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TO THE READER

Pakistan Journal of Distance Education is dedicated to the distance learning system rapidly growing in Asia and the world over. The Journal welcomes studies, research and review papers dealing with past, present and future perspectives of distance education, with a view to awakening further interest in the newly growing discipline and opening new vistas of research.

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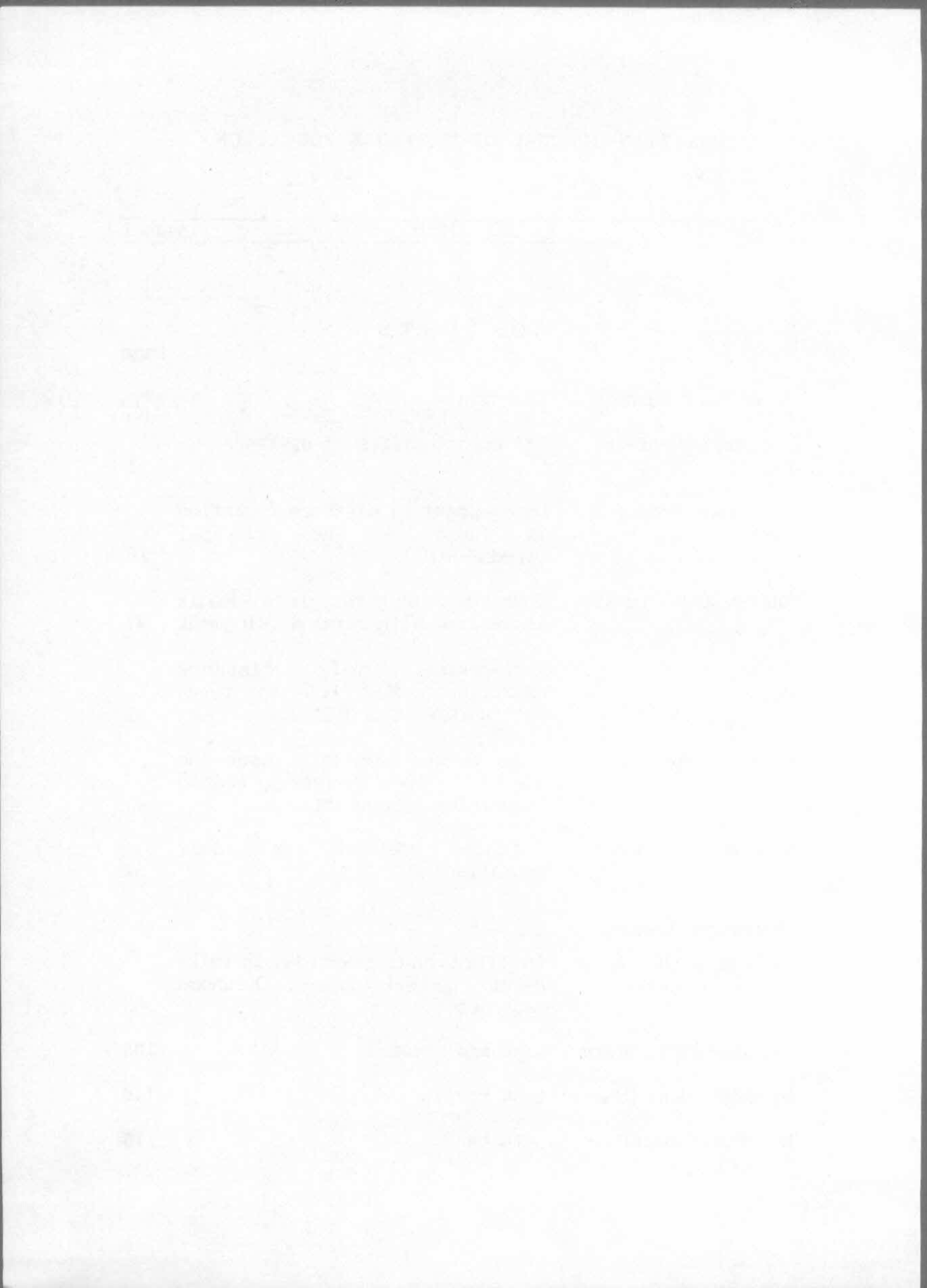
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EDITORIAL

Tutorial support:

Does it negate the concept of distance education?

Distance education, as a discipline, has grown widely enough in the last several decades. With its roots much deeper now in the societies — both developed and developing, distance education is now increasingly recognized as a significant form of education. Though generically different from traditional education it is widely viewed as being entirely separate from formal system, a view based on the notion that not only its teaching methods are different but also on perception of its students.

The theory of distance education as a distance teaching methodology can offer a service to students at least "as rich and at least as individualized as the traditional system." The variety of multi-dimensional approaches of teaching from a distance sustains and supports students at a level conveniently comparable to formal education.

Learning at a distance is different from conventional learning because immediate feedback is entirely nonexistent. The vast majority of distance-students cannot succeed in a course through self-instructional package alone unless individual support, advice or mediation is provided capable of meeting their diverse needs. The success of distance education, therefore, rests upon a correct balance between the impersonal teaching material and the tutorial advice. Tutors in this way form part of the distance education system although their primary concern is for the individual student. They seek to represent individual needs in a professional way and force the system to recongnize these needs and adapt to meet them.

In distance education no less than in conventional teaching the intermediary role is thus taken by the tutors or advisers. This function assumes more importance in distance education because the physical separation of students, institutions and the impersonal teaching material make the tutor's mediation almost imperative or indispensable. There is a strong feeling that strong student support is essential to achieving high completion rate. Particular attention is hence paid to the successful support system in the distance teaching universities. In many of the universities in the developed countries student advice or tutoring is done on telephones since telephone access is almost universal in those countries. Besides tutorial support strong advisory services have also been established in many of these universities.

Excessive concentration on the production of teaching material for the distance learners makes it industrialized and gives a form of institution-based approach to teaching at a distance. What is required for successful learning is a student-based approach which is inherently more difficult since students are infinitely variable. The student-based approach, therefore, requires mediation between the unified print material and the diverse student basis where the student learning takes place solely from such materials independently. The mediating role of the tutors/advisers and the academic content might appear to be separate but the "separation of these functions is more perceived than real." Physical separation does not negate the integration of these functions and this is how the success of distance education can be achieved.

In a recent study on the "Dropouts" in the Allama Iqbal Open University some 6,000 students in ten courses which were offered in October 1986 semester were given a questionnaire to find out the causes of dropout. To cross check the responses 400 students, both male and female, completers and dropouts, from rural and urban areas, were interviewed. Although the study is not yet complete, nonetheless, it was found that majority of the respondents particularly from the rural areas strongly favoured tutorial support and student attendance compulsory in the study centres.

It is almost certainly correct to assert that it is not the print material alone but rather the print material with the integrated mediation through tutors that has brought about the success of the open system.

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THE OPPORTUNITIES OF DISTANCE*

by

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Background: Classical Education Era

In 1788, the year of European colonization in Australia, the English statesman Charles James Fox was holidaying in Rome when news arrived that King George the Third had gone mad. This meant a political crisis, for if George's son the Prince of Wales became Regent he would dismiss his father's prime minister, William Pitt, and invite Fox to form a government. Travelling with the greatest speed to return from Rome to London, and indeed at some peril to his health, Fox completed the journey in nine days.(1) His effort was fruitless. The king recovered and it would be another seventeen years before Fox achieved office. It can have been no consolation when some antiquarian calculated that even travelling at maximum haste Fox had taken about the same time to cover the distance as a courier would have required in the Roman Empire of the first century.

Fox thus belonged to an age when the concept of distance education would have been necessarily meaningless, and it is worth spending a minute or two to consider the sort of education he underwent as a member of the eighteenth century English upper class. His early years were spent at home. Those who fondly believed that earlier generations believed in severe discipline will be enlightened to learn that on one occasion Fox's father, Lord Holland, promised his

* A paper presented in International Council for Distance Education held in Melburn, Australia, August, 1985.

eight-year-old son that he should see a garden wall pulled down. Unfortunately he forgot. In order to console the little boy's disappointment Lord Holland had the workmen reconstruct the wall in order that it might be pulled down again with Charles present. A few years later, Charles Fox was sent to Eton and subsequently to Oxford. It was taken for granted in upper-class England at that time, that boys should be sent away from home at tender ages for prolonged periods for their education, and that education was largely conceptualised in terms of training for the ruling elite. This idea persisted for generations afterwards and does not appear to be entirely absent today from the intellectual furniture of the English official mind.

In the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries the most prominent items on the syllabus were Greek and Latin. These languages were not without some marginal utility. They were the Esperanto of international scholarship, and in one or two Central European parliaments the debates were still conducted in Latin through failure to agree on an acceptable alternative. But for the most part the study of the languages and cultures of these two ancient civilizations was not justified in terms of utility — except in the sense that it was recommended by the Reverend Thomas Gaisford, who in his Christmas Day sermon at Christ Church Cathedral, Oxford, is quoted as saying:

Nor can I do a better, in conclusion, than impress upon you the study of Greek Literature, which not only elevates above the vulgar herd, but leads not infrequently to positions of considerable emolument. (2)

Gaisford was right. A knowledge of classics *did* elevate above the vulgar herd; it was a kind of guarantee of gentlemanly background, so that few major parliamentary speeches were complete without a light polish of classical allusions. But it also served to introduce a standard of comparison, a sense of perspective, because of which no eighteenth century society could lapse into complacent insularity. The politicians and the scholars of the eighteenth century were always aware of their own achievements against the achievements of Greece and Rome. One of the most prolonged and futile intellectual controversies of the eighteenth century was the debate as to whether the Ancients were to be preferred to the Moderns. Probably the greatest work of history to emerge

from the eighteenth century was Gibbon's *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, in which he confronted his contemporaries with the disturbing question: what if your civilization does not last?

Classical Education in Distance Perspective

At this point I expect that some will be growing restless and wondering if I have come to the right conference. What has all this to do with distance education? I hope it may be accepted that the classical education of Charles James Fox and his generation touches upon the factor of distance in at least three different ways. First, those who mastered Greek and Latin were in possession of an international medium of communication. This was of only limited practical importance since French was the language of diplomacy — though examples can be found, as when the German Elector of Hanover became King George I of England and transacted business with his minister Sir Robert Walpole in Latin, and sometimes rather bawdy Latin, because that was one language which they had in common. However it meant that a member of the European upper classes could expect that any other member at least possessed a shared educational experience, and this may have helped to reduce any sense of alienation. Secondly, as indicated earlier, the study of Greek and Latin reduced the insularity of communities in an age when travel, as Charles Fox discovered, was infinitely less convenient than it is today. But thirdly, and this explains why youngsters such as Fox had to be sent away from home at such an early age, Greek and Latin and the other items on the eighteenth century syllabus were essentially bookish subjects and could be studied only through regular access to libraries in an era when book production was relatively costly.

This did not necessarily mean that access to higher education was confined to the aristocracy. Among the inhabitants of Scotland, for instance, for whom it was said that education was seen as a human necessity, there was an ingrained tradition of academic professional education. It was not just that Scotland, with less than one-third the population of England, had four universities where England had two, nor that many Scots went away for their education to Holland; for instance for their medical training, or to Oxford where the situation of Balliol College outside the north gate of the old city wall still testifies to its

success in intercepting those young Scots who, with a sack of oatmeal for their term's sustenance, were said to travel the roads from North Britain. Scotland, for more than England, nurtured a belief in democratic access to learning which was to be a more relevant model when the British Empire expanded overseas and when in the nineteenth century the successor communities in the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa came to set up their university systems, Scotland was to be their model more often than England.

Classical Teaching Methodology

By this time three basic methods of face-to-face teaching had become time-honoured in Western universities: the lecture, the tutorial involving a one-to-one dialogue between master and student, and the seminar in which a group discussion was co-ordinated by an academic leader. The tutorial and the seminar represented an ancient and honourable tradition going back to Greek civilization. In the 5th century B.C. Athenian civilization produced the Sophists, who are described by M.D.P. Lee as:

Travelling teachers and lecturers, who appeared in the middle of the century in response to the demand for an education that went beyond the grounding in the works of the poets which formed the traditional Greek curriculum. They taught, most things; but since success in life is what most men want, and since the ability to persuade your neighbour is always an important element in success, and was particularly important in the Greek democracies, they all taught rhetoric, the art of self-expression and persuasion. (3)

Out of this tradition came the structure of Plato's *Republic*, in its essentials an extended seminar in which Socrates largely monopolises the argument while the other participants are reduced to the role of respectful (or occasionally questioning) hangers-on. One extract will give the flavour:

'So much then for the subject-matter of Literature' (says Socrates) 'We must next deal with its presentation, and so cover both Literature and Form'.

To this Adeimantus replied that he did not understand what I meant. 'Then I must explain' I said 'perhaps you will see if I put it this way. Any story or poem deals with things past, present, or future, does it not?'

'It must'.

'And for the purpose it employs either simple narrative or representation, or a mixture of both'.

'I'm still not quite clear what you mean.'

'I'm afraid you're laughing at my obscurity' (says Socrates)

'So let me try to explain by confining myself to a particular example, like an incompetent lecturer.'

(4)

And off he goes. It is all very like a modern tutorial or seminar except that jibe about 'an incompetent lecturer': if the Greeks could understand generalisations without specific illustrations they must have been brighter than most of my students.

This tradition of the academic dialogue survived many centuries. The Romans took it over, and you will find some fine didactic examples in Cicero, so one-sided that they almost become monologues or lectures. After the decline of the Roman empire I am given to understand that the dialogue can be found as a method of instruction in the early Islamic world. There are certainly examples to be found in medieval Western writing, such as the twelfth century *Dialogus de Scaccario*, the Dialogue of the Exchequer in which a seasoned Treasury official of the court of Henry II of England spells out to a neophyte the skills needed in official budgeting. But the twelfth and thirteenth centuries also saw the rise of mediaeval universities, in which lecturers such as Abelard at Paris conducted both set lectures and disputations with other and usually younger colleagues. A student was not as yet necessarily confined to one university, for this was the age of the wandering scholars, when an academic apprenticeship might involve experience in several schools, and teachers were recompensed by the number of students whom their reputation managed to attract.

Discourse was conducted with equal facility with the spoken and the written word. Probably educationalist in the twelfth century regarded spoken debate within the university precincts as the most satisfactory form of academic

interaction. Writing was a laborious and necessarily less satisfactory means of communication with those from whom one was separated by distance.

Eventually of course came the European discovery of printing in the mid-fifteenth century, and from that time on education became even more print-oriented. By the nineteenth century the lecture was entrenched as a standard method of presentation, though the equality varied enormously. For every Blackstone at Oxford pioneering a new field of jurisprudence or Hegel at Berlin scheduling his lectures at eight o'clock on winter mornings in a vain attempt to limit the number of under-graduates who came crowding to hear his philosophy, there would be a score of undistinguished practitioners serving a rehash of conventional wisdom. In Oxford and Cambridge the old concept of the tutorial as one-to-one dialogue still persisted, with the reformers of the early nineteenth century beginning to insist on the preparation of student essays as a preliminary to the tutorial session. In Scotland and in many European countries the group seminar was more usual, and this is what eventually came to be known in Australian universities as a tutorial. Nevertheless all these methods of communication were founded on the unassailable presupposition that university teaching could and should take place only on campus. Without regular supervision by a duly accredited authority in the field it was impossible to moderate academic standards.

Evolution of Distance Education

This was a rational and defensible position but it cloaked two assumptions. The first was that presupposition which is implicit in a word such as *civilization*; that learning and the polite arts are essentially civic matters which will be associated with urban society and not in agricultural or pastoral communities. "Hill-billy", "backwoodsman", "peasant" are all pejorative terms suggesting dullness and a lack of intellectual traditions. This mockery of rural folk is an ancient theme. The author of Ecclesiasticus asked two centuries before Christ: 'How can he get wisdom that holdeth the plough, and glorieth in the goad, and whose talk is of bullocks?' To get a higher education it was necessary to come to the city, or at least to the university town. It was thought unlikely that the country dwellers would appreciate education even if anyone was quixotic enough to bring it to them.

Implicit in the nineteenth century view of the university there was also an assumption that education was intended for the young as a training for their life's work. For a long time it was not even intended for all the young, although starting with Prussia at the beginning of the century one European nation after another gradually introduced the principle of compulsory elementary education, aimed at producing well trained and socially well adapted citizens. Adult education was slowly struggling into existence but except in the Netherlands and Scandinavia it was seen as a thing apart, good enough for the mechanics' institute or the school of arts, but hardly in any respect connected with the real scholarship of universities. Advanced education was reserved for the affluent or the fortunate, and professors were indubitably members of the respectable classes. It is as a reaction from these attitudes that some have traced the anti-intellectualism which occasionally came to the fore in the settler societies of North America and Australasia. When the Australian writer Henry Lawson expressed the hope that the rich and educated would be educated down he was reflecting a common enough attitude. The first generation of Labour men in Australia were sceptical about the advantages of university education. Rufus Underwood, a Western Australian politician, claimed that it was as easy for a porcupine to walk backward down a canvas hose as for a university graduate to achieve anything practical, and where such attitudes were common — and they were as prevalent in North America as in Australia or South Africa — there could be little encouragement for the extension of university education beyond the walls of the ivory tower.

Yet these regions of recent settlement, North America and Australasia, pioneered those techniques of correspondence education which were the forerunners of distance education as we know it today. This was not simply an environmental response to the problems posed by long distance; the Russian Empire, with a population scattered over the largest land area of any single political unit in the world, was conspicuously slow about spreading educational advantages among its subjects. To some extent this may reflect technological backwardness. The establishment of distance education in any reliable form presupposed the existence of railways over which mails could be carried. The United States possessed three transcontinental railways and numerous minor lines by the 1870s; Canada was linked from west to east by the 1880s. By the same decade the Australian

colonies each boasted significant railway systems radiating from the major seaboard cities, though a transcontinental system would be long delayed because of the breadth of gauge problem. In Russia the Trans-Siberian railway was not completed until the first decade of the 20th century, and although metropolitan Russia itself was not ill provided for the social structure of Czarist Russia and the slower spread of literacy held back the possibility of developing a demand for correspondence education. Distance education is essentially a product of democratic societies, and specifically those democratic societies with a strong interest in primary production and influential rural interest groups. In such circumstances the demand would arise that the old imbalance between city and country should be remedied in terms of the provision of access to educational facilities.

Opportunities of Distance Education

a. North America

And here at length I begin to come to my theme of 'the opportunities of distance', particularly as they apply to North America and Australia. It seems to me significant that some of the earliest experiments in correspondence education originated in the mid-West of the United States, for instance in 1891 when teachers in agricultural science in Wisconsin entered into regular communication with students who could not easily attend campus at Madison. For obvious reasons subjects such as agricultural science gained acceptance more readily in major primary producing regions such as North America and Australasia than among the older academies of Europe, and it is not surprising to find innovative thinking in such an environment. In the same decade that these pioneering efforts were initiated in distance education — in 1893 to be precise — a young American historian named Frederick Jackson Turner published a pathbreaking paper on the influence of the moving frontier on American society. It was an epic theme. Turner claimed that the basic essentials of the North American national character were shaped not among the ports and cities of the eastern seaboard, with their built-in tendency to look backwards across the Atlantic towards Europe, but on the pioneering frontier of society. First the hunter and the trapper, then the grazier, then agriculturalist and only eventually the

townspeople would take possession of the land and subdue the wilderness. In the process of transforming the environment they would themselves be transformed by it, and develop into a practical, innovative, democratic race different in many important respects from their European forbears.

