

THE UNIVERSITY OF HULL

ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMMES FOR WOMEN
IN RURAL THAILAND : WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO
THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, THE MINISTRY OF THE INTERIOR
AND THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF WOMEN

being a Thesis submitted for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

in the University of Hull

by

PREEYANUCH LAPCHAREUN, M.A. (Hull University)

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ABBREVIATIONS

40 Baht	=	£1 (1978)
CD	=	Community Development
CDD	=	Community Development Department
CCDC	=	the Central Community Development Committee
CEIT	=	the Centre of Educational Innovation and Technology
DOLE	=	the Department of Local Education
DEO	=	District Education Officer
Fl & AD	=	Functional literacy linked with agricultural development
Fl & flp	=	Functional literacy and family life planning
GGAT	=	Girl Guide Association of Thailand
LEC	=	Lifelong Education Centre
MOE	=	Ministry of Education
MOI	=	Ministry of the Interior
MTTS	=	Mobile Trade Training School
NCAE	=	the National Committee on Adult Education
NCDB	=	the National Community Development Board
NEC	=	the National Education Council
NEP	=	Non-formal Education Project
NRC	=	Newspaper Reading Centre
NSCT	=	the National Student Centre of Thailand
NCWT	=	the National Council of Women of Thailand
PEO	=	Provincial Education Officer
PFT	=	the Peasant Federation of Thailand (Sahaphan Chao Rai Cho Na Hang Phrathed Thai)
PPAT	=	the Planned Parenthood Association of Thailand
PWD	=	Public Welfare Department

- R/C - Radio Correspondence
- RAEC - Regional Adult Education Centre
- REDPHE - Regional Education Department Project including Higher Education
- TURTEP - Thailand Unesco Rural Teacher Education Project

PREFACE

The specific objectives of this research may be said to be:

1. to analyze the social backgrounds of rural women, their culture, beliefs, occupations, interests and needs which can be effective in planning adult education programmes, and to investigate whether or not there is sex discrimination in education in Thai society.

This research will be useful reference material for those who are studying the role of Thai women and women's education in Thailand, since there is little published information on these topics and much of it is scattered.

2. to examine the history of adult education, the ideas behind its establishment, the objectives, philosophy, administration, finance and methodologies.

This will illustrate how the Thai government has attempted to develop adult education for the public.

3. to list the adult education programmes which are needed by rural women and to examine the existing programmes of the three organisations, the MOE, the MOI and the NCWT; and to examine whether or not the subjects, programmes, time and admission process act for or against women's enrolment.

The information obtained is useful to confirm the level of interest of the three organisations in providing adult education programmes to satisfy women's needs. It will also show how far the development of adult education programmes promotes the participation of rural women on equal terms with men in the light of their common

interests, abilities and aptitudes.

4. to survey, observe and participate in the actual work of adult education projects conducted by the three organisations in the North and the Northeast. The focal points of discussion are objectives, subjects, learning activities, students' background, places of adult classes, advantages and disadvantages.

5. to examine the costs of investment per head and per unit of adult education programmes and whether they require more or less investment than formal education.

6. to evaluate the task of adult education in its qualitative and quantitative aspects.

Methods: the research which provided the basis of this thesis was begun in 1977. In addition to the study of books and documentary material in England, I was able to return to Thailand to conduct field research from December 1977 to April 1978 by joining with the operative teams of the three organisations in making questionnaires, interviews, observations and evaluation of the programmes conducted. I also searched for the published documents in many libraries in Thailand, including those of the UNESCO, the Community Development Department, the Ministry of Education, the Faculty of Education of Chulalongkorn University, the Thammasart University, the Mahidol University, the Silpakorn University, the Chiangmai University and in bookshops. The three organisations also provided statistics, description of the programmes and analysis of basic data about the women's interests, needs, demands and choice of subjects. This was very helpful in reducing the time spent in collecting information and the period in

Thailand. Such data information could have been confidential because it was collected by the research teams of the three organisations.

ABSTRACT

This research investigates adult education programmes for women in rural Thailand, provided by the Ministries of Education, and the Interior, and the National Council of Women.

Chapter I presents findings which show that there is a higher percentage of women than men illiterates; that more men than women enrol in elementary and secondary education, but that almost equal numbers enrol in universities. The evidence shows that women's traditional occupations determine their choice of subjects of study.

Chapter II discusses the development of adult education, describing its aims and philosophy, the 1940 Act of Compulsory Literacy, the structure of the Adult Education Division and the establishment of adult education centres.

Chapter III analyzes the special educational needs of rural women against the socio-economic backgrounds. Village women are interested in improving the quality of their own and their families' lives; and their ability to earn. Their special learning needs are for dressmaking, livestock product, arable farming, small business activities, domestic skills and general adult education.

Chapters IV, V and VI discuss the information obtained from field surveys of educational programmes for rural women in the North and the Northeast. It is shown that the Adult Education Division provides general adult education, functional literacy and family life planning programmes, newspaper reading centres, leadership training and mobile vocational training. The Ministry of the Interior stresses training for leadership, for small trades and

co-operatives in home economics, weaving, child care and arable farming. The National Council of Women concentrates on vocational skill and leadership training.

Chapter VII discusses the place of the mass media in adult education, including educational radio programmes. It shows that rural women are very interested in music, drama, current news and family improvement.

Chapter VIII summarizes the research and suggests that educational programmes for Thai rural women could be improved by drawing on the experience of other countries with similar problems.

