibugyo, a district isolated from the rest of the country by the Rwenzori mountain range and poor infrastructure and therefore very disadvantaged in the context of national development. Research carried out there by ActionAid in March 1993 had identified two major problems: long-standing isolation and rising population density. The isolation stemmed from the physical features of the area, lying beyond the mountains, which made it difficult to reach from the central parts of Uganda, from which all modern development seemed to radiate. The district had only one road, which served as a lifeline through the mountains from Fort Portal to Bundibugyo town. The road infrastructure within the district was very poor, making most parts accessible only with great difficulty. It was this two-fold problem that prompted ActionAid to intervene in Bwamba County, using literacy as an
The stated objectives of the program were:

- To increase local communities’ access to skills and knowledge;
- To promote group formation through assistance provided towards small-scale projects and extension services;
- To build and strengthen local capacity so that they could manage their own development process.

The aim of the literacy program was to strengthen the capacity of local communities to deal with their predicaments and later fully participate in the management of their own development process. Through the use of Participatory Rural Appraisal techniques (PRA), the Bundibugyo ActionAid Project (BAP) tried to use literacy as the entry point for their involvement with the people. The PRA approach provided a variety of techniques that enabled the people to analyze their problems and identify solutions.

The literacy class participants used this approach to decide on what topics they felt like handling, which would enable them to derive maximum benefits from the classes. The method did not use a ready-made primer, but the participants themselves developed the learning/teaching materials as they learned in class. Both the facilitators and the learners learned from each other as they discussed, drew maps, pictures, and charts, and wrote what though was important. At the end of the process, the class came up with an “action point.” This was their decision on the action to be taken on the matter they had decided to deal with. It was this action point that became the developmental activity to be implemented by BAP.

The number of participants in the BAP literacy program at the time (1994) was 1,625, of whom 325 were male and 1,300 female. Although the participants seemed to find the approach interesting and involving, BAP was suffering the same irregularity of attendance and high dropout rates common to other adult literacy programs. The dropout rate was blamed mainly on the war in Zaire and the subsequent famine in Bwamba (Okech 1994).

According to the BAP staff at the time, it was too early to assess the impact of the program on both participants and the community. The researcher noted as a strength the importance and central role given to literacy and to integrating literacy into the development efforts of the community. An additional strength was the involvement of the community in the management of the program and the setting up of a community-based supervision and monitoring committee (Okech 1994). Unfortunately, the project was disrupted quite early on by war, and it is now not possible to draw any conclusive lessons from this project. Among the challenges highlighted even at that time was the difficulty of recruiting the right caliber of instructors capable of implementing the methodology and their need for constant supervision and support. According to the documentation from the coordination unit, this continues to be a major challenge when using the REFLECT approach. In a recent review exercise involving the REFLECT Co-ordination Unit (RCU), specifically, Action Aid Buwekula Project, and a CBO, Children And Women of Disabled Soldiers Association (CAWODISA), a representative from the CBO observed:

"Despite the inadequate time we’ve had to carry out an audit of the REFLECT program for ABP, I have really learnt a lot. For example I’ve learnt that REFLECT circles need close monitoring if they are to continue running properly. Facilitators require help in unit development, session preparation, and even the facilitation itself. The more they are visited the more confidence they develop and the more motivated they become. I got this from the few facilitators I interviewed in Kasambya” (RCU, Bi-Annual June 2000).

The RCU has also noted that the conventional way of supporting REFLECT requires more time and resource commitment than simply training and monitoring what is going on and how it is being implemented or used. The lesson about the commitment required is that more time spent with the circles and hands-on development of learning mate-
rial and aids is much more useful to methodological development and eventual gain for the poor than are the other training and supervisory roles. (RCU, Bi-Annual June 2000).

Reflections

The majority of documented adult education programs in Uganda have literacy as their lead element. The major challenge for these programs is how to effectively design and implement a program that has a good balance between literacy training and practical knowledge and skills that can be of immediate use to the learners in improving their living conditions. According to the 1999 evaluation of the government FAL program and, to some extent, programs using the REFLECT approach, some programs are more successful than others. There are several reasons. Some programs, such as the FAL government program, rely too heavily on the good will and initiative of voluntary instructors. While the design of a program may emphasize the integration of learning and life, in practice much less emphasis is given to livelihood skills. The 1999 evaluation noted that the instructors were expected to bring in livelihood resource persons. This however was not always possible, especially when travel and other costs were involved. Further, the design seems to assume that livelihood specialists are available in all areas and that they are willing to be brought into the program. This is not always the case, as the 1999 evaluation revealed. A more solid system linking the different programs with the livelihood specialists should be in place at the outset. This will involve identifying the specialists and then making contractual agreements with them that will then hold them accountable. There must be clearer stipulations regarding how and when the specialists will be brought in, how often, and for how long. At the moment these arrangements are too loose and left to the voluntary instructors to manage. The fundamental problem of this kind of arrangement at the moment is that the development of livelihood skills is left to chance, depending on the local organization and management of the program.

The Rukungiri case, however, provides an alternative arrangement that seems to suggest that, even within a context of limited resources, poor people can have their livelihoods strengthened through literacy if they are well organized. This presupposes however that the learners are already engaged in some form of livelihood training or income generating activities in established groups. So this case is based on a group approach, not an individual one. It suggests that programs that start with livelihood may be more successful in organization and management than those that start with literacy. The management of the program is under the control of the group, which seems to make maximum use of the resources available to it. Since this program was introduced at the learners' request and since it was injected into already established groups, the learners had strong reasons for enrolling in the program and for staying on. It is also more closely integrated into what they are already doing, and this helps them to perform better.