It is not appropriate here to inquire how far Turner was borrowing ideas already sketched out two generations previously by that acute European observer Alexis de Tocqueville nor to ask how this process looked to the native inhabitants on 'the other side of the frontier', the North American Indians and the Australian Aborigines. My purpose is to suggest that the concept of distance education may be seen as one of those innovations which was forged on the frontier of European expansion overseas; and that the history of distance education is to a considerable extent an example of the process by which ideas and techniques developed on the periphery have gradually been accepted and absorbed into the old heartland of European culture. Beyond that there will be a further chapter will unfolding as non-European societies observing this process adapt and modify it to their own needs.

b. Australia

There might be another way of putting it based on our own Australian experience. Australians have always made much of their isolation from the rest of the world, yet scholars have paid remarkably little attention to analyse the influence of that isolation in shaping their society. The outstanding exception is Geoffrey Blainey whose finest book, *The Tyranny of Distance*, (5) first published in 1966 has thrown up more ideas than the historical profession has been able to digest properly over the following two decades. Blainey's book deals both with the consequences of big distances within Australia and with Australia's distance from Europe, or as Blainey put it with 'the contradiction that it depended intimately and comprehensively on a country which was further away than almost any other in the world.' The name, *The Tyranny of Distance* has become almost an Australian cliché and Blainey himself has shown some concern about this. In 1982 he wrote: 'Sometimes I think people take the phrase further than

it should be taken and certainly than the book intended. My book is essentially about people and commodities, and for them the cost of distance has usually been high. But for ideas the freight has often been cheap. In the history of this land, ideas have usually leaped with relative ease across the ocean and even across the inlands.(5) If, as I believe, Blainey is right, distance education may be seen as one of the great facilitators enabling ideas to leap across long distances. Here again the experience of new societies has resulted in useful feedback for the rest of the world.

Education Through Correspondence

Consider for instance the speed with which the idea spread of correspondence education for primary schoolchildren. The first experiment in the education of children at home by correspondence is usually credited to the Calvert School at Baltimore in the United States in 1905-06. By 1910 departments of education in the Australian states were showing an interest in this innovation and between 1914 and 1922 each of the states set up a system of correspondence education designed to serve families in outback regions so remote that they could not muster even the eight or ten children who in those days constituted the statutory minimum for a one teacher school. The western and central Canadian provinces followed between 1919 and 1927, as did South Africa and New Zealand a little later.

These developments followed and accompanied the great push to open up new farmlands. During the first quarter of the twentieth century, both before and after the First World War there was a widespread belief in family emigration from Britain to the overseas dominions. It was thought that opportunities were contracting in the Old Country, whereas the new nations were clearly underpopulated and must be developed if the colonists were to justify their possession of the land. The remedy favoured by many politicians and publicists was the encouragement of a bold yeomanry of family settlers who would reverse the trend towards urban centralisation and become the founders of thriving rural communities. However the commonest reason given by settlers for grasping at these opportunities was the hope of providing a more ample life for their children than they could achieve elsewhere. Such people obviously would not remain

in the remote areas of Australia or Canada if their children ran the risk of growing up deficient in basic educational skills, and correspondence education was fostered at government level because it helped to sustain the agrarian myth.

One side-effect of correspondence education which appears to have been less widely publicised than it deserved was its reliance on the labour of wives and mothers as supervisors and teachers. The new democracies have always tended to regard the transmission of culture as an interest for women. It was taken for granted that as the men of the household would be fully occupied with their farm duties the children's mothers would accept the responsibility of organising the receipt and despatch of correspondence materials, overseeing the students to ensure that they got on with their assignments diligently and regularly, and in general fitting in the role of surrogate monitors with the thousand and one tasks of a busy pioneer wife. Few mothers had previous teaching experience of any kind and many had limited formal education. It would not have been surprising if in the process of helping their children with their education many mothers experienced some stimulus to their own intellectual interests. It has certainly been observed that among the most zealous supporters of adult education there are many middle-aged and elderly women who in their earlier years have undergone some experience of farm life.

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DEVELOPMENT OF DISTANCE EDUCATION IN INDIA - THE PRINCIPAL IMPEDIMENTS

by

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The Distance Education Scene in India

Distance education started in India in 1962, is now more than two decades old. Although all eminent educationists emphasized the need to strengthen this technique and make it more broad-based, the situation as it prevails today reveals that most of the Correspondence Institutes/Directorates undertake traditional courses run by universities, like B.A., B.Com., M.A., M.Com., M.Ed., LL.B., etc. Science courses like B.Sc., M.Sc., Computer Science, have received very little attention in distance education. Some professional courses, like Diploma in Journalism, Library Science, Personnel and Marketing Management have been started in some universities but the total number of students taking both science and professional courses is a very small fraction of the total enrolment benefiting from distance education. In other words, Correspondence Institutes/Directorates in India have become a sub-system of the traditional universities, covering a small section of the courses run by them, which are considered to be economically viable.

Data given in table 1 reveal the following:

- i. Undergraduate courses account for a total enrolment of 92,272 students; i.e., 57 percent of the total enrolment. These are B.A., B.Com., B.Com. (Hons) and B.Sc. courses.

- ii. 30,363 students study in traditional M.A. courses, 11,381 study in M.Com. and barely 1,748 are enrolled for M.Sc.
- iii. Professional courses of the traditional variety like B.Ed., M.Ed., LL.B./B.G.L./B.A.L. and B.Litt. account for 20,881 students i.e., 13.1 per cent of total enrolment.
- iv. Students enrolled in science courses account for barely 2 per cent of total enrolment.

To sum up, 98 per cent of the total enrolment in distance education in India is confined to traditional courses run by 23 universities and barely 2 per cent of the diploma and certificate courses are of an innovative nature. Thus, to describe the Correspondence Directorate/Institutes as a sub-system of the traditional university structure is very appropriate.

Table 1: Distribution of correspondence courses in the 23 universities conducting distance education courses in India (1982-83)

	Enrolment	Per cent of Total
A. <u>Undergraduate Courses</u>	92,272	57.8
a. B.A. & B.Com.	90,823	56.9
b. B.Sc.	1,449	0.9
B. <u>Postgraduate Courses</u>	43,492	27.2
a. M.A. & M.Com.	41,744	26.1
b. M.Sc.	1,748	1.1
C. <u>Professional Courses</u>	23,948	15.0
a. Degree courses	20,881	13.1
b. Diploma & Certificate courses	3,067	1.9
Grand Total	1,59,712	100.0

Source: Compiled from the data supplied by the University Grants Commission, India.

The total number of students enrolled in distance education courses in India in 1982-83 was 159 thousand as against 2,952 thousand enrolled in universities (including affiliated and constituent colleges). The share of distance education in higher education works out, therefore, to be 5.0 per cent. Obviously, we are far removed from the goal enunciated in the National Policy on Education to impart instruction to 20 per cent of the total enrolment in higher education through distance education.

Reasons for Lack of Proper Development of Distance Education

The question arises: What are the forces that have acted as shackles on the freedom of distance education directorates/institutes to develop? The following are the identifiable reasons for the prevailing situation:

- i. Distance education/correspondence and continuing education institutes are treated as mere appendages of traditional universities. Boggled by their own problems, universities find very little time to promote the technique of distance education. Discussions go on whether a particular course is amenable through the distance education medium, while the world has moved far ahead and discussion in Distance Education Institutes/Open Universities/Universities without Walls centres round the innovations to be made so that every kind of knowledge can be transmitted through distance education techniques. In India, therefore, we are still at the elementary level of debate about distance education.
- ii. Unfortunately, the present university structure exhibits a kind of asymmetry in the field of correspondence education. All educationists believe that for a good and meaningful system of education, the operators of the system should play a dominant role in decision-making for its conception, implementation, modification and growth. In our context, the operators (viz., the teachers and the supporting staff) are hardly associated with the process of decision-making. The university doesn't decide what is good for such staff without knowing their difficulties, problems and perspectives. This asymmetry destroys all initiative for devising innovations. It only underlines the absence of autonomy in decision-making pertaining to the operation and development of distance education.

- iii. Distance education/correspondence institutes in India do not have an identity of their own. Since they have not been considered as universities or deemed-universities, they can neither frame their syllabuses nor innovate their system of examinations. They have no option but to follow the syllabuses of the traditional universities and adhere to their examination pattern. Since there is no other system of accreditation, the public thinks that the degrees of correspondence courses can have credibility only if the students have gone through the same course content and examination. Although this is a very naive view, no effort has been made to dispel it. For this or a few regional Open Universities or autonomous Open University Campuses in the present university structure with the sole aim of undertaking the systematic growth of distance education.
- iv. Distance education institutions do not enjoy financial autonomy to run their programmes, to make innovations necessary for imparting instruction through this medium so that most of the programmes of developing distance education are sacrificed at the alter of financial support. This is not to suggest that in an under-developed economy like India, there should be no limit on financial autonomy of Distance Education Institutions, but to suggest that certain norms of provision of finance should be developed.
- v. Development of an independent and competent faculty of their own is a *sine qua non* for distance education institutions. This should comprise Professors, Associate Professors/Readers, Assistant Professors/ Lecturers. While recruiting this faculty, special aptitudes for writing reading materials should receive prime consideration. Unfortunately, most of the directorates are devoid of senior faculty positions. In some directorates, there are no positions in the teaching faculty. The entire work is being done with the help of persons who are hired on a part-time basis or on a contract for a particular job. These are unsatisfactory arrangements from the point of view of developing high-grade reading materials and other innovative teaching aids. The University Grants Commission has not provided senior faculty positions in Distance Education Institutions to be filled up from among distinguished teachers. That alone can raise the quality of reading

materials and help in providing credibility to correspondence education in the country.

- vi. Use of modern technology in distance education — Since in distance education, personal contact between the teacher and taught takes place only for the short duration of a week or two in a year during the personal contact programme, it is essential that this gap be filled by the use of video-tapes or close-circuit T.V. In an under-developed country, where the economically handicapped groups are the principal recipients of distance education, quite a good number of students may not have T.V. in their homes. Obviously, there is a strong need for establishing community TV centres. The University of Poona is experimenting with the idea of a close-circuit T.V. For preparing video-tapes, it is necessary to develop an infrastructure so that they can be utilised.
- vii. Development of library-cum-study centres was emphasized by the UGC in its guidelines for the development of correspondence education. To enable students, more especially at the postgraduate level, to have access to standard books and journals, the need for such centres spread out in the entire country is essential. To start with, as an experimental quarters of 23 universities which are running correspondence courses. Academically, the idea is sound because the aim is to expose correspondence students to facilities so as to enable them to compete effectively with their counterparts in regular colleges/university departments.

These centres can also be used for providing much-needed tutorial guidance to students. But the creation of library-cum-study centres and the introduction of tutorial schemes requires state support in the form of adequate funds. For this, the UGC has to play its role so that this alternative technique of education is developed.

Open University or Open University Campuses — the Way Out

It has been reported that the Government of India has decided to set up an Open University. However, no clear picture about the structure of such a National Open University

is available, although it is suggested that it can work on any of the following two models:

Model I: National Open University - As a Central Affiliating Institution

It should act as a central participative mechanism for quality control and development of the system of distance education with the existing correspondence and continuing units becoming its structural affiliates.

The model has the following advantages:

- i. Promotion of a national policy in distance education by the creation of an institution solely devoted to the development of distance education in the country;
- ii. to help in programme development at the national level and thus prepare a set of courses which can be adapted by any regional unit;
- iii. to help in developing library-cum-study centres in the country;
- iv. to help in the use of INSAT-1B for developing audio-visual programmes in the country; and
- v. to help in quality control in distance education.

But there can be obstacles in the development of Model I in India because:

- a. already Andhra Pradesh Open University has come into existence;
- b. there is a serious move of starting an Open University in Tamil Nadu as well as in Kerala;
- c. there may be resistance at the level of various universities and/or State levels experimenting with various ideas that a centralised structure will not offer them scope of experimentation and their identity will be lost and they will bend to become a sub-system of another super structure; and
- d. whether the National Open University in such a vast country would be able to achieve uniformity of standard. On account of these reasons, Model II may be a better one.

Model II: Open University Campuses Within the Existing Universities

In Model II, the existing units maintain their individual character and status and are developed as Open University Campuses at their respective universities. Even if regional open universities are set up in a State, the existing units of correspondence courses can become the nuclei of Open University Campuses attached with the University. The basic purpose should be to provide an environment in which correspondence education can prosper.

The Open University at the national level should, besides taking over the functions of the Bar Council/Medical Council of India, should also prescribe standards for distance education units in the country and help to promote programme development and research in improving the educational methodology of distance education.

However, whatever model the country adopts, it is high time that in order to strengthen the existing units of distance education, the UGC should immediately set up a Working Group to revise the UGC Guidelines to remove the impediments in the development of Distance Education.

SUMMARY

A study of the growth of distance education in India reveals that 98 per cent of the total enrolment is confined to traditional courses run by the universities and only 2 per cent of the diploma and certificate courses are of an innovative nature. The share of distance education in higher education works out to be 5 per cent as against the goal set out in the National Policy on Education of imparting instruction to 20 per cent of the population through distance education technique.

The principal impediment in the development of distance education is the fact that the operators of the system (viz., teachers and supporting staff) are hardly associated with the decision-making process. The decisions about distance education are taken by the dons in traditional universities and imposed upon the Directorates of Correspondence/Distance Education. This asymmetry destroys all initiative

in devising innovations, laying down proper norms for providing financial support, denying senior faculty positions in distance education directorates and the introduction of modern technology.

The way out of these impediments lies in the setting up of (i) a National Open University or a few regional Open Universities; or (ii) in developing autonomous Open University campuses within the traditional universities.

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**COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES
MEDIA ASSOCIATED WITH RURAL DEVELOPMENT**

by

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There are a number of ways and means to communicate with people in order to achieve certain goals. This paper is intended to highlight the role of a few strategies through which the rural community can be kept abreast of new development in the field of agriculture.

Agricultural Broadcast

Radio broadcasting is the most powerful mass media for bringing change in rural areas, especially of developing countries where the majority of the population is scattered over large rural areas. Such population people are largely illiterate. Villages are sparsely distributed and most of the residents are faced with natural barriers like forests, deserts, rivers, marshy land, mountains. Roads are also lacking. Agricultural extension activities are difficult to carry out and contact between farmers and field staff is negligible.

In such situations, agricultural broadcasts can be an effective approach for solving rural problems. In order to bring innovation, the agency E.S.C.A.P. (Economic and Social Commission for Asia and Pacific) aimed to furnish timely, accurate and up to date information to rural people, fishermen and farmers. A project known as Regional Cooperation on Farm Broadcasting was launched during 1979. After a thorough

field survey in different countries, it was found that FBC seemed to be a realistic strategy for solving agricultural and rural problems in Asian countries; for example, assisting rural people in seeking loan for the purposes of purchasing agricultural inputs — seed, fertilizer, pesticides, implements and livestock.

Radio Strategies

According to McAnany (1976), the effectiveness of radio depends not only on its qualities but on how it is going to be used. Gunter and Theroux (1977) contend that access to radio has now been extended to the vast majority of the populations in Latin America and to the larger minorities in all African and Asian countries. The assumption that radio now blankets the third world countries and reaches all its population is not a totally safe one. Many mountainous tracts are deprived of radio signals and transmitters/receivers are distributed unequally in such territories. If the latest innovation/technology is to be transferred to the rural masses, it is necessary that the transmitters are distributed at par in all the rural areas of the developing countries.

This paper is an attempt to throw light on the following radio strategies:

- i. Open Broadcasting.
- ii. Regular Listening Groups.

i. Open Broadcasting

The term "Open Broadcasting" refers to all those strategies or techniques which are employed in the use of radio aiming at producing and transmitting radio messages to the unorganized or non-captive mass audience. In the open broadcast approach, no illustrated, supplementary or supporting material or any sort of guideline is supplied to the listeners.

"There is no attempt to organize the listeners or to put much supporting material in their hands." (Jamison and McAnany - 1978).

For many third World countries, there is no choice. While most countries recognize the importance

of study guides and other supplementary material, they are not in a position to afford these due to geographical, postal and cost constraints. There are often no arrangements to organize listening groups, largely for the same reasons.

In support of the above open broadcast strategy, Gunter and Theroux (1977) contend that:

"Training of group leaders, production of print material, distribution and coordination problems all divert resources from the one component which a radio project can best control - quality of the broadcast message."

Such educators are of the view that once they convince mass audiences of the desirable long-term rewards (for instance, vocational skills), they can teach the masses through radio in the traditional ways. There is a big difference in the mass audience approach and the organized, grouped audience in many respects; e.g. desire for entertainment and escape. The surest way to capture the mass audience is to offer immediate and constant emotional gratification followed by education.

There are three types of model/approach for open broadcast aiming to reach and teach the true mass audience. These models are:

- A. Top-down (Advertising approach)
- B. Bottom-up (Audience participation approach)
- C. Quiz-show approach.
- A. Top-down (Advertising approach)

Gunter and Theroux (1977) drew a comparative difference between traditional educators and commercial advertisers. The educators generally try to bring great changes (e.g., literacy, numeracy and job training) in small groups of people. While on the other hand, the advertisers attempt to bring the more behavioural changes in mass audiences. The behavioural changes may be, for instance to switch from Brook Bond Tea to Lipton's Tea or

from Gold Leaf cigarettes to Will's brand cigarettes.

The commercial radio acts on the principle that it must motivate the audience to persuade it to change its behavioural habits. Conversely educational radio takes it for granted that this motivation for change already exists and thus does not adopt persuasive techniques. The strategy adopted by the advertizer is to "reach with frequency". The same brief message is repeated and inserted into pauses between the entertainment programme which is appreciated and liked by the audience. In fact the strategy of a "suger-coated" message with a thick layer of entertainment is based on the assumption that it is best to reach and communicate to the listening audience frequently.

It must be ensured, while promoting any thing or item, that the audience are actually be able to obtain it without much difficulty.

B. Bottom-up (Audience Participation Approach)

The bottom-up approach obviously contrasts with the top-down approach. The radio programmes are participative and community controlled, being produced *by* the rural people *for* the rural people. The example of Tabacundo in South America can be illustrated. In this small Andean town in Ecuador, a local radio station conducted an experiment with using cassette-recorders in order to create audience-made programme. The idea behind the strategy was to have the rural people record their own programmes. The programmes were meant for the general open-broadcast audience.

The production method runs like this: the blank cassettes are provided to the local helpers who are asked to visit the rural people in their areas and record meetings, entertainment, discussion and complaints. The recorded tape is then handed over to the local radio station. It is reviewed, edited and aired for one to two hours of community programmes.

The open broadcast strategy is possible only in those countries where the people (especially the farming communities) are at full liberty to express their views, ideas, and complaints, etc., which may be heard by the proper quarter.

C. Quiz-show Approach

The Quiz-show approach is perceived to be the most useful approach for open broadcasting. In its commercial capacity, it has fully demonstrated its potential to attract a mass audience for participation. According to Jamison and McAnany (1978), the educational quiz-show was developed and tested at the University of Massachusetts. It was found that the participants learned comparatively more from listening to a quiz-show than from listening to lectures.

In the quiz-show one moderator and three to four contestants participate. Contestants should not be strangers to the target audience, but readily identified by them. The moderator, should possess qualities like a quick mind, an energetic and appealing voice, a spontaneous, outspoken manner and the ability to entertain by making jokes.

ii. Regular Listening Groups

'The regular listening groups' method is in sharp contrast to the 'open broadcasting' approach. Jamison and McAnany (1978) contend:

"The regular listening group strategy consists of a combination of radio messages, broadcast on a consistent schedule, usually coupled with some printed material. The group is organised to listen to the broadcasts together. They discuss them or share some common learning experience."

Rogers and Braun (1977) suggest that:

"The listening group, if composed of at least one or more literates along with the majority of the illiterates, acts to pool the knowledge

and the experience of the group members in a way that closes the previously existing gap between the two extremes (literate and illiterate)."

It is true that attitude change is more likely to occur when participation and group pressure is present. Most communal problems can easily be solved. For instance, miscellaneous agricultural/communal problems were solved in Nepal; similarly, the change in attitude helped in controlling the codling Moth in Murree areas (Pakistan), digging of water course, eradication of rats and arranging drinking water for cattle in rural areas. Moreover, when multi-media are integrated and used, the common message will be more effective.

The regular listening group strategy includes the following organized methods:

- i. Radio Farm Forum.
- ii. Radio Campaign.
- iii. Radio School.

- i. Radio Farm Forum

"A radio forum is a small listening group that meets regularly in order to receive special radio programmes, which members then discuss. On the basis of the programme and discussion, they decide what types of relevant action to take." (Rogers 1977).

For the purposes of the strategy of radio farm forum, three different terms are found in the literature: radio farm forum; 'radio forum' and 'radio rural forum'. The meaning of these terms is generally the same.