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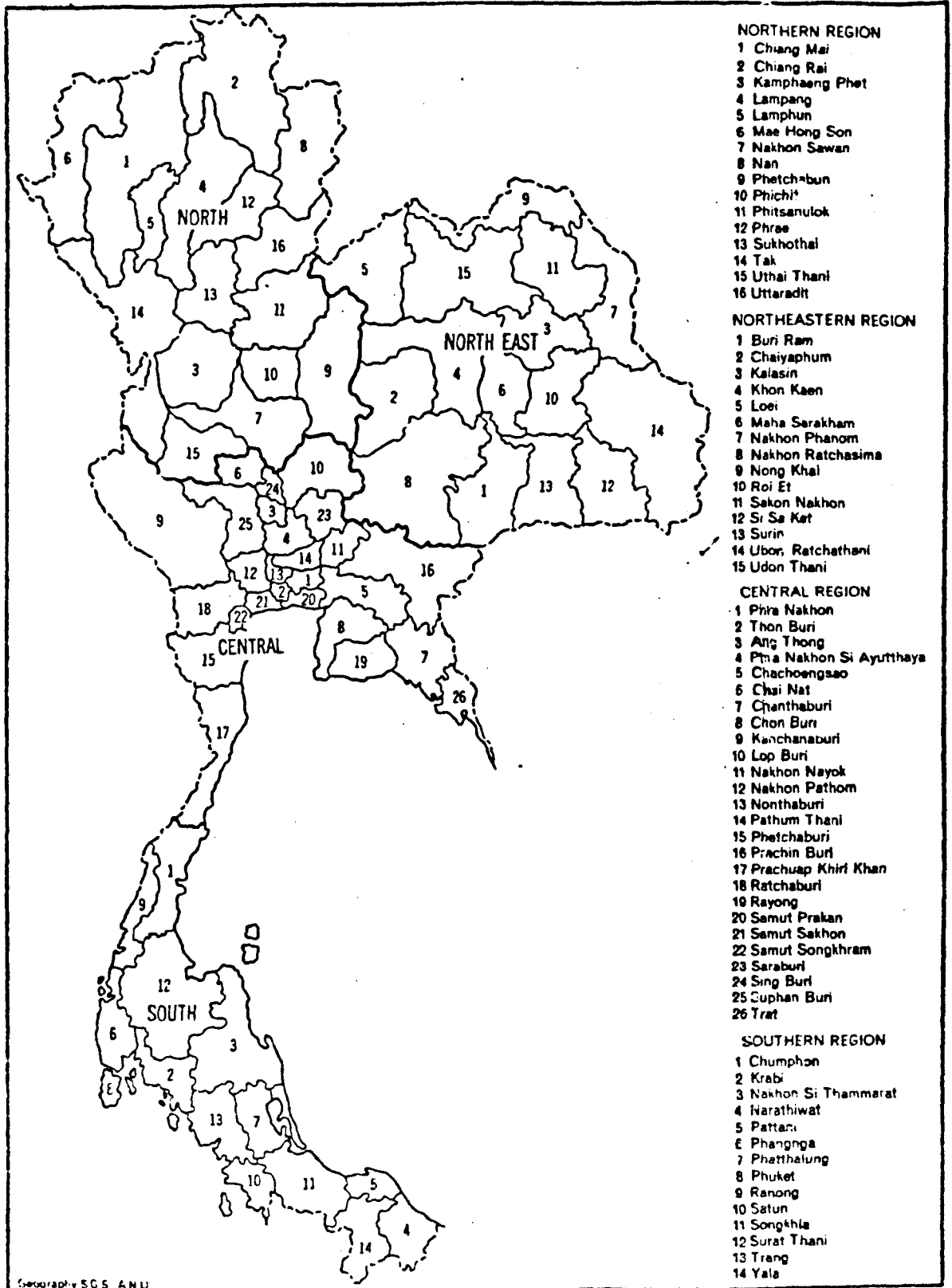
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Thailand: provinces

CHAPTER I

THE EDUCATION OF WOMEN BEFORE
THE DEMOCRATIC REVOLUTION

Before beginning to discuss the need and demand for adult education of the women in rural Thailand, it is necessary to know the general development of education from the 13th century until the present time. Women's educational backgrounds and problems may provide adequate information to the adult education planners for making accurate decisions based on information from a variety of fields of knowledge.

Early education was a privilege reserved for the monarchy and aristocracy evidence of which has been traced back to the Sukhotai period (1256-1377) and the Ayudhaya period (1377-1767)⁽¹⁾, when education was centred in the Buddhist temples. Monks took upon themselves the task of teaching reading and writing. However, they discriminated against females, since for all practical purposes the teachings were designed to train only male members of the society, and only the sons of the aristocracy could expect to receive training in the arts⁽²⁾. They were prepared for their place as the ruling class or were trained to be soldiers.

Later, it became a religious duty to teach reading and writing to males of all ages in both rural and urban areas. 'They learned the history and philosophy of Buddhism and to recite Pali invocations glorifying the triple gem, namely the Lord Buddha, his teachings and the Bhikkhus (monks). The act of entering the monkhood served the purpose of acquiring an education⁽³⁾.'

In the Sukhotai period, there was evidence that females were not forbidden to seek education. An equal opportunity to be educated was recorded in the thirteenth century in the King Ram Khamhaeng's stone inscription which records, 'the King and all his people, high and low, men and women without distinction of rank and sex to the temple school⁽⁴⁾.'