ActionAid's REFLECT approach, even though more innovative in its approach to literacy training, has not been very successful in linking literacy effectively with livelihood skills. Although the designers of the program think that literacy is self-standing and worthwhile, the learners think differently. This is also true for those FAL programs that have failed to effectively integrate literacy and livelihood training. The 1999 evaluation revealed that many learners left programs because their expectations that these programs would strengthen their livelihoods were largely unmet.

After the necessary literacy and livelihood training, ADRA's programs, make micro credit loans accessible to learners' groups as a revolving fund. These programs have been more successful in attracting and retaining adult learners in their literacy classes.

Literacy programs need to be planned as long-term interventions with long-term goals and not as short-term projects. In that way, special attention can be paid to developing more sustainable management and implementation structures that can be continued by the communities, even without major resource inputs from outside.
References and Documents consulted

ADRA Uganda. Concepts For Functional Adult Learning (FAL).
Annex 6

List of programs/projects discussed in detail in the study


ActionAid Project in Buwekula, Uganda, using the REFLECT Approach. Participatory Rural Appraisal techniques using literacy as the entry point for an intervention to manage village development. Started in 1994 with 1,625 Learners (325 male, 1,300 female), interrupted by the war in Zaire and the subsequent famine in Bwamba.

ADRA Adventist Development and Relief Agency, Uganda. Content: Literacy as preparation for livelihood training, IGAs, loans. Teaching hours 250-300. Learners enrolled 18,500 (now) 90 percent women. Private funding. Ongoing.

FAL Functional Adult Literacy Program in Uganda. Content: Incorporation of training for livelihood skills into literacy instruction (“literacy first”). Attempt at an integrated approach: integration of subject matter, integration among service providers, integration of learning and life. Started in 1992. Program is currently implemented in 37 of 45 districts and has approximately 127,000 learners. Large-scale program under the responsibility of the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development. Ongoing, in process of review.

Farmers Field Schools with Integrated Production and Pest Management. Introduced and supported by FAO in India and several other countries, by World Education Inc. in Nepal, by CARE International in Sri Lanka. Content: Agriculture and food production, pest and disease control, marketing. Use of existing literacy material. Users pay for literacy instructors.

The Kenya Literacy Campaigns. The first campaign was launched in 1967. It adopted the functional approach. The second campaign started in 1979. Content: Literacy with IGAs and systematic links with everyday activities of the learners. Upon commencement, the campaign intended to recruit 3,000 full time and 5,000 part-time plus some 5,000 self-help teachers. Training of teachers through a specially developed distance education course. Over 22 years, a total of 4,197,638 adults have participated in the basic literacy program, 76.4 percent of them women. A Post-Literacy Program started in 1996 in 12 districts, is now in 15 out of 68 districts. Phase one 1996–1999, phase two 2000–2003. So far some 200,000 learners have been reached by the program. Purpose: Using reading skills to acquire and to sustain functional skills, knowledge, and attitudes (“Learn and Earn”). Use of adult education teachers as “community learning and development facilitators.” A curriculum leading to a certificate (equivalent to the KCPE) is under preparation. A competency-based post-literacy curriculum in eight learning areas is ready. 48 titles of post-literacy material in a variety of functional thematic fields are available. Kenyan contribution for both phases 500,000 DM German contribution through GTZ 4 Mio DM. The current literacy rate is 74.8 percent.
Mahila Samakiya, Banda District, India. Content: Animation for low-caste women as awareness animators and technical knowledge for low-caste women as hand pump mechanics plus literacy. Literacy camps with 180 hours of instruction. Low participation of hand pump mechanics. NGO-funding. Ongoing.

RDROS (Rural Development Organization, Rural Service, Bangladesh). Content: Livelihood skills, small scale agriculture, social knowledge, health plus general literacy. NGO-funding. Ongoing.

Women's Groups, Uganda. Content: Income-generating activities, savings and micro-credit schemes plus participation in the government's Functional Adult Literacy Program (FAL). Teaching materials of the FAL bought by learners ("user pays"). Costs per certified graduate of the FAL: US$4-5. Ongoing.

SAPTAGRAM Bangladesh. Content: Functional literacy as preparation for livelihood training, income-generating activities, loans. NGO-funding. Ongoing.


SODEFITEX Société de Développement des Fibres Textiles (Society for the Development of Textile Fibers), Senegal. Content: Agricultural development with focus on cotton growing. Initiated in 1974. After 9 years of existence (1983), began a literacy program for cotton producers to modernise cotton production. In view of the scale of the program, SODEFITEX decided first to make five members of each of its 1,740 producer associations literate. Later it aimed to enable at least one member of its 27,179 farming families to become sufficiently literate. SODEFITEX organized classes for some 2,400 farmers per year between 1984 and 1999, reaching a total of 35,865 learners in the 15 years. Of these, 5,908 were women. SODEFITEX funding. Ongoing.


Women's Enterprise Development Program, the Philippines. Content: Literacy and livelihood. Ongoing. NGO-funding.
Too often, policy for vocational education in developing countries has only concerned itself with a literate minority within the labor force. This study helps to widen that view. From the perspective of "Education For All" and "Lifelong Education", the report examines efforts to combine vocational training with literacy education to enable a very poor, illiterate labor force, especially rural women, to develop more productive livelihoods and take on increasingly active roles in transforming their families and communities. The aim is to assess whether and how official policy should support such efforts.

Based on documentary evidence from several countries, particularly Guinea, Kenya, Senegal and Uganda, the report suggests that vocational education policy should encompass out-of-school and illiterate youth and adults, but to be effective would require gradualism, decentralisation, capacity nurturing, flexibility and components of savings, credit and enterprise development.