The rural forum is a collection of a few people, drawn from some geographical boundary or environment. The local extension officer or coordinator serves as a group leader. The homogeneity and the interaction within the group counts much for action.

The first experience with radio listening groups was explored in Europe. The idea of supplementing radio with interpersonal channels originated in England during 1928 and then spread to Norway, Switzerland and Czechoslovakia in the early 1930's. Russia had also adopted the strategy of radio forum, where other media - print, newspapers were used for discussion. Then from Russia it went to China in 1930. It is estimated that 70% of the adult population in China participated regularly and demonstrated the use of group discussion (in the mid 1960's).

Canada's radio forum appears to have been started in 1940. In order to introduce the system of radio forum in the country, a special committee was constituted by the government and private educational agencies. The first programme was broadcast in January, 1941 for the benefit of farmers. The farm forum movement in Canada proved to be the first large-scale and successful attempt to harness rural education through radio and self-help group discussion. Agricultural advice and other relevant information were given.

The Canadian experience of radio forum proved to be a model for other countries. India was the first developing country to take the idea in 1949, followed by a number of other countries - Ghana, Nigeria, Malawi, Togo, Malagasy, Pakistan, Jordan, Indonesia, Japan, Brazil and Costa Rica.

The radio forum in India is also working on the multi-media approach linked with the interpersonal communication of group discussion. The people meet twice a week to listen to the radio programmes which were of thirty minutes' duration, on topics like health, agriculture, home improvement and education. Some visual aids (posters, charts, calendar and study guide) were distributed in order to make the programme more effective. Young, M. et al (1980) say that there are more than 22,500 registered farm forums in India.

The government of Ghana established a radio farm forum during 1964. This was the first African

country to copy from the experiments of Canadian and Indian projects. From Ghana, the idea of establishing forums was tested in other African countries - Zambia, Malawi and Nigeria. The forum programmes are broadcast weekly and include questions for discussion and activities of adult education. The strategy of radio forum has helped to bring self-sufficiency in food production in a few African countries.

In the Ghanaian forums other activities are undertaken at community level. Visual aids and other printed material are supplied. Some of the forum topics are: market facilities for the commodities; terms and conditions for the floating of loans; storage of perishable crops; health, education, care of handicapped people, and improvement of rural areas.

Cocoa is the major commodity in Ghana which is the world's chief cocoa exporter. For increasing per acre productivity, the need for improved farming techniques and the use of effective media to reach and teach the farming community was thus realized.

In Ghana there were 200 registered rural forums by 1968: by 1971 the numbers increased to 324 and now exceeds 400.

ADVANTAGES OF RADIO FORUMS

According to Jamison and McAnany (1978) and Bogue (1979), a number of advantages can be enumerated:

1. Radio forum is the superior method of disseminating knowledge as compared to simply broadcasting educational programmes.
2. The programmes can be rendered more effective if the radio is supplemented by other media, e.g. audio-visual posters, radio-vision.
3. The radio forum promotes a sense of homogeneity, awareness, cooperation and cultivates confidence and power of decision-making.

4. The forum provides the producers/broadcasters with feed-back information.

FEASIBILITY

1. The size of the forum should be small. It should consist of 20-25 members. The reason is quite obvious, because in the case of a large forum, it would not be possible for full participation/discussion.
2. In radio forums, sometimes it so happens that the discussion is dominated by one or two educated persons.
3. Donker (1979) points out that the farmers' hopes and expectations are not kept high. Many forums fail badly owing to low credibility and thus become dysfunctional, i.e. it can be explained in this way that the latest technology can only be adopted by the audience, if the communication gap between the communicator and the audience is minimal as the rural poor always look forward to get their problems solved.

ii. Radio Campaigns

The radio campaign strategy either employs the open-broadcast method only (as in the case of 'Masagan 99' programme of the Philippines) or a combination of both the approaches of open-broadcasts and organised listening groups (e.g., the Tanzanian Radio Campaigns).

Higgins, R. (1979) has defined radio campaigns as:

"A unified effort to attain a single advertising or communication objective, which should have a single themeline as "Grow more food-have fewer children", "Things go better with Coke", "Rat control", "Weed control".

The first radio learning campaign about the Botswana 'National Development Plan' was carried out during 1973. Another successful campaign entitled 'Tribal Grazing Land Policy' was launched in the year 1976, on a large scale. The land was held traditionally as common by the tribal people. Their cattle were increasing and were uncontrollable. The communal grazing resulted

in the problem of soil erosion. In order to solve the problem, a plan for a radio learning campaign was undertaken. The Botswana Campaign consisted of the following main features:

1. A study-group leader recruited at the village meeting by the agricultural extension officers;
2. The study material—study guide, radio programmes, flip-charts, set of illustrations and version of grazing land policy proposal, were distributed to the leaders.

According to Young, M., et al (1980), there were 3,000 learning groups and more than 55,000 people were reached through the campaign.

Advantages of the Radio Campaign Approach

The radio campaign approach can overcome the restrictions of exclusively face-to-face extension methods. It has the capability to reach out to the remotest areas, which the traditional extension methods cannot reach and it appears to provide more effective teaching/learning methods.

In Pakistan the radio campaign strategy is said to have been quite useful in controlling the codling moth in the hilly tracts of Murree.

Limitations/Drawbacks

1. Campaigns concentrate on radio and pay inadequate or altogether no attention to the design and the use of permanent support materials.
2. The effort is concentrated on launching the campaign for short, sharp periods of time.
3. Various agencies and the departments involved in the preparation of the campaigns, sometimes do not cooperate and thus they cannot be launched in time.
4. Lack of public support sometimes hinders the running of the campaigns. A joint and coordinated support from the masses and the concerned departments can make any campaign a real success.

Tanzanian Campaigns

The Tanzania case has contributed a lot to improve the quality of life of masses in combining radio and discussion relating to developmental areas of health, agricultural productively, nutrition and education. In fact, the radio campaigns originated in Tanzania and much of the evidence emerges from the half a dozen radio campaigns launched.

To begin with, a project was undertaken on limited scale in 1967. The early campaign was mainly based on political issues and a series of radio programmes was conducted. Two years later, a small radio unit was set up for the provision of education at national level, when the Institute of Adult Education and the Cooperative Education Centres were assigned joint responsibility with the main objective of reaching the adult population living in the rural areas.

A third experiment was conducted during 1970, which was the year of Tanzania's second general election, under the title "The Choice is Yours". An extensive adult education study campaign to educate listeners on the subject of the election was put across over the radio, through a radio series, with supporting printed material, booklet and guide.

According to Dodds (1972), another nation wide campaign popularly known as "Time to Rejoice" was carried out in order to celebrate Tanzania's Tenth Anniversary of Independence. This campaign reached out to 1500 - 2000 groups, in which 20,000 members participated.

Then during the year 1973, the government of Tanzania sponsored one more radio campaign entitled "Man is Health". Bogue (1979) says that the target of reaching 750,000 adults living in 4,400 villages was achieved.

1. Over 750,000 pit latrines were dug.
2. Many people participated and came to know various diseases, their symptoms and prevention through the mobilization of people.
3. The health campaign showed substantial improvement in the public health measures - such as the breeding places of mosquitos and flies destroyed, adopted the practice of boiling drinking water.

The sixth radio campaign was called "Food is life" and launched in 1975.

Objectives of the Campaigns

1. To create awareness among the Tanzanian peasants and workers about the causes and incidence of dangerous diseases (due to malnutrition in infants, children);
2. To encourage the farmers in the country to boost agricultural production;
3. To teach people the importance of a balanced diet;
4. To persuade people to solve the problems of disease - like marasmus and pelagra.

Efforts were also made to improve the standard of living through income-generating schemes like kitchen gardening, bee-keeping and poultry-farming.

iii. Radio Schools

The term "Radio School" refers to a form of organized listening-group, which originated in Colombia during 1940 as an educational radio station, and after that spread in many countries of Latin America.

Radio schools, in fact, started in the capital area of Tegucigalpa, when a priest, P. Jose Molina, visited Colombia in order to look into the possibilities of such a scheme and through his efforts, a radio station and radio school for peasants started functioning in 1960. At the time of adopting this system, the rural pastors were contacted and asked to promote the idea of literacy classes. Necessary items like a radio, blackboard, and materials were supplied to each monitor.

Through the pastors keen interest and efforts, there was a substantial expansion of radio schools in Honduras. The pastors also promoted the idea of holding meetings of leaders of neighbourhood religious organizations.

The radio school helped this sector of the community in solving the local problems and developing

contacts with outside agencies. As it developed, the literacy programme continued but the concept of adult education was broadened towards the development of attitudes and skills in community participation.

Jamison and McAnany (1978) have drawn out some of the salient features and the effective role played towards achieving the objectives of promoting skills in literacy, health and agriculture and in raising the consciousness of its audience.

With regard to the effectiveness of the literacy programme of the radio schools (10 year period), the evaluation reveals that:

1. 10% of the population benefited.
2. Womens' household clubs in villages helped to implement and improve health practices.
3. The level of social consiousness in radio villages was much higher than the non-radio villages. Radio villages carried out more community activities as compared to the non-radio villages.

Jamison and McAnany (1978) conclude that the radio school model for the purposes of non-formal education possesses many positive and negative features.

Positive Features

1. Radio schools concentrate on the audiences in rural areas for acquiring learning needs.
2. Radio schools' approach fits into many learning principles, which include:
 - a. Group learning approach.
 - b. Multi-media elements (radio, printed material, newspapers, radio-vision, and other audio-visual aids).
 - c. Supervision by local people.

Negative Features

1. Too much concentration on literacy seems to be a misuse of efforts. There is other important information for

the development of rural areas which also needs to be conveyed through the use of radio.

2. Radio schools often do not involve themselves in the activities of community development claiming to be strictly educational.
3. The major emphasis of radio schools seems to be focused on the mass media messages without giving enough attention to feed back from the rural groups.

Conclusion

On the basis and the lines of the Tanzanian campaigns, the Department of Agricultural Sciences of Allama Iqbal Open University should also prepare agricultural slogans of 1-2 minutes duration for the benefit of the farmers. These slogans should be inserted in the Non-broadcast cassettes in the agricultural courses, for the enrolled students.

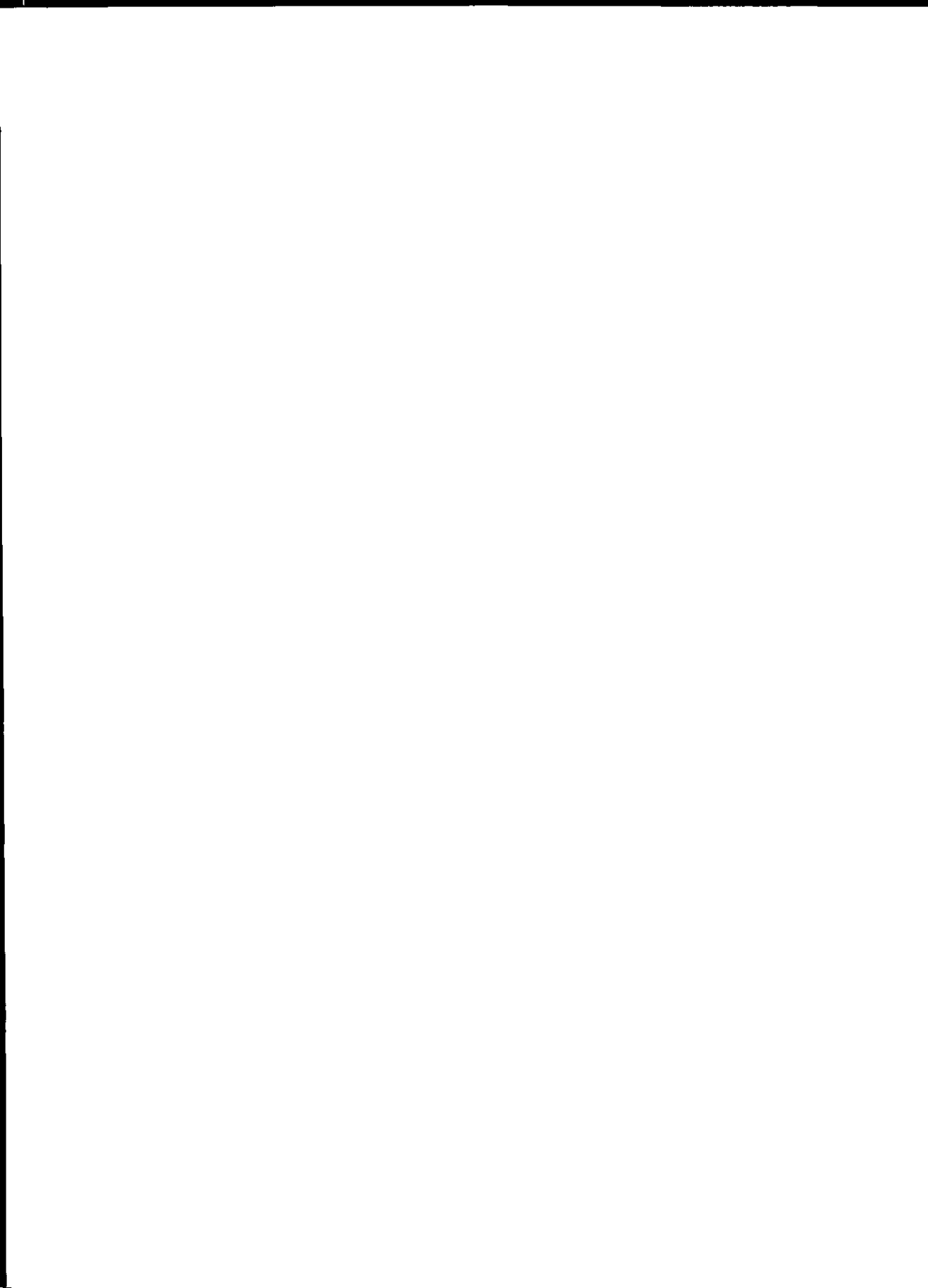
The slogans could read as under:

1. Eradicate rodents, as they damage crops and produce.
2. Eradicate weeds, as these compete with crops for water, fertilizer, light and space.
3. After the harvest of such crops as sugar cane, maize, rice, the stubbles should be removed and burnt to prevent hibernating.

These types of slogans could also be printed in the form of hand-outs (of course in bold words) and mailed to the enrolled students along with study material (e.g. books, questionnaires, and cassettes).

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ANTI-DESIGN AND DISTANCE EDUCATION
HOW NOT TO TEACH AGRICULTURE AT A DISTANCE

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Abstract

This paper represents a novel approach to the design of distance learning materials.

Prospective academic authors are given unsound advice on the assumption that they are likely to do the opposite to that suggested. This assumption is based on empirical observation of the behaviour of authors over a period of time.

It concludes with some sound advice and a note for those who overemphasise the importance of ideal models of instructional design.

Considerable experience in designing distance learning materials and familiarity with numerous instructional design manuals, based on a multitude of theories; or ideologies, as the case may be, leads one to the conclusion that exhortations to perfection are not necessarily productive.

The ideal learning package approach ignores several important factors such as:

- a. How the ideal state is to be reached.

- b. The attitudes and competencies of contributors.
- c. Available resources.
- d. Political and organisational factors.

Such considerations as these probably underlie the observation that when confronted with ideal designs of distance learning materials, a common reaction of authors is to produce material which contradicts the ideal design in almost every possible way.

This paper argues that if ideal designs produce anti-learning materials then anti-designs will produce sound learning materials. In simple terms, it is felt that if clients' behaviours are the converse to advice given, then systematically presented unsound advice is the most beneficial input.

To illustrate this approach, the anti-design of agriculture courses in developing countries may be considered.

Advice for Academic Authors

Before you start writing, familiarise yourself with the following strategies:

1. Ignore budgeting restraints, always choose the most complex and expensive alternatives, especially if there are hidden and continuing costs above those of the initial investment. Computer assisted learning in areas without electricity and the use of consultants ignorant of local conditions are promising developments in this field. Justify your decisions by defining effectiveness purely in terms of cost. Under no circumstances make an objective evaluation of outcomes.
2. Keep the aims of the course as vague as possible so that selective adaptation may be surreptitiously carried out to meet the needs of the institution. Clearly stated aims give rise to criteria for accountability, therefore, they are to be avoided. If the clients need to develop practical competencies in irrigation, but you are only interested in the potential of mathematical modelling for hydrology, then an aim such as 'give students a sound basis for decision making' will enable personal interests to be pursued without too many questions concerning relevance, being asked.

3. Present the course in a way which will enhance the prestige of the institution. Do not pay undue attention to costs or teaching effectiveness. Glossy coloured printed material is highly visible and not only symbolically valued by students but highly desired by plagiarists who will readily supply goodwill in lieu of acknowledgement. A few video tapes and audio cassettes are also good image builders. As they are rarely played, the quality of the content is not worthy of much attention. So the development of a multimedia package (books, tapes, slides, video, computer software) on subsistence agriculture won't do much for the farmers, but gives a high profile to both the institution and its instructional designers.
4. Always structure your courses on traditional lines. This will gain support from conservative senior academics who will be delighted with a multimedia presentation of fossilised ideas. Alternatively, teach only aspects which you are interested in and have a sound prior knowledge of. This may lead to some criticism, so choose only the most exotic aspects. On no account consider the needs of students, as you will become a low status surveyor of low status knowledge. For example, a course on the 'Social and Psychological Consequences of Nomadic Herding' does far more for one's reputation than the teaching of 'Basic Animal Husbandary'.
5. Do not attempt to relate your contributions to any other parts of the course. This will confuse you, force you to make new conceptual links, and ultimately affect the rigour of the discipline. It is the students' role to link together the findings of discrete studies. Aim for detail and accuracy rather than coherence.

If you have a good knowledge of intensive pig rearing, then do not hesitate to use it to illustrate the housing, feeding and breeding of livestock in a Muslim country, even though related subjects focus on more acceptable animals.

6. Never consider your own strengths and weakness. Don't hesitate in designing courses of which you have; no time to produce, no knowledge to contribute, no experiences to call upon. Aim for the ideal and don't feel inhibited by the ignorance or incompetence of yourself, or your colleagues.

If you go to a conference (preferably overseas) and hear that cloning is of vital importance to the livestock industry then regardless of your ignorance and lack of time, insert it in every relevant course. Only in this way will your students be familiar with the cutting edge of scientific advancement in agriculture.

7. Ignore the abilities and needs of your students. If credence is given to their views, then your course will be a low level, structureless mess which will give you little credit as an expert in the field.

If the illiteracy or low reading ability of many students of agriculture is taken into account, communication by audiotape, and comics may be appropriate. However, this has such undesirable consequences for both the discipline and its disciples, that the fallibilities and foibles of students are best ignored. Standards are best maintained by ensuring drop out rates keep about the 80% mark.

8. Don't look for or ask for, assistance by non-academics. Work on your own, develop your own media, don't discuss work with colleagues. If you begin to work with others, your incompetencies will be made public, and also you will have to meet deadlines, and rely on other people.

If you were teaching about rice cultivation, you could: get inputs from local farmers and agricultural advisers, arrange for appropriate illustration to be made, obtain up to date production figures. However, a complex managerial situation will arise where the author loses sole control so it's better for a single academic to write down all she or he knows about a topic, as this should be more than adequate. Better still, use an external author who knows nothing of the institution, students, or teaching.

If all these strategies are adopted, then when writing the material, the following fundamentals of sound instructional design should provide invaluable guidelines:

- i. The material must not be not unduly stimulating or interesting, or else a desire to learn will be generated, resulting in low drop out rates, excessive marking and over lengthy assignments. To

avoid over-enthusiasm; ignore usefulness and relevance, take an impersonal, uncaring approach, pay no attention to layout and packaging and use no illustrations. Ask questions such as:

'What is the empirical evidence of the negative contribution of fluvial erosion phenomena to the economy of the agricultural enterprise?'

Rather than:

'Describe a case of soil erosion you are familiar with and discuss; its affect on the farmer and how it could be controlled.'

This approach also helps with regard to standards.

- ii. The students must never be told what they are supposed to achieve. If this is made clear, non-achievers may seek to blame their teachers, also, the question of relevancy may arise. Keep information about appropriate knowledge, competencies and attitudes, as vague as possible. The students should be encouraged to use the assessments to find out what they should be achieving.