Historical evidence indicates that although commoners were given freedom to be educated at the temples, neither men nor women identified education as necessary in their lives. The Thais in the Sukhotai period had a motto, 'in water are fishes, in farm is rice, our own lands, we do not care for others.' In other words, they felt they could live on their natural resources without further employment. This attitude discouraged commoners from seeking to be literate. They acquired living skills through informal training or practical work, for example, males studied harvesting, woodwork, hunting and fishing with their parents, craftsmen and other skilled neighbours. Females learned domestic skills from their mothers. In the Sukhotai period, it was found that both female commoners and the upper classes did not seek education outside their homes.

There was an argument that educational opportunity for Thai females in those days was rare because of religious discrimination. Sreesurang points out that religion determined sex roles.

'Females are presumed to be easily enticed to commit sins. They are considered morally weak so they should not assume the important roles that men do; for example, 'the Lord Buddha reluctantly granted that women could become Bhikshunis (the

equivalence of Bhikhus).'(5)

Manich also points out that the teaching system being connected with the temples, girls did not have access to the instruction received by boys and it was prohibited for monks to teach the opposite sex except in public. Therefore, 'it was not until state schools came into being all over the country that girls generally had the advantage of being educated.'(6)

In fact, monks may not have intentionally deprived females of the opportunity to be educated. The discrimination occurred because of the relationship between the temples and the boys' role in serving the monks when the temples become the centres of community and village life 'where people meet to make worship, to perform social rites, to play and to celebrate festive occasions.'(7) The monks needed help for their activities. Parents were willing to allow their sons to live in the temples and serve the monks. They believed that they would be rewarded in the after life if they let children serve religion. In return for the boys' services, the monks taught them how to read and write and to recite prayers, since in order to study the moral precepts of the Lord Buddha through the holy books it was necessary to be able to read and write. When females were forbidden by custom to live in the temples or near the monks and their parents were not willing to let them do so, they had a few opportunities in education. Even at the present time, the monastic life remains a convenient channel of education for a larger number of boys, particularly boys from remote villages in the countryside.

There is a question as to how far Buddhist temple education during the 14th century period provided available knowledge for boys, and whether it aimed to train them specifically to qualify for work other than in writing. There was a comment which indicated that 'the temple education was a training for life and concentrated on character training to fit into the religious ideals of the country.'⁽⁸⁾ It did not have any special aim and philosophy, except to teach one to read Pali scripture before all else. Beyond that any subject could be taught, including the way to make love potions, the art of making oneself invisible and so forth. It did not expect to educate males for employment, since in those days education was not regarded as necessary for socio-economic activity.

Opportunity in Education:

It is quite unfair to blame the temples for creating sex discrimination in education. In fact, many factors determined educational opportunity for Thai girls; for example, social values and customs limited the opportunity to be literate. A girl was expected to know about domestic skills and be prepared to be a good housewife rather than literate.

In reality, Thai women are expected to play a major role as mother. Their maternal role is accepted as highly prestigious. Mother controls household affairs, making decisions about the children's future, being a good model and a teacher of the children and good company for her husband. The mother's prominence is reflected in the Thai vocabulary; for example, a word for a person or thing of great importance or value will begin with the word 'mother'; the commander who leads the army into battle is

called 'mother of the army' (Mae Tap); the river, which is vital to agricultural economy, is called mother of water (Mae Nam).'⁽⁹⁾

In those days, as mother, the woman had to take on the great responsibility of looking after children, relatives, servants and mistresses, all of whom were staying under the same household roof. So it was quite difficult for a woman to spend her spare time in gaining knowledge beyond domestic skills, which she could learn at home.

Another limitation to educational opportunity was the prevailing attitudes towards career and sex roles. It was accepted that political involvement, economic participation and social activities were men's responsibilities and careers. When there was no need to work or to earn, so there was no need for education either. These values became associated with women's educational opportunity.

Parents usually opposed educational opportunity for girls as it was believed that being literate, a girl would write love letters, then, she would get into trouble with men. Most parents were afraid of this because for girls to exchange love notes with suitor was unacceptable social behaviour. Therefore, to avoid the problem, parents discouraged their daughters from learning how to read and write.

They also believed that boys would be family heads or wage earners, so education was necessary for them. But girls had very little or no chance of finding remunerative employment, therefore education was unnecessary. Parents were content to put girls to work at home and practise domestic skills^{rather} than become literate.

Need for Domestic Skill:

It may be assumed that domestic skills were the main interest of women in early times. The reason for this was the practice in those days of allowing a man to have many wives, the number of which would signify his wealth, power and dignity. Discrimination of status among wives was indicated in the Law of Ayudhaya, divided into three categories: first, wife by marriage (Mia Klang Muang); second, wives who were given to a man to keep as minor wives (Mia Klang Nork); and third, wives who were former slaves (Mia Klang dasi)⁽¹⁰⁾. In practice, the wife by marriage had overall power in household affairs and the other wives would become her subordinates. However, every wife had the possibility of upgrading her position by making a favourable impression upon the husband, so competition arose among them. Particularly, if she had high ability in domestic skills, she would be promoted to become mistress and to share responsibility in household affairs - with the first wife. There was also a motto among Thai women, 'Sanai Plai Javak Pua Rak Chon Tai' (meaning 'skill in cooking makes husband love her forever'). This shows why women in those days needed domestic skills.

In summary, Thai women in the early period were not expected to be literate; rural women, especially, had no opportunity to learn, for the temples were restricted to males only. Parents' attitude towards sex roles also limited opportunity in education. The learning of domestic skills was begun through practical work inside their own families.

Educational Development in the Ratanakosin Period:
(Bangkok, from A.D. 1782)

In this period, educational opportunity was no longer only for boys, and upper class women began to realize their right to seek knowledge, and made an effort to bring education to women commoners. At the beginning, upper class women were a privileged group to be given education, a situation which was common in the history of almost every country. The upper class women were in court, and were classified in three groups: 'the high class, middle class and low class.'⁽¹¹⁾ They were taught in the Royal Palace in such subjects as history, geography, morals, weaving, handicraft, music, dancing, Thai language, Pali-Sanskrit language and Thai culture. They would later become school teachers and hand down their knowledge and skills for the young women who were from good family backgrounds. But there was no provision for education for rural women yet because of a communication problem. They had social activities and services among the upper class only.

Education in King Rama IV Period:
(1851-68)

Towards the end of the nineteenth century, the spread of colonialism to the East affected Thai education. Bangkok became a major centre of foreign trade and missionary work. King Rama III started learning the English language. Prince Mongkut, who later became the King Rama IV, also studied the English language, science and arithmetic from a foreign missionary during his childhood and served in a monastery. This was the first time in history that the Thai King spoke English with foreign ambassadors. His ability to communicate with the foreigners later led him to realize the significant role of

education and it encouraged him to prepare the way for a system of education along western lines. Particularly, King Rama IV was respected as 'the first who gave equal opportunity to women's education.'⁽¹²⁾ He employed missionaries from the West, particularly from England and the United States, to teach the princes and princesses and other girls in the palace.

Education by Missionaries:

The first school, which was founded in 1852, was run by missionaries of the Presbyterian Mission in a Pengan Village near Wat Chaeng. But it did not allow girls to enrol until 1859. It was the first time that women commoners had had the opportunity to be educated by foreign missionaries. The school offered as subjects, philosophy, arithmetic, geography, composition and astronomy.

In 1859, 'the French Catholic mission of the Societe des Mission Etrangeres provided education for boys and girls in Bangkok and the Chontaburi province. They taught the students in the elements of arithmetic and also the catechism.'⁽¹³⁾

In 1867, the mission started a school for ladies in rural areas, in the Chiangmai province, where it was found that only two women were literate. At the beginning, there was little success, since only a few commoners came for schooling. 'Some schools had to hire students to attend classes.'⁽¹⁴⁾

Education in King Rama V Period: (1868-1910)

A significant opportunity for the education of Thai women arose in King Rama V's period of rule. Education for women was brought about by the efforts of American women who accompanied Christian

missionaries to Thailand. A certain Mrs. Harriet M. House set up the school for girls called 'Kulasatri Wanglang'⁽¹⁵⁾. Later, Miss Edna Sarah Cole, administrator, carried on the work and caused the school to become recognized among progressive parents. Here, the girls from the court studied side by side with commoner girls. No privilege was given to anyone. It was a boarding school. The subjects taught consisted of mathematics, history, literature, the Thai language, the English language and democracy. The school taught up to the sixth form (Mor Hok) and was eventually developed into a renowned private school called 'Wattana Wittaya Academy'. It succeeded in enlightening the young girls and increased their capacity for taking part in social activities; for example, in 1901, the girls were appointed by King Rama V to be hostesses to welcome Czar Nicholas of Russia. This situation had not occurred in the early period. Education made women gradually change their role in social activities. They could take part in activities side by side with men.

Later on, education for girls was expanded. A firm belief in the equality of boys and girls encouraged King Rama V to set up, in 1880, a school for girls, named Sunandalai School which was renamed 'Rajinee School' in 1904. Other schools for girls were Bam-rung-satree-vicha (renamed Sao-va-pa, 1906), Sree-Chit-Sanja (1911), Sai-panya School, Satree-maha-prut-Taram, Assam Chan Convent and St. Joseph.

King Rama V's Queen, Sree Pacharintra was also a great founder of women's education. She was the first to train young girls as nurses. In 1889, the Royal Medical College was established at Siriraj Hospital. Her Majesty the Queen recommended that

'the responsibility of caring for the sick is a suitable job for girls and new medical treatment is necessary.'⁽¹⁶⁾ Meanwhile, two kinds of students were admitted, 30 girls with a Queen's scholarship and 20 girls who were self-supporting. To satisfy the admission process, most applicants had to hold at least a primary education qualification and ^{be} age from 15 to 25. The training courses emphasized physical education, health, child-care, moral education, domestic science and vaccination. The graduates were appointed and assigned to positions in government sectors. By this period, women had started working outside the family and had become increasingly more involved in social welfare.

The Establishment of the Department of Education:

As the schools increased in numbers, it was necessary to set up some sort of control agency to administer them. In 1887, a Department of Education was established (Kra-tzruang-trammakarn). In 1889, it became the Ministry of Education (MOE) which was composed of the Central Ecclesiastical, Education, Hospital and Museum Department. This was the first time that education was under the responsibility of the state, and the Buddhist temple schools were brought under the control of the central government. They had to comply with the state's policy in education, which emphasized that the Buddhist temple schools should provide educational opportunity for both sexes.