Never expect students to act; it's fine if a student can recognise soil erosion, but if anyone is inspired to actually do something about it, the insitution may be blamed for instigating activities which are politically undesirable. Real students are knowers rather than doers; to know what should be known is the ultimate test, not to be debased by practicalities and spoonfeeding.

- iii. Make sure that understanding of the structure of the discipline arises from the student's private thoughts, and not from any attempt by the author to impose a conceptual framework — the seamless robe of knowledge has no form!

If teaching about cattle, deal with the topic in order of the interesting articles and books you discover.

Do not use the traditional: anatomy, physiology, behaviour, husbandry approach; or work from the

students needs: buying a cow, feeding a cow, selling a cow. Both approaches represent an imposition of structure which is inhibiting to individual understanding.

- iv. Do not give students comprehensive guidance concerning how to use the learning materials with which they are provided.

Giving students study schedules ignores the findings of the androgogues, who emphasise freedom of choice for adult learners. It also ignores the seasonality of the farm year, so let the students work out their own schedules. Remember, if you have no schedule, then no submission can be regarded as late.

- v. Never ask students to do anything other than read or listen. Active learning is to be regarded as inefficient time wasting.

Do not ask students questions, or require them to relate theory to their own experiences. Avoid 'dialogue-in-print' and encourage efficient passive absorption.

For example, it would be far more productive for the student wheat-farmer to focus on written accounts of the population dynamics of vertebrate wheat pests, than wasting time observing and recording the destruction of his crops by a plague of mice.

- vi. Ensure students are never informed of their progress. This leads to unrest and dissatisfaction, often arising from a misinterpretation of marks and grades. Feedback should be intermittent, vague and highly critical; in this way a sound relationship between teacher and taught will soon develop. Avoid self assessment at all costs, as they will only give students delusions of competence.

Unsupervised action research, where students are asked to identify and overcome a problem on their land, prescribe a treatment and carry it out, is highly appropriate, if not contaminated

with guidance and advice. If too much advice is given, marking is impossible as it will not be the students original work. Real mistakes are a real learning experience.

- vii. See that students are not required to use their knowledge, as this interferes with the rapid acquisition of new knowledge. Status rather than competency is the goal, aim for high levels of abstraction and conceptual density. Never repeat or revise and do not relate theory to practice, for fear of its debasement. To learn the correct names of a thousand invertebrate pests is more important than a mere ability to identify a few in the field. By restricting descriptions to a drawing and a few notes, a much more comprehensive range of examples may be dealt with.
- viii. Never plan the assessment procedure until the course has been taught, as an early statement of assessment directs students' learning along narrow paths, also you may not actually teach what you intend to, so it would be unfair to assess it. Try to assess knowledge rather than skills or attitudes, making sure your procedures emphasis reliability rather than validity. True/false tests on the classification of plant pests are a useful type of assessment item; invaluable for discrimination.

Do not waste time evaluating the worthwhile-ness of courses. If students get qualifications the course must be worthwhile. A BSc in Ag Science does far more for the individual than any ability to actually farm. As long as appropriate numbers pass, there is no need to alter courses in a mindless quest for relevancy and usefulness.

Conclusion

It is hypothesised that the course author will ignore the advice above, and as it contains a series of examples of unproductive attitudes and behaviours, these will not be evident in the resulting materials.

Hopefully authors would ask themselves the following questions and make sure they get positive answers before asking students to devote a considerable part of their life to distance learning:

- Is the subject stimulating and interesting?
- Is what is required from the students clearly communicated?
- Is the subject logically presented and related to the existing knowledge of the students?
- Do the students have enough guidance about how to work through the materials?
- Are suitable exercises and learning activities provided?
- Do the students get adequate feedback about their performance?
- Can the students retain and use knowledge?
- Can the students be judged fairly and can evidence be collected about the effectiveness of the teaching?

The real purpose of this article is to point out that:

- a. Developing sound materials using the ideal design approach is very much a hit and miss affair.
- b. There are many common mistakes which are evident in the design and development of learning materials, but which are taken for granted by those concerned.
- c. Instructional designers should not take themselves too seriously and remember that style is as important as substance.

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SOME ISSUES INCUMBENT UPON THE USE OF THE
OPEN UNIVERSITY SYSTEM IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

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Abstract

The current expansion in the use of the open university system in many developing countries calls for a reconsideration of some vital and critical issues central to it. That is the main purpose of this paper. In particular, the paper reviews the possibilities for the survival in the developing countries of a system of such magnitude that relies heavily on modern technology.

The paper concludes by noting that unless certain managerial principles are strongly adhered to, the objectives of establishing the open university system in developing countries might not be achieved.

Introduction

Many developing countries are very busy looking for new and urgent answers to their numerous problems of development. There is starvation ravaging many of the developing

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countries; many are doing articulate 'battles' against drought; many are battling with an almost unrestrained population explosion; many of their citizens are increasingly dying of preventable diseases; many have economies that are making little or no progress; abject poverty stares most of their citizens on the face; many are politically unstable; many are still precariously dependent on the super-powers for survival; and, above all, their educational service provisions are running far short of the demand resulting in inequality of educational opportunities and an unscrupulous relegation of the universally acknowledged 'right to learn' to the background.

Even then, education is still recognised as one of the basic things to be firmly established as the developing countries search for solutions to some of the problems already listed.

In trying to 'leap-frog' into the circle of developed countries, the developing countries almost always try to build the principles of 'cost-benefit' and 'cost-effectiveness' into whatever projects that are designed to enhance the long-sought transformation. A paper on some issues incumbent upon the use of one such projects is therefore necessary in many ways. If for nothing else, the suggestion of certain guidelines for the effective growth of the open university system could prevent large-scale failures.

Project failure has a negative psychological effect on both the sponsors, implemeters and potential adopters. In one way, it has a way of discouraging those who are investment-wary to perpetually stay aloof from experimentation.

The various open universities that sprang up in many developing countries are the products of experimentation. The success that attended some of the experiments has now prompted the widespread initiation of more of their kinds in these countries as would now be shown.

Open Universities in Developing Countries

Before briefly highlighting aspects of the growth of the open university system in developing countries, it might be necessary to first of all cite some of the premises on which the system is based.

Many of the developing countries seem to believe that the open university system is now necessary because:

1. It is part answer to the question of inequality in educational opportunities;
2. It promotes the right of everybody to learn;
3. It encourages people who are more interested in part-time rather than full-time study;
4. It offers variety of teaching and learning techniques;
5. It offers viable alternative to manpower development strategies;
6. It offers quality education by dint of using many experts who would not have been available to a large audience; and
7. It offers avenues for a more widespread sharing of the resources and expertise of the entire world.

Believing in these and other numerous advantages of the open university system, many developing countries have been initiating projects in the area, thus building on what the United States achieved when in 1892 the Extension Services Department was established at the University of Chicago by President Harper, an idea which later spread to Wisconsin, Oregon and Kansas, and on what the Soviet Union achieved when in 1929 it established the All-Union External Polytechnical Institute which has since become part of the regular state education system (Young et. al, 1980:16). The developing countries have since started building on these gains and wherever one goes, the open university system, as an educational innovation, ranks among important educational sectors.

Typically, in *Pakistan* one finds the Allama Iqbal Open University founded in 1974 (Khan, 1974: 176-9). In the *Fiji Islands*, the University of the South Pacific has since 1971 been running diploma-level correspondence courses for unqualified teachers in over ten countries in a wide region of scattered islands; in *Iran*, the Free University of Iran has since 1973 been providing opportunities for higher education and lifelong learning among the general population; in *Israel*, the Everyman's University has since 1976 been providing in-service teacher training, secondary and tertiary

courses for adults; in *Rwanda*, L'Universite Radiophonique de Giterama (URG) has since 1964 been improving that country's primary school curriculum content with a view to making it more relevant for an agricultural environment; in *Colombia*, the Universidad Abierta de Javeriana (JOUP) has since 1974 been helping with the development of rural primary school teachers; and in *Costa Rica*, La Universidad Estatal a Distancia de Costa Rica has since 1968 been active in spreading education (Young et al, 1980: 164-222). More recently, *Thailand* by the provisions of the Royal Charter of 1978 established the Sukhothai Thammathirat Open University of Thailand (Srisa-an, 1983:128); *China* in February, 1979 established its Central Radio and Television University (CRTVU) to train the professional manpower needed for its socialist modernisation (Central Radio and Television University, Beijing, 1984-16-25) and *Nigeria* in 1983 established a National Open University (NOU) which has been suspended by the military authorities (Oduaran, 1985:8-9). This presentation has thus revealed that the open university system is gaining ascendancy in many developing countries. As a matter of fact, many more such universities have been deliberately left unmentioned.

The ascendancy of the open university system among developing countries might not thrive much longer if some issues surrounding its nature are not regularly discussed with a view to alerting the administrators of the system about the dangers in failing to cultivate the system to the envy of its antagonists.

The System's Nature

There is hardly any need to restate the already too well known nature of the open university system. It is, however, necessary to remind all of its nature since it is on the system's nature its antagonists have found grounds of attacks.

The open university system provides widespread university education mainly by means of electronics and print media, including education by correspondence. It presupposes, noted Mackenzie (1975:16), a specially designed course of study rooted in the application of written material, radio, television, films, tapes, laboratory work and such other means of instruction as are deemed useful in enhancing self-directed learning.

The open university system is open to a large audience just as it is open to the adoption of multi-dimensional communication media and sound ideas.

Utilization Problems or Issues

Problems or issues surrounding the use of the open university system stem in the first place from its mature and from those involved in teaching several thousands of students under different learning situations and over distance and, then from the intricate administrative web needed to get as near the students as possible.

From the point of view of its nature, it might be pertinent to ask: are the developing countries capable of sustaining an educational innovation that relies on efficient technology? Do the developing countries have the managerial capability for such a system?

The point has already been made that the open university is largely bi-faceted in the sense that it uses both the electronics and non-electronics media.

The electronics media used include the television, radio, films, tapes and programmed instruction. These devices depend largely on electricity, the supply of which is not only erratic but restricted in many developing countries. This then means the system for a long time to come would have to depend on some form of alternative electricity supply system. This is to enable all the open universities in the developing countries supplement the public electricity supply, using, of course, their own generating sets. The system cannot afford to do without electricity supply entirely, especially where large numbers of its clients are in the urban centres. Electricity supply is something the system cannot do without in terms of its low costs to both the management and students.

An alternative to the above suggestion is to de-emphasize the use of electronics media for the transmission of the learning packages.

De-emphasizing the application of electronics takes out of the system some of its attraction, that is the use of multi-media senses. That way, very little cognizance would be taken of an educationally adhered to notion which, according to Mauma (1975:80), states that the more senses of

organ one uses, the better the understanding of what is learned and the more the understanding, the better of retention which leads to a purposeful application of what is learnt. The multi-media approach to teaching and learning could be an effective anti-dote to the drab and seclusion tied to individual home study that is characteristic of the students in this system; and, if this is the case, one might readily profer these suggestions:

1. Apart from providing alternative sources of electricity at the headquarters, study centres ought to be similarly fitted with relevant receives and play-back facilities (this idea might be weakened by costs, problems of maintenance and the fact that the public power supply frequently goes off unannounced thus making it almost impossible for students to commute to the nearest study centres);
2. The students may rely on the use of batteries in the event of incessant power cuts (but given the poverty level in most of the developing countries, it is doubtful if several students might not find this to be rather expensive so much so that it will be a weak idea especially if it is realized that the battery industry is yet at a developmental stage); and
3. In spite of the advantages accruing to the use of the multi-media approach, it seems we might have to de-emphasize the use of the electronics media since the public supply of electricity in many developing countries is yet unimpressive.

De-emphasizing the use of the electronics media means, of course, a greater reliance on the use of the non-electronics devices and these include the printed material, study kits, laboratory work (including the Home Experimental Kits), prescribed text and contact sessions. To a large extent, the success of this alternative means of delivery depends on some kind of efficient postal system. Many developing countries are yet to have something near efficient postal services. This, perhaps, is the reason behind the proposal of the Federal Government of Nigeria, for example, to allow its suspended National Open University (NOU) own its courier service (Nigerian Federal Republic). Granted that there would be no dereliction of duty, such a courier service could offer a good solution to the problem of inefficient postal systems in many developing countries. Even

then, it is only tacit and prudent management of the courier service that would make it anything reliable.

Related to the issues bothering on the reliability of the open university system by virtue of its nature are such other ones as the appropriateness of the timing for its widespread adoption, costs, standards, its certification system and personnel. The first question that many critics of the system continue to ask is: why do developing countries think about open universities now? Many established universities in the developing countries are experiencing financial squeeze. Such has been this squeeze that most of them are having to reluctantly draw from their capital outlays. The argument put forward now, noted Afolabi Ojo (1981:5-3), is that rather than proliferate universities, why not invest such money in consolidating and expanding existing ones so that they can carry on the work meant for the new system? The counter argument is that the hands of the existing universities hereinto referred to as conventional universities seem to be rather too full to provide for the number of qualified persons deliberately kept outside owing to inadequate facilities and for people who are either in voluntary or involuntary confinement. In addition to this category are ambitious and intelligent adult persons who because of the important economic role they play just cannot go into residence for studies. Above all, the multimedia approach used in this system is costly and the conventional universities can hardly afford investing in this kind of project without allowing their traditional functions to suffer; and, considering the fact that education is a right, the category of beneficiaries specified above ought to have a chance to engage in this self-motivating system of instruction which, according to Afolabi-Ojo (1981:5), is not hooked up in time, locations and credentials.

Secondly, the issue of cost bothers the mind of many critics of the system. The system is cost-prohibitive to many developing countries. The situation is worst still for hitherto bouyant developing nation like Nigeria whose level of external borrowing rises from time to time, especially from about 1981. The fact hardly needs to be stated that the problem with Nigeria has not always been how to get the funds; it is with the management of resources. If anything, Nigeria has been under-investing in some sectors of development, including higher education. For example, she has been unable to make the two per cent already specified as the

average enrolment in universities for low-income countries by 1977. Compared with Senegal, Zambia and Liberia, relatively poorer nations, which made the required two per cent in 1977, Nigeria's achievement by that same date, according to Diejomaoh (1981:4), was one per cent. Apart from increasing enrolments, the system, when properly managed, might be cost effective since course materials could be massively and technically reproduced, recycled as many times as possible while at the same time they can be audited by almost everybody at no extra costs in some strict compliance with economics of scale.

Thirdly, most people fear that its liberal admission requirements may further help to lower the already falling standards of education, if there is actually anything like that. Though there could be some genuine explanation for this idea, most of the students in the system are expected to be working adults whose maturity and work experience would be considered both in the standardisation and certification of the institution. Moreover, research findings have indicated only a weak correlation between entry requirement and academic performance of students in Nigerian Universities (Diejomaoh, 1981) and there is very little reason, therefore, to doubt the academic ability of the students, especially as course materials are often work-oriented and face-to-face contact sessions are expected to be used as supplementary pedagogical assistance..

Fourthly, there is the observation that many conventional universities in the developing countries are already short-staffed to allow for a further depletion of the pool of personnel. A counter observation recognizes the fact that many of the long-established universities have begun to take care of the shortage of personnel in their postgraduate programmes. The open university system is sure to draw from these efforts and equally utilize the part-time services of the staff of the existing universities both in the design and production of the course materials.

Finally, many critics of the system have consistently argued that open universities would worsen the already aggravated problem of graduate unemployment (Oduaran, 1985: 51). The counter-argument is that most of the clients of the system are already employed and merely seek to improve on their performance of their duties. Moreover, many of the courses offered by the system are job-oriented.

When the foregoing facts are considered, one could only imagine that the system should have potentialities for developing countries. This should be more so if certain managerial principles are adhered to, and this has been the concern of many scholars.

Managerial Principles

Managerial principles are usually many, but central to the focus of this paper are those bothering on planning, accountability and evaluation.

In specifying management requirements for effective university outreach, Yassin (1983:59-62) hinted that present and future goals must be set just as external linkages in terms of task-oriented structures are built into the planning. Stating out clearly the present and future goals is probably the first step towards identifying priorities in the pattern of growth of the system. Then follows the establishment of task-oriented structures for a proper implementation of the programmes.

Success in implementing the programmes of the system depends largely on the recognition and application of the principles of accountability and evaluation.

The dearth of efficiency currently plaguing most public services in the developing countries arise, in part, from the non-implementation of the concept of accountability.

The concept of accountability, in simple terms, requires that people placed in positions of responsibility account to those who so placed them for the execution of their functions. The principle of accountability, therefore, is a guide against abuse of office and dereliction of duty. If for now protagonists of the open university system proffer sound counter arguments against those of the antagonists of the system, it must be clear in our minds that the failure of the administrators and other staff of the system to account for their functions would be the first step to the failure of the entire system. If, again, the technicians and engineers employed in the system, like the chief executives, fail to perform, no easy antidote might be found to inefficiently maintained generating sets or deficiently planned and administered contact sessions, viewing centres and courier services. The principle of accountability, then, must

be one of the basic things to be built into the job specification of the highest to the least work in the system.

That done, the evaluation principle would merely need to be applied to ensure the articulation of the system's work and accountability itself. Evaluation in this case would have to be both formative or process and summative or product-based. From the stage of course material design through distribution of same down to certification, the principle of evaluation would have to be constantly emphasized. This will be the prime guide against waste, break-down of flow of information and inefficient offerings of the system's services. Effective planning, accountability and evaluation appear to be the most important managerial principles that would ensure the attainment of the aims behind the establishment of the open university system in the developing world.

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1. The first part of the document is a letter from the author to the editor of the journal. The letter discusses the author's interest in the topic and the reasons for writing the paper.

2. The second part of the document is the abstract of the paper. It provides a brief summary of the main findings and conclusions of the study.

3. The third part of the document is the introduction. It sets the context for the study and outlines the objectives and scope of the research.

4. The fourth part of the document is the literature review. It discusses the existing research on the topic and identifies the gaps that the current study aims to address.

5. The fifth part of the document is the methodology. It describes the research design, data collection methods, and the statistical analysis used in the study.

6. The sixth part of the document is the results and discussion. It presents the findings of the study and discusses their implications for the field.

7. The seventh part of the document is the conclusion. It summarizes the main findings and provides recommendations for future research.

8. The eighth part of the document is the references. It lists the sources of information used in the study.

9. The ninth part of the document is the appendix. It contains supplementary information that supports the main text of the paper.

10. The tenth part of the document is the index. It provides a list of keywords and page numbers to help readers find specific information in the paper.

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TEACHING METHODS IN ADULT EDUCATION*

INTRODUCTION

There is a growing awareness among educators that teaching and learning are separate processes: teaching does not necessarily guarantee learning. This insight has led to a massive development in the study and understanding of learning, and this in turn has influenced teaching methods. Adult educators are now encouraged to secure learning by encouraging active individual and group participation in the process. This makes for better learning and therefore assists the pursuit of personal, social, economic and political goals.

New methods place more complex responsibilities upon teachers than were implicit in traditional approaches to the task. Adult educators' attitudes to and relationships with their learners, as well as their style and their methods are, if anything, more significant than the actual content of the teaching.

The very act of living involves learning, but not all adult learning is adult education. For the present purpose AE includes organized and sequential programmes. Some of these may be designed for individual study, but most commonly there is a teacher (under whatever name) who works directly with individuals or groups, usually face-to-face but sometimes with materials delivered from a distance.

* This document was originally written by Konard T. Elsdon as the introduction to a bibliography on this same theme (Educational documentation and information (Paris, Unesco, No. 233, 1984). This abridged version has been prepared by the International Bureau of Education.

AE is used for "adult education" throughout this article.

We should perhaps identify briefly the characteristics of adult as learners:

- Adults are mostly volunteers for learning.
- They may be motivated by unconscious or latent drives.
- Adults come to learning with an awareness of status and of roles.
- They very frequently lack confidence in their own ability to learn.
- Adult learning groups represent a rich mixture of existing knowledge and experience.
- Adults often resist the painful process of personal, intellectual and manipulative changes which are involved in learning.
- Adults are likely to overcome these difficulties more effectively in the supportive framework of a co-operative learning group at their own pace, possibly in smaller steps, and without external pressures such as examinations.
- Adults are generally less quick at the more primitive forms of learning at which the young tend to excel; adults are more efficient at concept-forming, exploring and discovery learning modes.
- Adults may be more affected by the physical environment for learning.