The King Rama V (the father of modern education) soon realized that education should be expanded into the rural areas as well as in Bangkok province so that education could reach commoners. In 1897, he visited Europe and asked Phaya visut suriyasak, the Thai ambassador in London, who later became Minister of Education

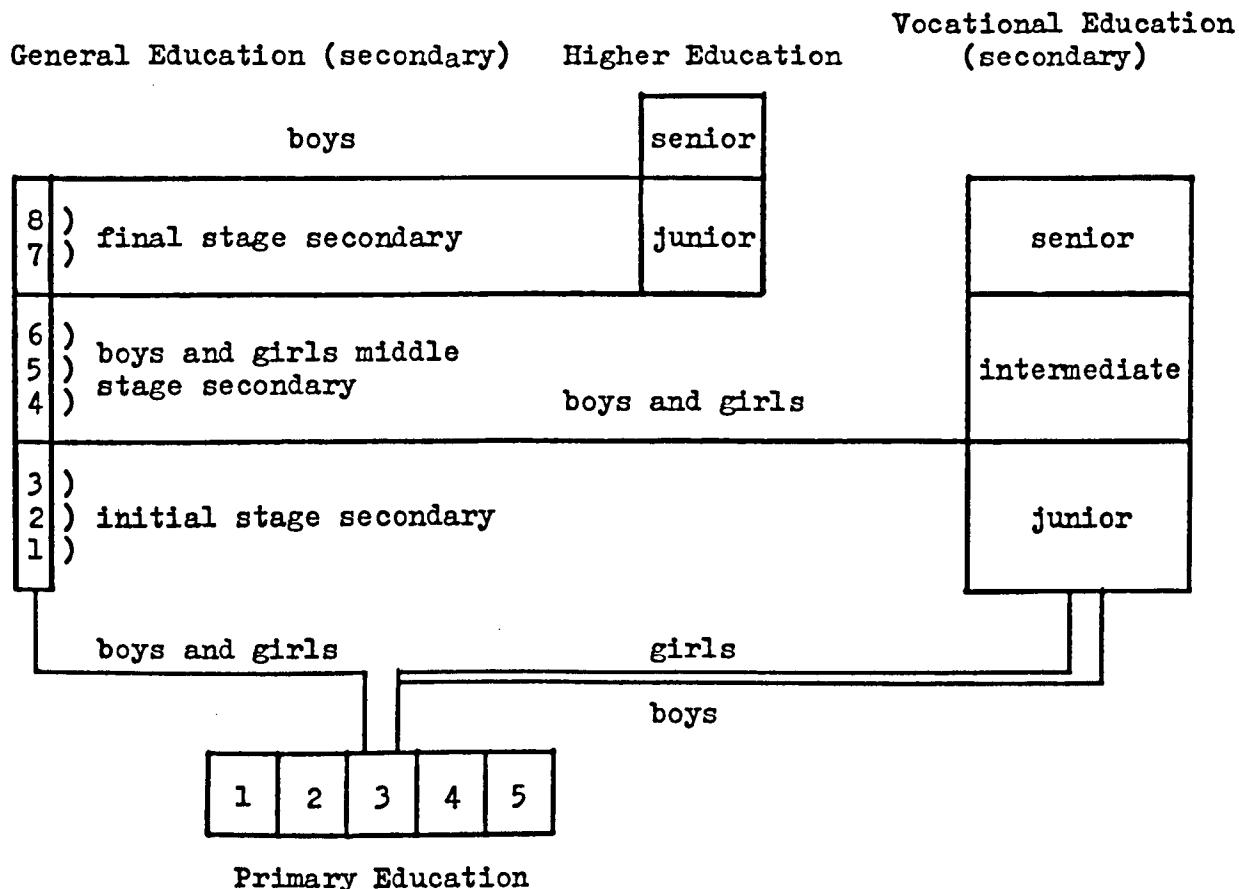
1912-1915, to make a survey of the English educational system. In 1898, a plan was proposed. Then, a state system of education came into force for the province and it was agreed that the Ministry of the Interior (MOI), which already had Lord Lieutenants, governors and district officers posted in all rural areas, would be charged with the additional duty of educational administration. The MOE would look after education in Bangkok only. The local administrators would set up in all villages educational committees, consisting of the head abbot, the village headman and the local doctor, by this process the government hoped to bring as much education as possible to rural people. In 1898^{the} educational system was first formulated which indicated three levels of study: 3 years of primary; 3 years of secondary and 3 years of higher education.

Education in King Rama VI Period:

In 1910, when King Rama V died, his son Vajiravudha became the King Rama VI. He continued his father's policy in extending education. By 1913, he finally shaped the educational system in two directions: a compulsory sector and a special sector for students who wanted further education. Diagram I explains the educational system.

Primary education lasted five years; the first three years covering general education and the last two years covering vocational education. Since the country has been largely engaged in agriculture, the fourth and the fifth primary grades were devoted to agricultural subjects, but options were provided according to the needs of the students in different localities. Other subjects were canework, dressmaking, ropemaking, carpentry,

Diagram I:



blacksmithing, silversmithing, pottery, sewing, turnery and weaving. Students who did not wish to go to the fourth and the fifth grades could, after the third grade, go to a secondary school for an eight year course leading to university. Noticeably, the diagram shows only boys at the general education level 7 and 8. This indicates that boys far more than girls were expected to attempt to enter higher secondary education and the university. This shows the discrimination against girls' educational opportunity. Girls were expected to complete only the middle stage secondary and then go on to vocational education or drop out.

The MOE met with the problem of a shortage of teachers at rural

schools when an effort was made to expand compulsory education into rural areas. To solve this problem, the first teacher training school for women, in 1913, named 'Benjamarachalai' was set up. Rural women were given the privilege of enrolling in the courses on condition that they returned home to teach in local schools. This procedure motivated the rural girls to play a part in educational development at the rural level. Being a teacher, later, was regarded as a privileged status. Parents were rather willing to support daughters to become teachers and sent them to the teacher training colleges rather than into other fields. As a result of this, in the past women sought a teaching job as the first choice. But in comparison with men, only a small number of women graduated from the colleges; for example, the census of 1926 reported only 997 women graduates, but 9,572 men graduates.

When teaching became a popular job among rural people, the problem of teacher unemployment arose, which many private and local schools exploited by offering jobs for those who were able to pay a high commission. Such was the experience of some local girls, who completed their teacher training course and needed to get a job in their local schools. They had to pay Baht 4,000 commission. But they could earn only Baht 400 a month. After working for one year, they found themselves unemployed, because it was a common practice for the schools to employ teachers for a few years and then retire them in order to earn other commissions from new applicants. This took place over a long period before the MOE took action to get rid of this problem. At present, the MOE holds public examinations to recruit teachers to supply schools throughout the whole country. However, the corruption typical in Thailand has strongly influenced bureaucrats. Although

there is a public examination to recruit teachers, bias and corruption are still practised. If the officials are bribed, they will reserve some jobs for those who pay. It may be difficult to overcome this problem, except to inflict severe punishment on those who ask for commissions or for bribes.

Compulsory Act : Educational Opportunity for Girls

Although elementary education was extended into rural areas, the majority of villages were unable to take advantage of this opportunity. 'In 1921, it was found that only 2,311 villages out of the 5,050 village groups in the whole kingdom had schools.'⁽¹⁷⁾ The reason was the same as mentioned earlier: parental attitudes towards education plus the problem of a shortage of funds and teachers. To force parents to send their children to school, 'a Compulsory Act of 1921 was announced'.⁽¹⁸⁾ It decreed that 'every child, irrespective of sex, creed, religion, faith, race or class must attend school from the age of 7 to 14. If he/she is still illiterate by the age of 14, he/she must stay at school after this age until he/she is able to read and write. Education will be provided free of charge in all local schools set up for this purpose.' The Act also emphasized that it is the duty of the parents or guardians to register the child's name at the district office. Parents or guardians who fail to do so will be fined an amount not exceeding 12 ticals. If they still refuse to send children when notice is given, they will incur a penalty of a fine not exceeding 100 ticals and imprisoned for a period not exceeding 10 days or both. If they can prove that they have used every reasonable persuasion to send the child to school, they should not be liable to punishment, but the child may then be sent to an industrial school.

Later, the resistance encountered with regard to the enforcement of compulsory education was almost negligible. Punishments consisted of occasional small fines and only a few prison cases. In 1922, the number of cases throughout the whole kingdom was only 688; most of which were the result of failure to pay the education poll tax. 'But the number of cases had increased to 2,551 by 1928',⁽¹⁹⁾ from which it was concluded that parents caused education to remain unavailable to their children. Literacy was not seen as a necessity for village life. Girls' educational opportunity still remained less than that of boys, social prejudices were acting against education for women .

Although the temples were instructed to provide education for girls, there was still the difficulty that the monks were not willing to teach them. So the MOI issued a circular letter to the Lords Lieutenant and Viceroys of various provinces stating that it would be difficult to impose upon the monks the duty to teach girls. But rural girls must not be left out of the scheme. Therefore, the local authorities should encourage people to set up private schools as a common enterprise, and to put into the schools as many girls of school age as possible. This was the first effort to create private schools in rural areas of the MOI with special purpose to raise up the educational opportunity of the rural girls.

The Compulsory Act of 1921 was applied in 1922 to the village groups and the end-of-year statistics showed the rate of enrolments: about 568,193 of boys and 464,262 girls were of school age; 316,616 boys, but only 131,764 girls were enrolled in elementary schools. It shows the enrolment of girls was far behind that of boys. It was extremely difficult to break down

the traditional barrier with regard to girls whose parents still wished to keep them at home. After 1921, the number of girls enrolled was increasing as is shown by the following table:

YEAR	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL
1921	224,689	16,819	241,508
1922	316,616	131,764	448,380
1923	375,965	209,658	585,623
1925	388,277	235,750	624,027
1928	386,591	239,150	625,741
1930	445,931	282,574	728,505
1932	481,936	316,190	798,126

Source: The Ministry of Education

The system of education in the temples was carried on side by side with that of the state. Although the temples were unable to offer much beyond literacy, their work was helpful to the MOI in minimizing the costs of investment in education, especially rebuilding school buildings. Although they discriminated against girls in educational opportunity, they helped to eradicate illiteracy among the male population, so they should not be blamed for the restriction of the monks' role in teaching only boys, since they had to preserve the old tradition.

At the present time, the temple education is declining as secular education has become more widely available. Nevertheless, the temples still play an important role in providing religious instruction to those interested. According to figures from the

Department of Religious Affairs for 1972-1973, there were 9,171 temple schools with 1,626,256 pupils; 5,985 schools for Pali and Dhamma studies with 20,089 monk teachers; 25,894 monks engaged in Pali-studies and 208,263 engaged in Dhamma-studies; 69 schools provided monks with secular education as well as religious education and had 570 teachers serving 3,200 monks. (20) In Bangkok, there are two universities, Mahachulalongkorn University and Mahamongkhut University, to provide higher education for monks. They do not offer the equivalent of a university degree, but provide four year programmes covering predominantly Buddhist philosophy and the study of Pali scriptures with some general education. The monks also use religion as an instrument for building a homogeneous society. They encourage the Thais to love one another as brothers and sisters; for example, the Buddhism Mission Programmes were begun, in which the monks were sent to help in community development and to teach religion and to disseminate information about improved health and agricultural techniques to those living near the border provinces where communists are a serious problem. It is clear that the monks are able to persuade rural people to follow religious tradition. It is estimated that the number of young men going into the monkhood exceeds 74%, and 97% of the 42 million population become Buddhists. This shows that monks have influenced the Thai people's way of life and they have contributed many good things to the society.