Given these characteristics of adult learners, what are the skills which are required in the teacher?

- An understanding of individual strengths and obstacles to learning.
- An ability to identify the motives of learners.
- An ability to identify learners' prior experience, and to use it effectively as the foundation for new learning.
- An ability to form effective learning groups.

- Sensitivity to individual differences, and to exploit these in support of individual and group learning process.
- Curricular skills and inventiveness.
- Practical and methodological flexibility and adventurousness.
- A fundamental humility and respect for the adult learning group who can all contribute in their differing ways as moral equals. yet;
- An unshakeable commitment to his personal judgement and responsibility for high standards; and
- A willingness to be self-critical.

The present text will paint on a necessarily small canvas a picture of "the state of the art"

ORIGINS AND PRESSURES FOR CHANGE

AE methods were originally drawn from those four educational fields for which its practitioners came — schools for children, formal and informal apprenticeship, and higher education. From the last it borrowed not only the formal lecture but also the tutorial.

The first three traditions and, to some extent, the fourth, share the concept of education as a bi-polar relationship between teacher and individual learner. However many learners listen to a lesson or lecture, the relationship is between an authority figure who commands, gives, and demonstrates, and an inferior who obeys, receives and reproduces. This concept still persists in much AE; it is supported by established linguistic, social and cultural norms in many countries. The tutorial tradition, on the other hand, was important in recognizing the learner as at least potentially a moral equal who was intended not to reproduce but to find his own way. From this tradition developed the idea of study in groups.

Traditional methods have tended to persist for various reasons including adult preference for methods familiar from childhood experience.

Traditional approaches are often responsible for inefficiency or indeed complete failure to learn. Some of the

clearest examples of this are to be found where failure in adult literacy and numeracy result from the repetition of those procedures which caused original failure in childhood.

Learning could be more successful if more appropriate methods were used, and these exist. So does an important and extensive range of insights into the nature, the processes and the implications of learning and teaching among adults, which has developed over the last generation. Better methods and new insights benefit the learning process and make AE a more effective experience for both the individual learner and the community.

In this context it should be stressed that all the relevant literature shows that "for educational purposes men and women are best regarded as having equal potential".

More effective AE is important because it alone can help all of us to respond to and master the growing pressures of a rapidly changing world; not just the "information explosion" itself, but social mobility and personal role change, unemployment, under-development, illiteracy, demographic change, war and peace, oppression and liberation - all these post-learning problems require AE intervention for understanding and participation in attempts to resolve them.

THE LITERATURE OF AE

The last twenty years have seen the publication of a large mass of material which reflects new knowledge and experience at all levels, from complex research and professional texts to simple but by no means superficial accounts of educational processes which link practical help with the development of their readers' understanding and insight. The original text (see item No.8 in the bibliography) surveys and discusses this literature in the context of modern methods of teaching and learning practice in AE, and the present document seeks to summarize much of this discussion.

SOME SPECIAL TARGET GROUPS

Vocational orientation, the unemployed and young adults have been the subject of a variety of pilot experiments and major innovations. The key features of these may be summarized as:

- treating the learners with dignity, valuing them as

persons and learners in their own right, and adopting a strictly adult approach;

- involving them in "negotiated" responsible activity and cooperation with others;
- fostering personal development, assuming responsibility and developing autonomy, while providing strong and caring emotional support;
- fostering self-assessment, self-criticism and the ability to analyse both their own and the social situation, in order to develop responsible citizenship;
- teacher training and preparation for the execution of these difficult and sensitive tasks.

Especially where there is a need to create effective structures and organizations, as in some developing countries, AE for administrator can be of key importance.

Learners whose special needs may derive from physical or mental handicaps are also receiving growing attention.

The education of migrants and permanent immigrants has become a huge and almost universal problem. There is a need to place primary and above all initial stress upon oral proficiency, to adopt a systematic approach based on modern linguistic principles, and to choose material which is drawn from, and interprets, the learners's own real experience.

Experience in second-language teaching commonly illustrates the need for linguistic soundness and direct relevance to the practical requirements of learners. It also has to develop an understanding of the customs of the host community. This can be of particular importance for women. Less widely understood than the language problem itself, but no less important, are difficulties arising from differing cultural and social assumptions which create communication barriers between native speaker and "guest". Misunderstandings and conflict frequently ensue. Hence, members of the "host" community, especially those whose occupations (e.g. social workers, officials, teachers, shopkeepers) make them "gatekeepers" of society, also require appropriate AE.

SOME GENERAL ISSUES

Training - the art of helping people who possess subject expertise but lack adult educational skills - to become

sensitive and imaginative teachers is central to improved methodology in field practice. The greatest need here is for trainers who are living models of good practice. Simple texts which use practical case study approaches to help field workers discover principles and methods for themselves are the most useful study materials at this level.

System approaches and distance teaching. The evolution of systematic approaches to the planning of curricula and the methods and resources appropriate to them has been a notable feature of recent developments. Distance education at its best must necessarily adopt a systems approach and its use has grown enormously throughout the world in recent years. As a method it has important strengths:

- It frees the learner from institutional calendars and timetables, thus avoiding the need for attendance which may be inconvenient or impossible.
- It does away with problems of travel and its costs, and distance is no obstacle.
- It can free learners from intellectual and emotional dependence on teachers.
- It frees learners from the fear of criticism or competition by their fellows.
- While it requires a substantial initial investment, it is very cost-effective in the long run.

However, distance education also has drawbacks. In addition to the practical problem of sustaining student motivation:

- It cannot, on its own, provide for interpersonal communication; reinforcement or the stimulus of cooperation with a group and a teacher.
- Distance learning materials can and often do restrict student creativity and independence, and they are open to abuse by producers who, consciously or otherwise, emphasize particular views, theories or attitudes.
- It does not provide learners with access to the wider choice of teaching and resources available within an institution.

There are, of course, ways of reinforcing the strengths and minimizing the weaknesses of the system. They include thorough, efficient and ethical preparation of materials and conduct of the process, face-to-face tutoring and group support, personal tutoring, study circles and local groups.

The circulation of information and experience among practitioners. It may be asserted with some confidence that an important proportion of new developments, arise from the practitioners themselves, rather than being handed down to them by their professional superiors or by academic institutions. Any healthy system of AE will therefore employ means of gathering and disseminating good experience. Regular and intimate contact which involves organizers, administrators and academics with practical field work facilitates cross-fertilization, as well as providing them with knowledge which is fundamental to the efficient performance of their own functions.

In some situations the only means of circulating information is broadcasting, but where practicable print, however cheap and simple, provides the most effective means of transmission.

More locally, this task can be carried out with particular effect by means of *regular* meetings and conferences of teachers and volunteers. This approach has the important additional value of providing mutual support for workers who are often isolated, and of enabling their professional superiors to share in their problems and successes.

METHODS CONSIDERED INDIVIDUALLY

Identifying needs and aims. Only when needs and aims are identified can objectives be specified for what is to be learned. It is the learning needs and the learners, together with the characteristics of their situations, which condition all the educational activity that follows, including the choice of content and methods. The eventual assessment of learning success and the evaluation of the whole educational process depend on a comparison of initial objectives with actual outcomes, and this comparison reveals whether needs and aims have been met - and perhaps new ones discovered.

It is necessary to be clear about what we mean by "need". Who is to decide what are "felt needs" or "prescriptive needs"? By what means? Do adult educators too often identify them in subject or mechanistic rather than human terms? In effect, we have here met one of the major ethical problems of AE, because the identification of needs and aims inevitably raises questions about the nature of the authority inherent in knowledge and skill, and not just that of the teacher or planner as such but of accumulated experience and the requirements of society at large. It is useful to distinguish between:

- *Need*: an absolute requirement which may or may not be consciously felt;
- *Want*: implies an understanding of the need and the means by which it may be met;
- *Demand*: introduces an element of active volition to fulfil the want.

To illustrate from practice, a landless labourer may *want* basic education to gain access to information and check on suspect traders. His want may be turned into active *demand* by means of evidence that people like him can acquire the necessary skills, that the effort is practicable and that facilities for learning exist. But those responsible for tuition may discern other *needs* of which the labourer is not as yet aware and which they will try to meet through the subject matter and the methods they employ. Such needs may include awareness of the learner's own social, economic and political situation and possible alternatives to them, or health and family education, or improved agricultural methods, or the expansion of his potential for communicating with people and systems.

The principle of incorporating needs not initially felt, but discerned by a teacher, applies to larger groups and communities as well. Deeper and educationally more far-reaching needs than the learners are aware of usually exist, have to be discerned and met - but in the context of fulfilling the one that had been felt initially by the learners. Essentially, the educator has to use his authority (in the sense of expertise deployed with sensitivity and flair) *not* to override or impose, but in order to guide learners to and beyond a demand which - if it had been met in isolation - would have reinforced their dependency. And by this use of

authority the teacher has moved his learners towards a greater degree of autonomy.

Clearly a most careful distinction must be made between authority in the sense in which the term has been used, i.e. as serving the learners and their needs, and authoritarianism.

If teachers confuse their own needs and intentions with those of the learners, they may well superimpose their own. Then what educators consider as "latent needs" may well become a hidden agenda in the sinister sense of the term because authority is abused and dependency reinforced — even if the direction or purpose of that dependency have been changed.

The topic of needs and aims is fundamental, but appears in recent years to have suffered from a good deal of confusion and exaggerated attitudes.

Identifying objectives. Much education has been profoundly influenced by Bloom's division of educational objectives into "cognitive", "affective" and "physcho-motor" domains. Still more influential was the implicit assumption that all objectives could be defined in behavioural terms. Yet there was always resistance to such heavily behaviourist approaches, especially perhaps from adult educators aware of the need for a high degree of flexibility and respect for the learners' own needs and views, as opposed to external imposition. More recent work shows that virtually all learning consists in varying proportions of all three of Bloom's domains.

A richer and more productive approach to the definition of objectives, at least in AE, is to analyse the skills, knowledge, understanding and attitudes which it is intended to develop by education. These may then be defined as objectives to be aimed at and achieved, to whatever extent may be practicable with the particular individuals and in the particular situation. This means an acceptance of the limitations of the planning process, but also an encouragement to pursue the most worthwhile kinds of learning — which can never be defined in purely mechanistic terms.

Such an approach is particularly important in those many AE contexts where the educational process is intended

to lead to an ability to perform tasks or fulfil personal roles more adequately and satisfyingly. Here the identification of broad, practicable objectives needs to be preceded by an analysis of the task or role concerned. Of what does it consist? What activities, skills, knowledge and understanding, what personal attitudes does it involve?

Identifying content. Once needs and aims have been expressed as learning objectives for a group or an individual learner, it becomes necessary to select the content which has to be mastered to meet these objectives. It may be useful here to discuss some of the problems which will be met in the process.

The first of these is that teachers are usually subject specialists. They therefore tend to define content in terms of the structure of their subject. Adults on the other hand more often than not come to learning because they want to solve a problem, pursue an activity or an interest, come to terms with some role change in their own lives, or face up to a personal crisis. They may be under the impression that the only way to learn is to stick to the "grammar" of a subject and work through it formally. Where such learners are matched with an unimaginative teacher, the result can be a conspiracy which turns the formal subject - rather than the learners' real needs - into the objective of a course of learning. Examples of this are adult numeracy teaching which concentrates on the working of abstract sums rather than the solving of practical problems about money or dimensions and quantities, or, again, classes on economic theory for people who really want to know why they are unemployed, or landless, and what can be done about it.

Except where AE is a formal course of learning intended to lead to some qualification (and not always then), the definition of content should be based upon the motives which have brought the learners along, rather than upon classical subject boundaries and grammars. Very often the objectives can only be met effectively if the content actually crosses these boundaries; people who want to learn how to look after their own houses may need skills drawn from woodwork, metalwork, electricity, plastering and decorating, aesthetics, finance and accounting, as well as basic numeracy. This does not mean that disorder and superficiality may reign unchecked. We owe it to learners that what is taught is sound and coherent.

Content, moreover, does not only depend on time available for a course. It also depends on the time learners can give to it between classes, on their previous experience, their personal capacity and their energy. Some observers have suggested, for instance, that certain literacy classes in very poor areas, which meet five times a week at the end of a desperately hard day's work, would make more rapid progress if they were only held twice or three times a week, and left more time for relaxation, sleep, and individual study and exercises! This illustrates two points: too often in AE too much material is expected to be covered in a given time; and too often we underestimate the potential of learners for independent study that leads to mastery of the content.

Adults respond better to tuition which, unlike primary tuition in reading and writing, is not graded but draws its materials directly from the learners' personal interest. Car service instruction books, dairy development literature or knitting patterns may produce far more rapid progress in those who *want* to master them than reading primers, because they respond to learners' needs rather than to an abstraction. They also enable learners to proceed at their own pace.

The general lesson to be learned from field experience is that content needs to be defined with flexibility and imagination rather than according to established subject rules.

Planning courses. One group of planning criteria is concerned with the learners. How many are there? Is there a viable group? Is it too large? (Heavy drop-out is often *caused* by making classes too large to guard against attrition, and learners leave from disappointment due to lack of care and attention.) At what times are the learners available? Can they reach the place where the meetings will be held? What is the age range of learners, and does this impose any physical requirements, such as special lighting or absence of extraneous noise? Are there any social or cultural factors to be borne in mind, such as separation of the sexes or days of the week which cannot be used? What experience (earlier or recent) have the members had of structured learning? How much experience, if any, have they had of the subject area to be studied? (With adults this is certain to vary widely.) How confident are they in the

group, and how ready to contribute to discussion? Will care over planning the seating pattern encourage some and hold the over-confident in check?

Other criteria relate to content as well as learners. Is it a course for beginners in that particular area of learning? If so, the planning is likely to be especially difficult because it must quickly create a body of direct personal "hands-on" experience on which further learning can be built. If the course is for experienced learners, what kinds of exercises can be devised which will really use their potential? How can it build up both their skills and their confidence to the point where they achieve mastery and independence in their own right? Given the content, how much time will it require "in class", and how much study time between meetings? What practical facilities will be needed, from furniture to books, or teaching aids, tools, machinery, laboratory equipment? When will each of these be needed?

Physical resources may be scarce, but human ones may well be scarcer. What subject expertise is needed for the given content? If it is not available on the spot, can it be imported? Is the learning group experienced and confident, so that we can risk giving them an inexperienced teacher and hope they will turn him into a competent one? Is the teacher so inexperienced that our plan must include some inservice training for him in the first instance?

One could go on heaping question upon question. Producing a viable plan means using all the answers to build a learning experience which is coherent, progressive and meets the needs of a very varied collection of people. But it must also be practicable. The adult educator is a real and imperfect person living in a real and imperfect world, and will strike his own compromises to achieve the best practicable result. What he cannot afford to forget is that plans need constant review and adjustment in the light of experience. Perhaps just one general rule of planning might be the need for a beginning which is within the capacity of the learners but stretches and excites them and establishes an active and caring learning group. Even in correspondence study this careful planning of the first few assignments is crucial to satisfactory progress.

Choosing methods. As in planning, "there are no panaceas, only a wide spectrum of methodology". One should

select flexibly according to the characteristics of each situation: objectives, content, plan, group, tutor, context and resources, as well as the point in time at which the selection is made. Briefly, the essence of the problem here is to overcome one's own inertia and act not from habit, but to make a choice which suits the requirements posed by the learners, the objectives, the content and logic of the subject, and, where necessary, the constraints of the context, such as distance, timing or physical conditions.

Selection, production and use of aids and materials.

Here as everywhere the cardinal point of reference is the learner in his context. It is necessary, in the first instance, to warn against uncritical use of standardized textbooks and primers. Experience from almost everywhere emphasizes the benefits of involving target populations in the choice and production of materials which are appropriate to particular cultural and ecological backgrounds. In more sophisticated contexts private study and reading of books need skilled encouragement as a necessary part of the educational process. Everywhere the progress of each learner in the group needs to be encouraged and recorded.

Resources for the many kinds of practical work in AE present more time-consuming tasks for teachers, especially in the light of the more recent realization that simple local and homemade aids and materials are often educationally more effective — quite apart from the fact that they are cheap, or free, and others may not be available anyway. Mechanical equipment is not always appropriate, and without instruction in its use and provision of spare parts it is useless.

The choice of language for literacy work is often a source of doubt and even conflict in multi-lingual societies. The national language may be seen as a vehicle of political integration, yet there is a good deal of evidence that literacy is most easily acquired in the learner's maternal language or dialect, with subsequent progress in a second language all the more rapid.

The importance of process as a crucial element in learning must be stressed, and reinforces the need to choose methods flexibly and with sensitivity to the needs of particular learners, learning needs and situations. Learners also often require help with study methods at least to begin

with, and especially with central skills like the efficient use of books and the written expression of what they have learned.

INDIVIDUALLY BASED LEARNING

A great deal of independent learning takes place, whether from choice or by force of circumstances. More specifically, AE needs to and increasingly does use teaching methods which encourage autonomy in individuals and groups. There is also growing evidence that institutions and organizations working on such lines provide access to their workshops, libraries and staff, for independent learners and groups.

The fact remains that very large numbers of learners are either unable or unwilling to join with others or reach institutions. Developed library systems and usually ready to assist readers with subject bibliographies or study guides.

Programmed learning. This form of educational technology is based primarily on three principles which are particularly suitable for adult learners: confidence-building through achievement of success; learning by small progressive steps; and self-pacing. It also has certain limitations: the programme cannot cope with individual creative thinking; it tends to isolate the individual (and thus deprive him of both support and mutual criticism); it excludes the teacher who has knowledge of the learner's characteristics and needs; and adults quickly become bored with the easy and often insipid "rewards" which programmed learning offers for correct answers.

After much initial enthusiasm, the use of programmed learning has tended to diminish.

Yet the theory on which programmed learning rests offers much that is of value to *all* teachers, including those in AE. Its most positive contributions are the systematic analysis of content and sequence, the division into practicable steps, and self-pacing. Programmed learning can be highly successful for minor items of relatively mechanical learning, though it becomes less so as soon as the aim is to think independently. Like all mechanical forms of teaching, well-designed programmes can save time and supplement human contact between teachers and learners, but they cannot be a substitute for it.

Computer-assisted learning is merely a more elaborate delivery system for programmed learning. It is more sophisticated than print and offers considerable refinements, but it suffers from the same general drawbacks.

Distance education. The distance media generally, and television in particular, are expensive, and require large audiences to become cost effective. These drawback are inevitable. Nevertheless, it is impossible to overestimate the immense importance and utility of the whole range of distance education practices; in some contexts they present unique opportunities. Especially correspondence and more recently broadcast education, and even the use of the telephone, are well established. However, the broadcast media (especially television) have turned out to be less effective teaching modes than many had assumed. The replacement of teachers by planners, advisers, distance tutors and authors of course material does not in itself make for independence or autonomy in the learner, and the need for face-to-face support and other forms of two-way communication has remained of key importance.

What has characterized recent developments in distance education is therefore the growth of combined systems using books and correspondence education as the foundation of complex, carefully planned and integrated curricular packages which include face-to-face and other forms of personal support, and local group work. The latter counteracts the danger of isolation which tends to make learners more dependent on the provided sources, and therefore less autonomous.

Especially in development education (where radio often offers access to most potential learners), broadcasting needs to be supported by text material and above all by local organization and group leadership. The local leaders in their turn require training before the campaign starts, and some form of area or regional organization has to assist local groups and their leaders throughout, pass information back to the centre and evaluate outcomes.

Broadcasting can bring text material, processes and problems to life, hold learners' interest through dramatic presentation, provide a common experience for the learning group and thus create mutual familiarity and confidence. It can draw on the best resources available nationally and present all sides of an argument. But it is also limited by

time constraints, must cope with excessive or mistaken expectations, may still face the technical difficulties of reception, or be frustrated by loquacious and dominant local group leaders.

To ensure successful use of broadcast material it is therefore necessary for group leaders to recruit groups of the right size and composition, and work out how and where broadcasts are to be used. Follow-up work between broadcasts and group meetings also requires thought and preparation, and the equipment has to be kept in optimum working order.