Equality in Education after the 1932 Revolution:

By 1932, the young Thais, who had been sent abroad, learned the ways of the west and brought back European concepts of parliamentary democracy which undermined the absolute monarchical

rule, and introduced new concepts of freedom and equality. In that year the absolute monarchy was ended. The king's role as head of state was changed. He would be a national symbol and exercise only limited power through the executive, legislative and judicial branches into which the government was divided. Then, equality in education of both sexes was confirmed by the Constitution Act of 1932 which indicated that the people must be given complete freedom and the right to education without hindrance so that half of the population could complete the primary education courses within 10 years.

The previous aim of education emphasized only morality and literacy. According to the Act, it was changed as Article 62 of the constitution states that the aim of education is to train people to become good citizens, healthy and strong, and with a capacity to earn their own living.

Article 64 states that primary education in state and municipal schools shall be given free of charge. It is the duty of the state to equip the school suitably. (21)

The government made an effort to bridge the gap between the urban and the rural education by announcing in the Constitution Act that 'education should be extended to cover the whole country so that everyone would have the right to receive primary education. Schools would be established in every town and village. Vocational schools would strongly emphasize agriculture and commerce. The courses of instruction would be improved to suit the various needs and local conditions. Then a 4 - 4 - 4 plan for an educational system was adapted. (22)

It took the government 14 years (1921-1935) to put the law of compulsory primary education into effect in every village. At the outbreak of World War II, everything came almost to a standstill; particularly literacy was slowed down. After the war, instead of being able to remedy the defects in the educational system and to improve on the system itself, the government had to deal with the economic crises. Illiteracy was increasing rapidly; which brought about the idea that adult education should be the state's responsibility. The topic of adult education will be discussed in Chapter Two.

Education after the Second World War:

The practical situation in 1951 was that although education was made compulsory, and both sexes were officially treated alike, there were, in fact, differences 'in enrolment ratios at the primary education level of 52.36% for boys but only 47.64% for girls. A wide gap of enrolment ratio appeared at secondary level, 71.99% for boys, but only 28.01% for girls.'⁽²³⁾ A high rate of drop out among girls at secondary level was because of the reluctance of parents to support the girls' education and the low incomes of the families. Parents frequently considered that a primary education was sufficient for a girl, so up to now, the majority of rural girls have completed their education only to the elementary level. It is necessary to change the parents' attitudes and to motivate the girls to increase their educational attainment beyond the elementary level. Rural girls must be awakened to realize that they need to pursue knowledge throughout the life cycle because learning is a lifelong process. To motivate them for this, it is necessary for women's organisations to make an effort in raising the educational opportunity for