Where practicable, telephone tutoring can provide essential personal contact between tutor and learner where distance prevents them meeting.

Correspondence education has been provided through some national newspapers and an enormous amount of informal teaching on health, home economics, dress, human relations and many other subjects is poured out week by week in the women's journals of industrial countries, but the effects have not been studied.

The whole development of programmed and other systematized forms of instruction has taught teachers much about organizing, pacing and enriching their offerings in distance teaching and elsewhere. But nothing, it seems, can replace the benefits of personal interplay between learners and competent teachers.

LEARNING PROCESSES INVOLVING HUMAN INTERACTION

Lecturing and demonstrating. The purely formal lecture is still a form of directed individual learning, though conducted in public. However, a lecture has to be remarkably original to contribute *information* that would not be absorbed more conveniently and economically from a printed text. Some other purposes, however, are well served by formal lectures. They can act as a catalyst, an inspiration, or as a confirmation of previously acquired knowledge and deepen understanding. But *new* facts, knowledge or understanding are better conveyed by other means.

However, shortage of books or large numbers of students may necessitate the use of lectures for information giving. It then becomes essential to minimize their drawbacks. They

can be broken into short sections, interspersed with questions and discussion. Lecturers can link hard information with the application of that information. They should vary the rhythm and tone of their delivery and try to be as close to their audience as possible. *Advance* distribution of summaries can assist learners in the necessary preparation and eases the introduction of discussion.

Demonstrations in practical subjects or skills are an exact equivalent to the lecture and permit the same range from extreme formality to participation. Obvious requirements are clarity and logical sequence in the presentation. The physical arrangements should ensure that everyone cannot just hear but see, feel and smell whatever there is to be perceived. All this requires thorough preparation and, quite often, a practice run. To achieve its full impact it needs to be tied into the whole learning sequence by securing the maximum possible participation.

Seminars. This term tends to be used rather indiscriminately and is therefore in danger of losing its utility. Its proper meaning applies to a process which is most appropriate to advanced learners or fellow professionals working together on a problem. This model is therefore a natural development of the lecture-discussion, adapted to the needs of educational equals who are engaged in some form of advanced work. It is, of course, not uncommon among AE professionals of various kinds, but also lends itself to the more or less unlimited pursuit of any subject or skill by adult learners who have passed beyond the stage where regular teaching would be appropriate or useful.

The individual tutorial is a necessary adjunct to group teaching methods in the training of adult educators and common in adult literacy work. It also reinforces learning in ordinary adult class activity, and many teachers regularly arrive early and stay late in order to undertake it.

Guided discussion. Much recent AE has been influenced by the growing realization that the social interaction within the learning group is a vehicle of personal and social education, and satisfies some fundamental human needs. Moreover, as they get older, learners are more likely to learn effectively if they do so in contexts which are group-oriented, interactive, informal and mutually supportive.

Guided discussion is a process by which an area of skill or knowledge and attitudes is jointly explored by a group under the leadership or guidance of a teacher or tutor who is expert in the subject.

In short, guided discussion is a co-operative process by which groups survey agreed territory with expert help, are helped to maximize learning from their own potential, and progress beyond existing to new learning and their own conclusions. Group size is a significant factor in such a "collective for learning". There must be enough members to ensure a variety of experience and attitudes, but not so many that intimacy cannot develop. Perhaps twelve to fifteen is the ideal number, though skilled tutors and experienced groups can cope with less or more.

What cannot be omitted if such a group is to succeed is preparation, not only by the tutor but by members as well. Discussion becomes worthless if people have not done the necessary reading or practical work on which it is to be based. Groups also need to devise ways of expressing the learning and experience they have acquired.

The need for variety in method and changes of rhythm also applies, and some learning problems require changes of approach. It is at such times that the skilled group or tutor may resort to adjuncts of guided discussion, such as:

- sub-division into "buzz groups" which work out their own solutions and report back;
- "brain-storming" to collect the maximum possible number of ideas about a problem or learning task in hand;
- the "agenda method" which sets a specific task together with a possible framework for action, perhaps with some resources or guidelines, to the whole or a sub-group, and then leaves them to work it out on their own and report back;
- the "syndicate" which involves division into small groups who are expected to bring their reports or other finished output back to the whole group for discussion and integration.

Clearly the last two methods will be more appropriate to experienced and confident groups.

The study circle is an organizational variant, or rather a series of variants, of the guided discussion method. Methodologically it may be precisely the same, with a tutor either chosen by the group or appointed to it. Alternatively, there are study circles which operate without a teacher acting as an expert resource. These appoint from among their number a discussion leader who receives training in the guided discussion method but relies on externally supplied resource material for the necessary expertise. Lay leaders and external material *may* prove to be less responsive to group needs than a tutor ought to be.

Social Group work and the "T-group". Social group work represents the minimum of directive intervention. Two broad modes may be distinguished: the task-related group and what is often called the T-group. The latter is the province of trained and qualified specialists and has no place in normal AE activities.

Task-related social group work may play an important part in training adult educators at all levels and some other learning groups. Its effectiveness is due to its very great power in developing self-knowledge, inter-personal skills, a capacity for autonomy in thought and action and hence changes in personal attitudes. However, some essential conditions apply: the group worker must have received adequate training in the special skills involved; the exercise cannot be rushed; and participation in this searching and sometimes painful procedure should be the consequence of an informed and free personal decision.

The T-group, when used in human relations training, straddles the boundary between education and therapy, but has greatly influenced and deepened our understanding of group relationships and some forms of social interaction in a variety of educational contexts.

Groups with no leader. At the extreme end of non-directiveness we find the group without a leader. The immediate question to be posed is whether such a phenomenon actually exists in educational contexts. Truly leaderless groups, where they exist at all, are brief phenomena on their way to becoming more akin to study circles or even seminars: they are led by either one or a succession of their members and, usually, guided by learning materials introduced from outside.

SOME PRACTICES SUPPORTING THE EDUCATIONAL PROCESS

Observation and visits: Teachers in training do, or could, learn much from the practice of observing other teachers, or being observed by them. Similarly, in ordinary adult teaching, visits of observation are required in subjects where essential practice takes place outside the physical teaching area, such as agriculture, building, health and nutrition, the visual and performing arts and the skilled crafts.

What all these have in common is that really useful observation is a systematic skill that has to be taught and learned. Visits need to be preceded by careful preparation. This may begin with reflection about what it is one hopes to learn from the visit and lead to the production of an observation instrument for the visit. The use of this, in turn, facilitates the equally necessary task of subsequent pooling of what has been observed and learned, and its interpretation.

Practice. The importance of practice as part of the learning process is obvious in any field where learning is intended to lead to performance, such as language, the arts and crafts, literacy and numeracy. In many less concrete fields of learning, practical applications can also be beneficial. Thus teaching literature, or art history, has been shown to become more effective if supplemented by creative writing, or painting, on the part of learners.

But to succeed there must be sensitive guidance based on a plan matching the learner's growing capacity. These developmental aspects are particularly clear in an area such as numeracy. The frequent failure of adult numeracy teaching is usually due to the fact that it merely repeats - perhaps more patiently - those mechanical exercises which caused the original blockage, instead of using the adult's special learning skills in the cognitive area to build fundamental understanding by means of concrete practical experience with objects, their dimensions and weights.

At more advanced levels of work many kinds of individual and group projects are used. Experimental plots are common in agricultural development, as is the recording of feeding programmes and output in animal husbandry. Groups

are known to engage in research rather than just being taught sociology or history, to undertake projects rather than just being told about the arts, as well as to make their own investigations in geology.

The *discovery method* systematizes practice by drawing on the particular strengths of the adult learner and minimizes the effects of his relative weaknesses. The learners are guided through a carefully planned progression of problem-solving exercises. In the process they use the whole range of learning skills, such as observation, practice in real or simulated contexts, personal reflection, discussion, as well as the analysis and recording of their findings. The teacher's role in discovery learning is thus to identify learning needs and objectives, to develop a progression of discovery experiences to meet them, and to interpret and exploit *subsequently* what has been learned.

Discovery learning appears to be slower than being "given" the knowledge, and is certainly time-consuming, but it tends to be more effective and lasting in the long run: it develops fundamental understanding from experience rather than depending on more ephemeral learning skills such as memorizing and imitating.

Simulations represent the reality being studied, and require from the learner the same action as in the real world. In contrast to reality, however, they provide a "safe" context in which errors have no harmful or embarrassing consequences, and immediate constructive evaluation enables maximum learning to be derived from the experience. Apt and skilful simulation exercises, sensitively managed, are highly effective in promoting understanding of principles and situations as well as skills in action. They usually elicit intense involvement and enthusiasm among learners.

Their effect depends, however, on a number of important conditions. In the first instance they must start from and be developed around the relevant learning context, rather than from abstractions. They need to be realistic but should leave out irrelevant content and problems. They should be presented as positive learning opportunities, not as a series of obstacles to be negotiated. They invariably require a lot of time for subsequent discussion and evaluation if their outcomes are to be fully exploited. To produce effective simulation material is also time-consuming, because its

content must be up-to-date and fully appropriate to the particular learners and their objectives — characteristics which can rarely apply to commercial or other second-hand materials.

The simplest form of simulation is the *case history* - a distilled account of a real situation which is presented for discussion and elucidation. Far more complex is the *case study* which offers a scenario of events, situations and perhaps personalities involved, in order that the problems arising from them can be analysed and solved.

Role-play, again based upon a prepared scenario, is a particularly powerful tool for developing an understanding of inter-personal relationships and attitudes, and of the effect of values on behaviour. It needs to be handled with great care not just because it can easily descend to caricature but above all because it may arouse emotions which cannot be adequately controlled within the educational context.

Finally, *gaming* (originating in military training and widely adopted in business and social work education) combines many of the features of case study and role-play, and has the unpredictability of life and experience built into it. It needs adequate time to integrate it into the total learning experience.

Micro-teaching covers two approaches which differ radically from each other. One, first developed in the 1960s in the United States and based on behaviourist principles, identifies particular skills, and inculcates them by means of short practice lessons to groups of children. The lessons are videotaped, subjected to critique, and then repeated until the trainee has succeeded in reproducing the particular skills and techniques intended.

The other approach to micro-teaching which is widely used in AE, particularly in the United Kingdom, aims at developing the individual potential and skill of teachers. A trainee teaches an item of his choice to the peer group, which observes, evaluates and draws conclusions from the experience which are shared. This is a complex and highly participative set of procedures which relies on mutual support and constructive criticism. These will be found in a well-established group-teaching context but not in less participative ones.

A slightly more remote derivative of simulation and behaviouristic micro-teaching is *competency-based method training*. It rests on the assumption that all learning and skills can be divided up into separate conveniently sized and behaviourally based "competencies". These may be separately studied and practised, and finally tested one by one. However, the fact that many different skills have been separately demonstrated, once each in artificial conditions, does not necessarily mean that a person can teach.

ADVISORY AND SUPPORTIVE ACTIVITIES

Perhaps the most important need in securing sound practice is to distinguish between the activities and skills involved in the giving of specific advice or even guidance to individuals, and the far more sensitive task of counselling proper, which requires specially trained personnel. It is impossible here to describe all the different contexts and situations in which this range of activities occurs. All these responses to learners' needs are essentially part of the general support which AE institutions and workers have to be ready to provide at all times.

ASSESSMENT AND EVALUATION

Assessment is the process by which we seek to judge the standard of achievement or performance which individual learners have reached as a result of an educational process. It may be *norm-referenced*, which means that individual performance is compared with that of other learners. This mode is rarely appropriate in AE, and may impair it by introducing an element of competition which is generally inimical to adult learning.

Criterion-referencing - the attempt to judge the degree of mastery which the learner has achieved of a defined skill or knowledge — is more appropriate.

Actual formal testing and examinations are known to run counter to the learning characteristics of adults. Continuous as opposed to final assessment is proving more constructive educationally, less distracting and more reliable. The growing tendency to involve adult learners in self-assessment is proving a helpful and productive discipline. However, adults may tend to be unduly self-critical, and their judgements need to be moderated by their teachers.

Evaluation, like assessment, is concerned with standards, but it applies them to the whole course of learning and the degree to which it has developed the potential inherent in this, and it relates all these to overall needs and aims. Values are implicit in this way of judging standards, but they are also explicit in the kind of questions evaluation properly asks:

- What ought to have happened to meet the requirements of the total situation?
- What did happen? Why did it happen in that way?
- How worthwhile was it and for whom?
- What are the possible future outcomes?
- How does all this affect the original situation?
- How should it affect future action?

In effect, evaluation in the full sense of the word looks at the whole curricular process from beginning to end, considers the interaction of its human participants with the elements of the process, the intended and unintended outcomes of this interaction, the light that resulting information throws upon the past, and the guidance it gives for future activity and its methods.

Summative evaluation tries to meet these requirements by investigating end results with the aid of formal instruments. It has proved less reliable and productive than *formative evaluation*, which operates continuously by observation and critical analysis from within the educational process. It may do so simply through the agency of the teacher, or more advantageously, as a normal and regular activity shared by teacher and learners considering together the events and progress of their common task, drawing conclusions and applying them immediately to their shared practice. In this way evaluation can contribute directly to the improvement of educational activity rather than preaching at its funeral. Formative evaluation is greatly assisted if it can call on the participation of skilled outside observers of the learning process.

An essential point in a proper understanding of the evaluation process is to remember its limitations. In successful AE the most important effects often tend to surface slowly, long after even the summative evaluators have flown

home, and sometimes in unexpected or unintended ways. They are to be found in personal enrichment, greater confidence and competence, the assumption of responsibilities, marginal improvements in living conditions or community relationships - and just occasionally in the triumphant writings of new literates. Another point, implicit in the first, is that evaluation cannot be divorced from values and standards, and that these matter supremely:

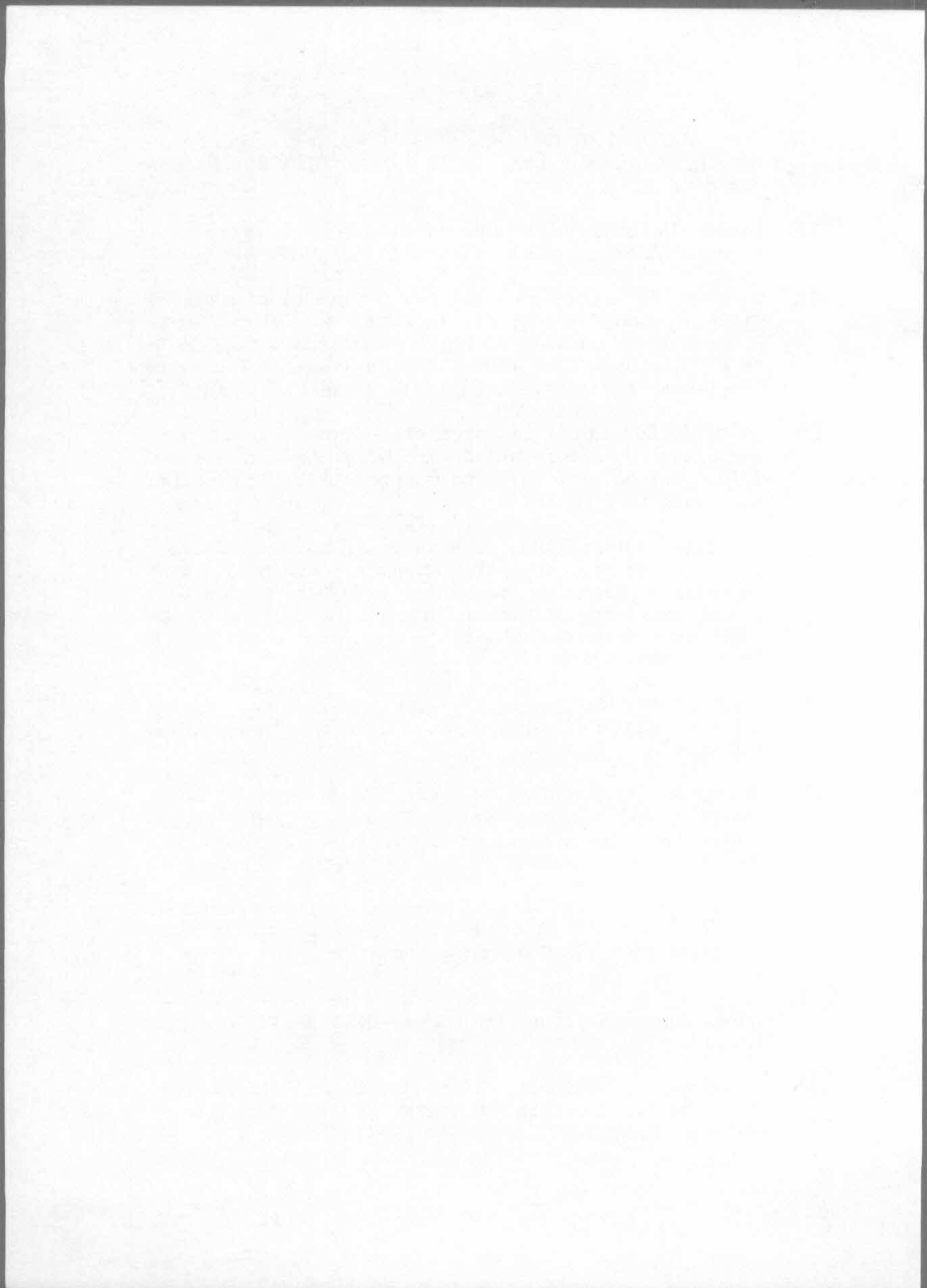
The task of the educator is often described as simply the promotion of learning and thus of behavioural change. This is manifestly inadequate, for it implies that learning and change are unquestionably good in themselves. But change may be for the better or the worse, and what is learned may be enabling or disabling, liberating or constraining, true or false, important or trivial; it is at least as easy to be bigoted, callous or clumsy as it is to be open-minded, sensitive or skilful. So the educator has not only to induce learning in his students but also to guide and direct that learning towards desirable and away from undesirable ends; there is an evaluative element built into his work from the very beginning.

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RESEARCH NOTE

INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICE IN TALK-BACK

Television — Oklahoma Experience*

by

Herbert R. Hengst

"The tragedy of the world is that those who are imaginative have but slight experience, and those who are experienced have feeble imaginations. Fools act on imagination without experience. Pedants act on knowledge without imagination. The task of the university is to weld together imagination and experience."

Aflred North Whitehead.

It is the purpose of my remarks to attempt what Whitehead so insightfully required of the university — that is, to join together imagination and experience. The body assembled here is challenged by the possibility of establishing a new dimension in the higher education opportunities available to the people of the Gulf region — a "distance learning" entity to be known, perhaps, as the Open University for the Gulf States. It takes great ability and dedication to be able to imagine an organization and a service as full of potential good as a university, and I am proud both to be a part of such an activity and to offer my warm congratulations to those insightful individuals whose imaginations brought forth this possibility.

* A paper presented at conference on the Open University, Manama, Bahrain, November, 1986.

The experience I will share with you comes from a modest piece of research that I am currently conducting. It deals with the responses faculty members have to one type of "distance learning", a talk-back televised instruction system. But before I report my findings to you, it is appropriate to comment briefly on two major aspects of our concern — the nature of "distance learning" and the attitudes of faculty toward novel instructional techniques. "Distance learning," as you well know, refers to formal instructional programs offered customarily by traditionally organized educational agencies (colleges and universities for our purposes) that are presented at locations removed from the principal site of the originating institution. Although it is customary today to associate electronic means of presentation from one site to remote locations as the essence of "distance learning" programs, we should keep in mind that it has taken and still is found in other forms. I am confident that most of us are aware of the extension movement that developed in England during the last century and found fertile soil in my country at the beginning of this century. It, coupled with the Chautauqua movement, correspondence study, community lecture series, and the cooperative (agriculture) extension movement, has demonstrated over the decades the usefulness of those activities we call "distance learning" today. Indeed, one of the most useful contributions of such activities to the history of our times is found in what we call today "improved access" — making available further educational opportunities to people who are removed physically from university campuses.

The attitude of faculty members toward such developments has customarily been less than sanguine. It is not unusual for individuals to respond with anxiety when changes in their familiar and accustomed patterns of behavior are instituted. The introduction of technological change in the contemporary world is but one example of change that has been well documented. As it is envisioned today, "distance learning" programs utilizing the marvels of satellite transmission of instruction, most certainly have a great potential for modifying the educational technology that has become familiar and customary to contemporary faculty members (Keller, pp, 19-22). And this is not only a concern for today's faculty members. The University of Wisconsin, one of the pioneers in this dimension of higher education in the United States, experienced similar responses from faculty members in its early days (Curti and Carstensen, Vol 1, p.

728). It can reasonably be inferred that both early and contemporary reports suggest that faculty members found it less than satisfying to be expected to do the additional work involved in changing their customary patterns. I am struck by the importance that must be attached to faculty attitudes toward and responses to proposed innovations effecting the technology with which they have felt successful and secure. So it seems appropriate to report to you one modest contemporary experience in the form of an analysis of faculty practices and responses to a "distance learning" technology in our own home area.

The Study

The "distance learning" system of which I speak is a closed-circuit television system that links more than 30 campuses in my State (Oklahoma) with one-way video and two-way audio connections. In addition, numerous business and industrial locations are equipped with receiving classrooms. There currently are 11 originating classroom sites located on each of 12 campuses of institutions in the State in this 20 year-old system. We call this "Talk-back Television" system because it provides for two-way audio connections between the remote and originating locations enabling students to be in continuous contact with the instructor. Many courses for college credit are offered each semester through this vehicle. For example, in the central metropolitan area of the State, there are 38 courses offered this fall from four originating sites (classrooms) that are accessible at an additional eight receiving sites (classrooms) as well as all other receiving sites across the State. And this is but one part of the State-wide talk-back television system.

My purpose today, however, does not include a detailed description of this system nor an evaluation of its level of achievement. Rather, I wish to report something of the responses of professors who taught one or more courses via that system in the last two academic years. My basic concern was to discover something about how they conducted their instruction as well as something about their attitudes toward that instructional medium. Such information, limited though it might be by time and place, can serve to focus the attention of planners on potential problem areas related to this *key* element in any instructional system, the *faculty*.

So, I propose in these remarks to describe the nature of this study, to report its findings, and to suggest some consequent implications for "distance learning" projects such as the proposed Open University for The Arab Gulf States.

Design of the Study

The eleven institutions with originating studio/classrooms were indentified and the coordinator at each institution was requested to furnish the study group with the names of faculty members who had taught on the TBTV system in the two previous academic years — 1984-85 and 1985-86. In that way, 160 different individual professors were identified, and they became the population for the study. In the meantime, a questionnaire was being developed and field tested. The final form of the instrument included a section of 8 items of general information about the professor, a section also of 8 items that described the TBTV course he / she taught, and a third section containing three open-ended items that requested information about the professor's response to the TBTV teaching experience (see copy of the questionnaire in the appendix). The instrument accompanied by an introductory letter and a postage-paid return envelope was mailed to each of the 160 member population in late September, 1986. Returns were requested by October 15. They numbered 90 by that date, and that become the data base for the analysis. A report of the questionnaires mailed and the response by institution appears in Table 1. It will be noted that only nine of the potential of 12 institutions participated in the study.

Table 1
Population and Response By Institution

	OU	OSU	CSU	ECU	WSE	LU	OCCE	RSC	TU
Questionnaires Mailed	26	36	33	5	19	6	92	4	15
Responses Received	11	10	26	4	8	2	15	4	9

The Findings

The findings can be summarized briefly in the following

statements:

Regarding the respondent group, 49% were members of traditional Arts and Sciences disciplines (humanities, natural science, social sciences), while the remaining half were divided among Business and Vocational subjects, Engineering, and Education subjects; 60% held the doctorate (Ph.D. or Ed.D); and they represent a veteran group of faculty, with an average mean of 15.2 years of experience at the present institution. Regarding their TBTV course, 93% were teaching it on an in-load basis, and 52% were doing so by assignment while 43% volunteered for the task; 34% of the reported courses were lower division, 40% upper division, and 26% at the graduate level; interestingly enough, 55% of the reported courses were offered in the morning hours, 18% in the afternoon and 27% in the evening; equally interesting, 59% of the reported courses were taught in the fall semester, 35% in the spring, and 6% in the summer.

One of the characteristics that most interested me dealt with the instructional techniques or strategies that the responding professors reported. Since "distance learning" separates instructor and student, we were interested to learn if individual professors initiated activities to bring them and remote students into any face-to-face contacts. And, indeed, we found that 34% (29 of 86 who responded to this item) reported doing just that. According to them, the TBTV experience was enhanced for both student and instructor by such activities. A further insight into this aspect of the TBTV practice is afforded by examining the instructional strategies utilized by the respondents. Fourteen different strategies were identified and defined for the respondent ranging from the traditional lecture to simulation/gaming, drill and practice, and many in-between (see appendix for definitions). Response categories were from "Most Often" to "Never" with an option also for an "Unknown" response. Of the 14 strategy response options, the "Never" category was the dominant response in 9. The lecture category was "Often" utilized by two-thirds of the respondents, as might be expected. It seems clear from the information reported in Table 2 that significant percentages of the respondents (i.e., more than 50%) identified only four of the strategies as appropriate for TBTV instruction — lecture, direct questioning, discussion, and demonstration.

Table 2

Talk-back Television Instructional Practices Reported
by 90 Faculty in 9 Universities/Colleges in Oklahoma

Instructional Strategy	Unknown (%)	Never (%)	Ocasionally (%)	Sometimes (%)	Often (%)	Most Often (%)
Lecture	1 (1.2)	5 (5.8)	6 (7.0)	16 (18.6)	57 (66.3)	1 (1.3)
Direct Questioning	4 (4.8)	1 (1.2)	19 (22.9)	29 (34.9)	29 (34.9)	5 (6.0)
Demonstration	8 (10.1)	17 (21.5)	25 (31.6)	16 (20.3)	16 (20.3)	5 (6.3)
Discussion	4 (4.8)	8 (9.6)	17 (20.5)	21 (25.3)	28 (33.7)	9 (10.8)
Discussion Groups	2 (2.7)	55 (74.3)	10 (13.5)	4 (5.4)	3 (4.1)	-
Group Projects	5 (6.6)	53 (69.7)	10 (13.2)	5 (6.6)	2 (2.6)	1 (1.3)
Peer Teaching	4 (5.4)	52 (70.3)	11 (14.9)	2 (2.7)	5. (6.8)	-
Programmed Inst.	3 (4.0)	53 (70.7)	9 (12.0)	4 (5.3)	3 (4.0)	3 (4.0)
Modularized Inst.	4 (5.4)	47 (63.5)	6 (8.1)	1 (1.4)	5 (6.8)	11 (14.9)
Laboratory Methods	3 (4.1)	59 (80.8)	7 (9.6)	1 (1.4)	3 (4.1)	-
Role Playing	3 (4.1)	53 (71.6)	10 (13.5)	6 (8.1)	2 (2.7)	-
Simulation/Gaming	3 (4.0)	52 (69.3)	11 (14.7)	5 (6.7)	2 (2.7)	2 (2.7)
Drill and Practice	2 (2.7)	46 (62.2)	10 (13.5)	8 (10.8)	5 (6.8)	3 (4.1)
Other	7 (15.2)	18 (39.1)	4 (8.7)	3 (6.5)	8 (17.4)	6 (13.0)

As mentioned above, one of my major interests in this study was an examination of the face-to-face contacts instructors reported with students at remote sites. Evidence suggests that educational effectiveness is increased as a function of the *involvement* a learner experiences with the institution (Astin, Chap.6). Hence, planners of "distance learning" systems must be aware of potential impacts of factors that lessen potentials for contact between instructor and learner. We examined this relationship by comparing the responses of the faculty reporting such contacts with those reporting no contacts. Comparisons were drawn on reported strengths, weakness, and assessment of personal achievement made by respondents to open-ended items in the third section of the instrument. Normal content-analysis techniques were utilized to sort the "strengths" responses into five categories; those dealing with improved access to higher education, those that suggested an instructional improvement, those related to special attributes of the media, and general "other" and "no response" categories. A similar five part sort of responses to the "weaknesses" item produced the following emphases; those related to technical limitations or equipment failures, those that cause instructional problems or limitations, those related to difficulties of student management at remote sites, problems related to the administrative services required, and a "no response" category. Responses to the "personal assessment" item were classified as being either "positive" or generally favorable, "negative" or general unfavorable, or "average" an acceptable but generally unenthusiastic response. The comparison of the two groups is reported in percentages in Table 3 which follows:

Table 3

Comparison Faculty Reporting Contacts with Remote-site Students
With Faculty not Reporting Such Contacts on Elements of
Activity Strength, Weakness, and Personal
Assessment Reported in Percentages (n = 90)

Respondent Group (Faculty)	Strengths			Weaknesses					Personal Assessment					
	Access %	Pedagogical %	Media Attributes %	Others %	No Response %	Technical %	Pedagogical %	Student Control %	Administrative %	No Response %	Positive %	Average %	Negative %	No Response %
Those who reported contacts with re- mote-site students (n=29)	66.6	7.4	7.4	3.7	14.8	44.4	25.9	0	18.5	11.1	37.1	22.2	7.4	33.3
Those who reported no contact with remote-site stu- dents (n=61)	52.5	18	8.2	9.8	11.4	44.2	27.8	1.6	19.7	6.6	21.3	37.7	21.3	19.7

It seems appropriate to study these figures briefly. Faculty members reporting face-to-face contacts with students at remote-sites indicated that "access" was a greater strength than did the other respondents. They also reported "media attributes" as a strength in roughly the same proportion as did other faculty. Fully two-thirds (66%) of those reporting contacts listed "access" as a key strength while slightly over half (52.5%) of those reporting no contacts so indicated. Regarding identified and reported weaknesses, the response patterns of the two groups differed little. For example, 44.4% and 44.2% respectively indicated that "technical difficulties" represented a meaningful weakness, 25.9% and 27.8% respectively reported an impingement on pedagogical activities, and 18.5% and 19.7% reported administrative and operational problems as meaningful weaknesses.

The personal assessment (reported in response to the following item: "Your assessment of your achievement") responses permit the inference that faculty who initiated contacts with remote-site students enjoyed a more positive experience than did their colleagues who reported no such contact. For example, 37.1% reported a favorable assessment while 7.4% reported a negative experience. The figures for the non-contacting faculty members were 21.3% and 21.3% respectively. An additional comparison suggests a modestly different inference, however. If one were to collapse the "positive" and "average" assessment response categories for each faculty group, on the assumption that such reports indicated at least an acceptable level of assessment, one would observe little difference between them. In point of fact, 59.3% of faculty reporting contacts would be so identified as would 59.0% of those reporting no contacts. The differences, then, appear to be found as a matter of emphasis rather than direction, at least as far as self-reported assessments of achievement are concerned.

It appears reasonable to conclude that from these data, "contacting" a "non-contacting" faculty who have utilized the TBT system through 9 Oklahoma institutions of higher education differ modestly in reported strengths of the system (primarily opening access to unserved students), do not differ in the weaknesses of the system as they experienced it (reproting technical, pedagogical and administrative problems as impediments to successful utilization), and differed only in emphasis as they assessed their own experience. It is interesting to note that although some of the

faculty reported dissatisfaction with great vigor, a large majority (well over two-thirds) found the talk-back television instructional experience an activity worthy of continuation.

Implications

What are the meanings of these observations for the planners of the Open University for the Gulf States? Certainly, the design, development, and implementation of any change in academia is fraught with complexities. As one student of organizational change puts it, "...innovation is directly related to the motivation to innovate [change] inversely related to the strength of the obstacles to innovation, and directly related to the availability of resources to overcome such obstacles" (Mohr, pp.111-126). Research conducted by human relations specialists reports that "...innovations which require changes in human behavior are not likely to be accepted unless they are linked to the potential user's needs and problem-solving activities" (Lindquist, p. 341). Furthermore, although academic administrators and influence sources external to institutions are growing in influence over academic decisions, it is clear that professors, individually and as cooperate bodies, hold the ultimate power in matters of curriculum and instruction. I know this to be true in the United States, and I am confident that it can also be demonstrated in the universities of this region. The central implication to be drawn from this literature is that faculty members, if they are to support and participate in an innovation as exciting as the Open University proposal, must have a sense of "ownership" regarding the new development. That is to say, they must see the Open University as treating some of their problems, academic problems such as assistance with development of instructional materials and identifying eligible and strong students. If a sense of ownership can be developed among substantial portions of the faculties of the 17 universities in ABEGS, then the emergence of a successful Open University can become a reality. The same conditions must prevail for the potential users of the services of such an institution... They, too, must find in the Open University a treatment for needs that are real to them, a treatment that is successful in achieving high levels of excellence.

But what do the findings of the modest study in Oklahoma suggest for such a grand idea? It suggests that any "distance learning" proposal should include provision for face-to-face contact between instructor and learner if professors

are to sense a satisfaction of their commitment to successful instruction. It suggests that the technical staff and the electronic equipment must be in top condition at all times. Indeed, some of the most penetrating comments we received dealt with the frustrations caused by equipment limitations and failures. Such events can easily destroy the potentially most effective instructional activity. If television and other electronic apparatus are to be utilized (and "distance learning" can hardly be considered in any other way), then adequate levels of technical and administrative support systems become a *sine qua non*. It is simply better to operate traditional on-campus and extension programs, limited though they might be, than it is to offer the promise of something of greater potential and have it fail for faulty equipment and management services.

The challenge for the planners of educational innovation, whether it be extensive or modest in scale, is to wed imagination and experience, as Whitehead cautioned us decades ago. A contemporary American scholar has offered a suggested pattern to accomplish just such a merger. Lindquist's work suggests that needs must be clarified, that faculty members must feel an "ownership" of the innovation, that linkages among the different groups of decision-makers and change-implementers must be developed and maintained, and that resources adequate to the changes necessitated by the innovation must be readily available. The initial findings from my Oklahoma study confirm these suggestions. Imagination, the vision that calls us together today, must be fertilized by the wisdom of experience. And experience teaches us that the faculty must be involved in planning educational innovations.

The challenge is great, the work is exciting, and the potential benefits to society are beyond measure. I commend you for your vision, and I urge you to invest your experience with it.

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Centre for Studies in Higher Education
College of Education
The University of Oklahoma

**DISTANCE LEARNING INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICES:
A FACULTY SURVEY**

I. General Information:

1. Institution _____.
2. Your Field (discipline) _____.
3. Highest Degree held _____ Year Received _____.
4. Years at present institution _____.
5. Was your Talkback Television (TBTv) assignment(s) taught: a. inload ___? b. as overload ___?
6. Have you taught the course(s) in a regular on-campus mode as well as on TBTv? Yes _____ No _____.
7. How did you become involved with TBTv? Assigned _____ Volunteer _____ Other _____ (please describe).
8. Did you receive any special preparation before your first TBTv assignment? Yes _____ No _____. If yes, please describe.

II.A. Information descriptive of your TBTv course (NOTE: Please complete part II B also if you taught a second course on the TBTv System).

1. Course Name _____
2. Credit Hours _____ (less than 3) _____ (3 or more).
3. Course level _____ lower division _____ upper division _____ graduate.
4. Number of students enrolled (estimate if actual figures are not available).
a. _____ on site. b. _____ at receiving sites.

2. Credit Hours _____ (less than 3) _____ (3 or more).
3. Course level _____ lower division _____ upper division _____ graduate.
4. Number of students enrolled (estimate if actual figures are not available).
- a. _____ on site. b. _____ at receiving sites.
5. Semester course was offered ___ Fall ___ Spring ___ Summer.
6. Time course was offered (day and hour): _____.
7. Did part of the course involve face-to-face interaction with off-campus students (through either faculty visits to the remote sites or remote student visits to the sending site)?
Yes _____ No _____.
8. Did you require the students in any of your TBTV Courses to utilize any of the following? (Please check if relevant).

_____ Reference Materials _____ Research Papers
 _____ Library Materials _____ Field Experience _____ Other
 (Please describe).

9. Instructional strategies utilized: (Please circle appropriate frequency response). (Strategies are defined on last page of the instrument).

	Most Often	Some- Often	Occa- sionally	Un- Never	known
a. Lecture (formal or informal)	5	4	3	2	1 0
b. Directed Questioning	5	4	3	2	1 0
c. Demonstration	5	4	3	2	1 0
d. Discussion	5	4	3	2	1 0
e. Discussion Groups	5	4	3	2	1 0
f. Group Projects	5	4	3	2	1 0
g. Peer Teaching	5	4	3	2	1 0
h. Programmed Instruction	5	4	3	2	1 0
i. Modularized Instruction	5	4	3	2	1 0

Most Often	Some- Often times	Occa- sionally	Un- Never known
------------	----------------------	-------------------	--------------------

2	1	0
2	1	0
2	1	0
2	1	0
2	1	0

III. You _____ experience.

1

2

3. Your assessment _____ vement:

OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF STRATEGIES UTILIZED IN THE SURVEY

LECTURE. "One instructor speaks directly to a group of students" (Weston and Cranton. 1986. p. 167).

DIRECTED QUESTIONING. "The instructor directs a series of verbal questions to individual students or to the class as a whole asking for volunteer responses" (Weston and Cranton. 1986. p.261).

DEMONSTRATION. "An activity in which [the instructor] uses examples, experiments, and/or other actual performance in order to illustrate a principle or to show others how to do something" (AECT, 1979, p.160).

DISCUSSION. "Given an issue, question or topic of interest students discuss with each other [and the instructor] their own points of view or relevant arguments" (AECT. 1986, p. 261).

DISCUSSION GROUPS. "Specific questions, issues, or topics of interest, are chosen and the class is divided into several smaller groups, with usually about three to seven students per group" (Weston and Cranton. 1986. p. 261).

GROUP PROJECTS. "Students investigate a specific topic or issue or create a product either assigned by the instructor

or selected according to their interest" (Weston and Cranton, 1986, p.262).

PEER TEACHING. "Students who have mastered the objective adopt the role of instructor and teach the material to one, two, or three students who have not yet mastered it:" (Weston and Cranton, 1986, p. 262).

PROGRAMMED INSTRUCTION. "The content of an objective or set of objectives is broken into small, sequential steps: the student is presented with information, then answers a question based on that information" (Weston and Cranton. 1986, p. 262).

MODULARIZED INSTRUCTION. "The instruction centers around a booklet which may contain readings (or which may refer the student to outside readings) and provides 'activities' or exercises related to the readings" (Weston and Cranton, 1986. p.262).

LABORATORY METHODS. Students perform "in situations which are realistic, but the consequences of their performance are carefully controlled by the instructor" (Weston and Cranton, 1986, p. 264).

ROLE PLAYING. "Students 'act out' a particular situation [condition or circumstances], practicing the skills which are being mastered" (Weston and Cranton, 1986, p. 264).

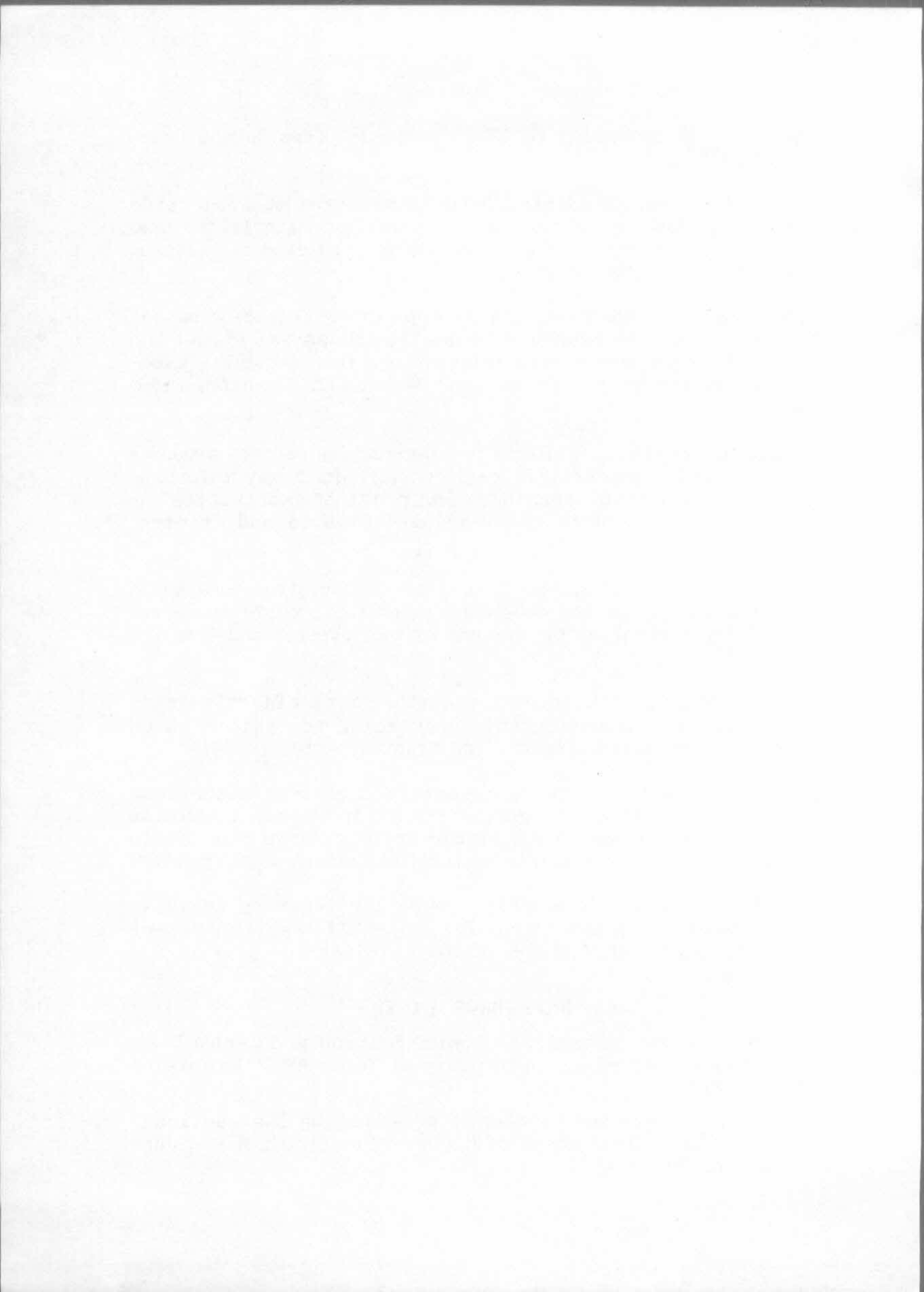
SIMULATION/GAMING. "The representation of real situations which allows students participation in the application of rules or principles to situations while remaining in a safe or practical environment" (Weston and Cranton 1986, p. 264).

DRILL & PRACTICE. "An orderly repetitive learning activity intended to help develop or fix a specific skill or aspect of knowledge" (AECT, 1979, p. 162).

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NEWS & VIEWS

by

Hamid Ali Hashmi

Director Information Services

There has been a lot of activity on the campus during the first six months of the calendar year 1986. The foundation-laying ceremony of the University Staff Colony by the Prime Minister of Pakistan, Mr. Mohammad Khan Junejo on January 30, 1986 and the third University Convocation presided over by its Chancellor, President General Mohammad Ziaul Haq on 16th March, 1986 mark the two most important events of the period under review. Work on a number of new academic programmes has made big headway, while two master level programmes, a matric level programme for women and a number of new courses at different levels have actually been launched. In addition to visits of the University by groups of scholars, educationists, professionals, trainee officers, students and dignitaries from all over Pakistan, a number of high level delegations from various parts of the world have also paid visits here.

The success of our experience in distance education has attracted the attention of policy-makers and educationists the world over, particularly from Afro-Asian countries which are faced with more or less similar socioeconomic conditions. Here is a brief account of the foreign dignitaries and delegations who visited the University during the period under review:-

1. 1.1.1986

Dr. Ashaq A. Farhan, the former Minister for Education & Auqaf, Kingdom of Jordan; currently President, University of Jordan and a member of the Board of Trustees, International Islamic University, Islamabad.

2. 1.1.1986 A five-member delegation of Arab scholars led by Sheikh Abdul Malik Y. Al-Hamar, Governor, Central Bank of United Arab Emirates.
3. 8.1.1986 A four-member delegation of educationists from the Peoples Republic of China led by Mr. Fang Jaoling, Deputy President, Beijing Institute of Education.
4. 14.1.1986 An eight-member delegation of Indian writers led by Kunwar Mahindar Sing Bedi.
5. 14.1.1986 Prof. P.L.Malhotra, Director General, National Education Council, Delhi, Bharat.
6. 27.1.1986 Sir John Burgh, Director General, British Council together with Lady Burgh. On the occasion of his visit, Sir John formally presented books to the value of approximately 25,000 pounds to mark the opening of the new Central Library & Research Centre and to assist the development of Libraries at the University's Regional Centres.
7. 11.2.1986 A two-member team of USAID Mission, International Centre for Research on Women, 501, Washington D.C., headed by Mrs. Margaret Lycette.
8. 19.2.1986 Mr. E.L. Wijemanne, Secretary, Ministry of Education, Sri Lanka and Mr. Esic J. de Silva, Chief Technical Adviser, UNDP/UNESCO project, Sri Lanka.
9. 25.2.1986 A four-member educational delegation from Sri Lanka under the leadership of His Excellency Mr. Ranil Wichramasingha, Minister for Education, Govt. of Sri Lanka.
10. 20.3.1986 A four-member USAID Mission from the United States headed by Dr. Stephen McZaughlin, Education Consultant.

11. 3.4.1986 Dr. Abdullah Mohsin Al-Turkey, Rector, Imam Mohammad Ben Abdul Aziz University, Reyadh, Saudi Arabia.
12. 21.4.1986 A five-member delegation of Chinese writers led by Mr. Yu Hu, Vice Chairman, Federation of Literary and Art Circles of Sinkiang Autonomous Region.

CONSULTANCY SERVICES

The Overseas Development Administration (ODA) of Great Britain continues to provide assistance to the University in a number of ways. While it provides overseas training facilities to the University officers and academics in a variety of subjects, it also sends short-term as well as long-term consultants to work with different departments of the University. Mr. Alec Fleming, Mr. Oliver Hunt and Mr. F.L. Cook, all on long term consultancies continued to help in Planning & Development the Department of English and the Institute of Educational Technology respectively during the first six months of the calendar year. Mr. Peter Scopes, ODA Educational Adviser was here from March 22 to 24, 1986. Mr. John Benjamin, ODA Desk Officer paid a finalisation familiarisation visit on May 3 and 4, 1986. Mr. T.P. Keilthy, Chief Examinations Officer, U.K. Open University, worked with the Examination Department of the University from June 23 to July 17, 1986 and reviewed the examination and assessment system and procedures.

TRAINING ABROAD

ODA also provided training to the following staff members of the University in U.K.

Mr. Selman-Masood Akhtar, Deputy Print Manager, did a five months' diploma course in printing & publishing technology. Dr. Mohammad Siddique Khan Shibli, Registrar, Miss Masooda Ch., Research Associate; Mr. Javed Mahmood Kasuri, Deputy Director, Institute of Educational Technology: (IET) Syed Akhtar Hussain, Assistant Registrar, Dr. Ahmed Noor Khan, Director, Research & Statistics Centre, Mrs. Nuzhat Haider, Lecturer in Home Economics proceeded on a six weeks' training attachment with the U.K. Open University. Mr. Mohammad Din, Lecturer, Dr. Arif Zia, Assistant Professor; Mr. Muhammad Amin, Senior Instructor and Raja Sabir Hussain,

Lecturer, got four months' training in distance education at the Institute of Education, University of London.

In addition, Mr. Mohammad Iqbal Jozi, Senior Producer had eight weeks' training in Educational Television in Japan under the sponsorship of Japan International Corporation. The Italian Govt. sponsored Mr. Shabbir Ahmed, Lecturer, at a five months Advanced Course in Italy on Water Resources Management. Mr. Mahmood Ali, Senior Television Engineer, proceeded to Japan for a 6 months' training course in Audio-visual Technology sponsored by the Japan International Cooperation Agency.

UNIVERSITY DELEGATES TO SEMINARS/CONFERENCES ABROAD

Dr. Professor M.S.K. Shibli, Registrar and Mr. Nazir Siddiqui, Chairman, Department of Urdu, attended a South Asian Regional Seminar on Urdu Manuscripts and Post-independence Urdu Literature in India from February 15 to 25, 1986. Dr. Mohammad Riaz, Chairman, Department of Iqbaliyat, attended a week long Allama Iqbal Conference in Tehran on the invitation of the Government of Iran. Mr. Mohammad Hanif Ch., Director, Institute of Arabic and Islamic Studies was invited by the World Federation of Arabic Islamic Schools for two weeks consultations in Reyadh in connection with the establishment of RICE (Regional Institute for Complementary Education) in Pakistan to be associated with Allama Iqbal Open University. Mrs. Razia Abbas, Chairperson, Department of Literacy, Adult and Continuing Education, attended the five days UNESCO sponsored conference in India on Educational Television for Children of the Developing World from March 17 to 21, 1986.

Dr. Ahmed Noor Khan, Director, Research and Statistical Centre attended a four days Research Network Meeting in Jakarta, Indonesia under the auspices of the International Development Research Centre during April, 1986. Professor Javed Iqbal Syed, Dean, Faculty of Social Sciences and Mr. Abid Hussain Khawaja, Senior Producer, attended a month long conference on Export Promotion in the United Kingdom at the invitation of Export Promotion Bureau International Trade Centre.

NEW PROGRAMMES

Two new Master-level programmes in Business Administration and Pakistan Studies are in preparation for October,

1986, while a number of M.A., M.Phil and Ph.D programmes are in the pipeline. A Bachelor of Education programme is already in the final stages of launching. A Matric programme for women is about to take off. It is being sponsored by the Netherlands Government and its pilot phase will be launched in Attock district in the October, 1986 semester. Gradually, the project will cover the whole of Pakistan, including Azad Kashmir and Northern Area. A number of new courses have been added to the existing programmes of general education, while new clusters are also being developed.

UNIVERSITY STAFF COLONY

On 30th January, 1986 the Prime Minister of Pakistan Mr. Mohammad Khan Junejo laid the foundation-stone of the University Staff Colony. He was accompanied by the Federal Minister for Education, Malik Nasim Ahmed Aheer and Minister of State for Education, Mr. Nasir Ali Baluch.

Addressing the academicians, officers of the University and other guests in the auditorium, the Prime Minister appreciated the multi-dimensional services of the University in the field of education. He observed that the University has done a fine job in taking educational opportunities to the door-steps of the people living in far flung areas, who were deprived of such opportunities under formal system. The Prime Minister remarked that we have to build up an Islamic democratic state on sound ideological basis and to ensure the welfare and progress of our people. It is an ideal which cannot be achieved unless we succeed in educating the 70 per cent of our population living in the countryside, particularly women, who constitute roughly 50 per cent of the total population.

Earlier, in his welcome address, the Vice-Chancellor Dr. G.A. Allana dwelt on the expanding role of the University in popularising education in the country. He also threw light on the special projects the University has undertaken and the research work being done here.

THIRD UNIVERSITY CONVOCATION

The Chancellor of the University, President General Mohammad Ziaul Haq presided over the third convocation of the University on March 16, 1986. In his convocation address the President revealed that the Pakistan Television will

have a second channel exclusively for education and added that the World Bank, the Asian Development Bank and the Islamic Development Bank had promised adequate financial assistance. The Chancellor expressed the hope that the project would be expedited so that the Allama Iqbal Open University would be able to use the channel for distance education by the time of the next convocation. He further disclosed that to accelerate the pace of literacy, the PBC too would have an exclusive station for educational programmes.

The President highly praised the performance of the University and congratulated the authorities, particularly the Vice-Chancellor, Dr. G.A. Allana on outstanding achievements. He remarked that the University enjoys a unique reputation in spreading knowledge in the country.

In the convocation, Master's degrees in Educational Planning and Management; Postgraduate diplomas in Educational Planning & Management and Teaching of English language; B.A. degrees and medals were awarded to the students.

The President asked the University to plan a comprehensive programme to teach Daftri Urdu to all the Government Officers in BPS-17 and above and that the Research Centre of the University should work out a plan in that regard.

The Chancellor observed that he has tremendous expectations from the Allama Iqbal Open University which, he indicated, could set up a "think tank" to work out a countrywide programme to universalise education and to enlarge its base in the country.

The President also assigned the University the task of thrashing out how the teaching of three languages, viz Urdu, English and Arabic should be planned.

Earlier, the Vice-Chancellor, Dr. G.A. Allana presented the report of the activities of the University during the preceding ten years. He said that enrolment had risen from 976 in 1976 to 105, 757, in 1985, while the number of graduates had increased from 484 to 30, 722. The Vice-Chancellor revealed that more than 310 study centres of the University were functioning all over the country under 13 Regional Directorates and 3 Sub-regional Offices. The University had published 54,000 books in 1976 while the number rose to 2,54,000 in 1985.

The Institute of Education had provided inservice Primary Teachers Orientation Course training to some 70,000 primary teachers while about 5000 inservice untrained primary teachers were enrolled for the Primary Teachers course every year.

The Vice-Chancellor disclosed that the University's Elementary Arabic Course has benefited some half a million students of both sexes and added that new Arabic courses at graduate and postgraduate level were also being offered. More than 4,000 Federal Government Officers have attended the special course in Daffri Urdu, he reported. Dr. Allana said that the University was altogether making it a point to offer more and more job-oriented and skill-based courses at all levels.

The President in his concluding remarks, thanked the Netherlands Government, the British Government, the Saudi-Arabian Government and the International Agencies for their valuable assistance in the educational programmes of the University.

STUDENTS ADVISORY SERVICE

The Students Advisory Service was set up to give the students of the University scattered all over the country a sense of belonging to a national institution; to promote interaction among them and to bring their creative potential in to play through various co-curricular activities.

The 14 Regional and 3 Sub-regional Offices of the University set up in different parts of the country with more than 300 study centres under them, arrange get-togethers of students, functions on national days, sports meets, cultural programmes, debates, quiz competitions, essaywriting contests and stage plays, etc., involving students and tutors in their respective regions. The experience has been highly rewarding as the students have displayed great enthusiasm for these activities.

RADIO/TELEVISION PRODUCTIONS

During these six months, the Institute of Educational Technology produced 108 new radio programmes and 13 new T.V. programmes in addition to a number of location programmes.

BOOKS REVIEW

OPEN LEARNING FOR TECHNICIANS, EDITED BY JOHN TWINING,
CHELTENAHM (UK): STANLEY THORNES (PUBLISHERS) LTD., 1982,
PRICE 7.95 Pounds.

The Manpower Services Commission UK published, in May 1981, a Consultative Document on 'An Open Tech Programme' to help meet adult training and retraining needs at technician and related levels.

The Open Tech Programme was

- a. for vocational rather than general education;
- b. at technician and related level;
- c. for adults rather than school leavers;
- d. to meet the needs of individuals who wish to take their own initiatives.....
- e. to not only lead to recognised vocational or educational qualifications, but was also to be used for updating; and
- f. to be coordinated by small unit within the Manpower Services Commission (MSC).

The book under review is, in fact, an edited version of the report on Technician Education through Distance Teaching Learning, compiled by Guildford Educational Services (GES), the Manpower Services Commission (MSC), and the Technical Education Council (TEC). It is issued by the publisher as one of the series "Handbooks for Further Education", which is an open-ended series on topics of interest for all those who are concerned with teaching, management and administration in post-secondary education.

In spite of many chapters stated as rewritten, a number of additions made, a few chapters amended to clarify the "Student Unit" as a basis for costing, additional references included, and a number of points in the original report being updated to November 1981, readers are expected to possess or, at least, be familiar with *Vocational education* and training in England and Wales.

The whole handbook is spread over 26 chapters and 15 Appendices, arranged in VI Parts, namely;

I *Introduction*: Into the Unknown; Open Learning.



and study methods) are acknowledged; and the manner in which these can be developed and encouraged are also discussed in detail within the British Educational System.

5. The book is a research study and is spread over 9 chapters, each containing a profuse list of Reference, (Bibliography!) arranged alphabetically. Besides an index, it includes VI very useful Appendices. It is one of the series entitled: "New Patterns of Learning", edited by P.J. Hills, planned and published by the Publisher, and so far 9 titles related to higher and continuing education have been taken out by Messers Croom Helm, London & Canberra.

by
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Librarian & Incharge
Department of Library
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Programme/Level/Course	Drop-out rate (%)			Pass percentage		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
General Education (B.A.)	40	36	39	81	81	81
English Language Teaching (ELT)	37	31	35	92	73	86
Arabic Teachers' Orientation Course (ATOC)	18	19	18	82	81	82

BASIC FUNCTIONAL EDUCATION PROGRAMME (BFEP)

Year	Cycle	Group	Learners	
			Male	Female
1985-86	IV	38	360	360
1985-86	V	31	340	280

MEDIA SUPPORT

1. Radio programmes presented upto April 1986 semester: 4728
2. T.V. programmes presented upto April 1986 semester: 822
3. Radio programmes presented in April 1986 semester: 396
4. T.V. programmes presented in April 1986 semester: 62

REGIONAL SERVICES

1. Regional Offices: 11
2. Sub-regional Offices: 4
3. Study Centres: 356
4. Model Study Centres: 64
5. Tutors: 1346

Detail of books published under Special Publication Committee of AIU:

1. Iqbal for Children and Youth
(The book carries different stories in prose from Urdu and Persian works of Allama Iqbal), Price Rs. 17/50.
2. Harf-e-Iqbal
(Collection of Iqbal's speeches and statements in Urdu translation), Price Rs. 40/-.
3. Taqareer Bayad-e-Iqbal
(A selection of Iqbal Day speeches delivered on campus of A.I.O.U. from time to time), Price Rs. 18/-.

- 4: Tashil-e-Khutabat-e-Iqbal
(A simplified and elucidated gist of Iqbal "The reconstruction of religious thoughts in Islam"), Price Rs.22/-.
5. Iqbal and Baluchistan by Dr. Inam-ul-Haq Kousar
(A research study and account of the literature produced on Iqbal in Baluchistan Province), Price Rs.65/-.
6. Urdu Mein Almi Adab Ke Tarajam by Nazeer Siddiqi
(A survey of the Urdu translations of the Western classic and discussions on some classic in different genres of literature), Price Rs.18/-.
7. Role of Distance Education in Rural Development by S. A. Latif
(The comparison of formal and non-formal education systems has been drawn. The role of radio in rural development has been highlighted with special reference to Allama Iqbal Open University), Price Rs. 18/-.
8. Study of Bible and Quran by Bashir M. Akhtar
(The comparative and analytical study of the main books of the Bible alongwith Holy Quran in the light of the most relevant references.
9. Subjective Analytical index of Iqbaliat, (under print).
10. Language and Culture, (under print).

If you want to purchase any book, please write to the Bookshop of Allama Iqbal Open University or contact any Regional Office of the University. The students libraries and educational institutions can purchase the books on reduced rates.

ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY

SPECIAL PUBLICATIONS

■ Iqbal Bachchon Aur Nojawanon Kay Liye	(Urdu)	Rs.17.50
■ Harf-e-Iqbal	(Urdu)	Rs.40.00
■ Role of Distance Teaching System in Rural Development with special reference to AIOU	(English)	Rs.30.00
■ Taqaareer Bayad-e-Iqbal	(Urdu)	Rs.18.00
■ Tasheel-e-Khutbaat-e-Iqbal	(Urdu)	Rs.31.00
■ Mutaaliya-e-Bible Wa Qur'an	(Urdu)	Rs.18.00
■ Urdu Main Aalmi Adab Kay Tarajim	(Urdu)	Rs.18.00
■ Allama Iqbal Aur Baluchistan	(Urdu)	Rs.65.00
■ Iqbaliat Ka Mozuaati Tajzai Aasharia	(Urdu)	Rs.90.00
■ Zaban Aur Saqafat	(Urdu) under print	

These books can be had from:

- Print Production Unit, Allama Iqbal Open University, Islamabad, Pakistan. Tel: 856676 & 854315
- All Regional Offices of the University.
- Special concession to Educational Institutions, Libraries, Students and Booksellers.