DIAGRAM 2

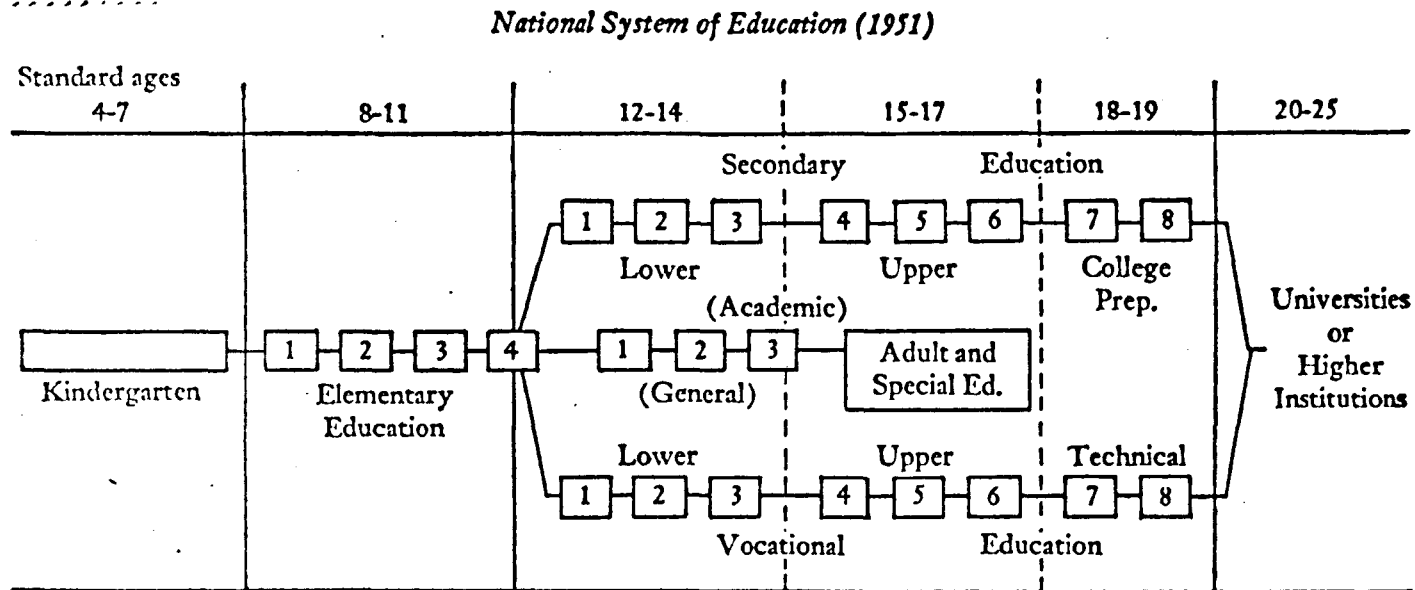
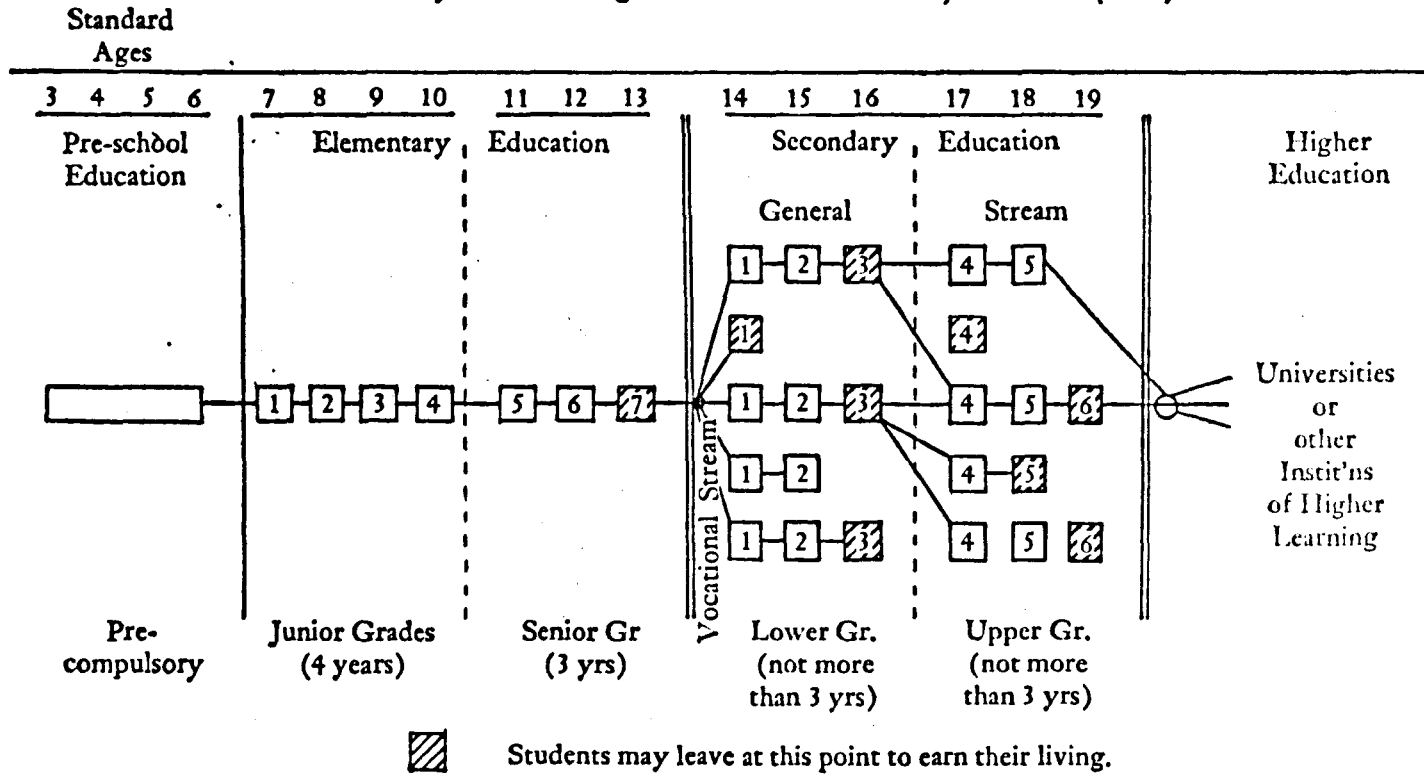


DIAGRAM 3

School System according to the National Scheme of Education (1960)



rural women, particularly beyond the elementary level.

Following World War II, the government used education as a tool to build up social cohesion and to improve economic conditions. In 1951, there was a project to extend compulsory education from 4 years to 7 years. Before its application, two experiments of primary extension schools were initiated, one in Bangkok and the other in Bankla, Cha-Choeng-Sao province in order to evaluate the advantages of the project for application in rural areas. In 1960, the MOE announced the 7 year plan for compulsory education. (See National System of Education 1951 in Diagram 2 and new system 1960 in Diagram 3). This decision was made in the light of recommendations made at the UNESCO Conference held at Karachi in 1959-60 and the growing conviction that 'permanent literacy was only feasible after a minimum of seven years of continuous schooling.'⁽²⁴⁾ In 1962, the Third Compulsory Act was announced which empowered the MOE to extend 7 years of elementary education into individual villages.

In 1960, the government recognized the growth of education as being relevant to economic growth and social development, so it recommended emphasis on the development of vocational education. Girls were encouraged to enrol in vocational courses in order to qualify for employment conditions. In 1962 The Department of Vocational Education co-operated with UNICEF to improve 74 Girls' Vocational Schools to bring them nearer the approved standard. Girls were offered four options to study: clothing and textiles; home-making; food and nutrition and handicrafts. Such options could render girls suitable for employment in private companies.

Ward in his discussion of educational systems in developing countries says that 'education was perceived by the many as a social and economic advantage long confined to a favored few. Although the demand for education was strong and the spread of education was thought to be one index of school advance, most national leaders had as yet no specific conception of the relation between education and development. Moreover, the demand for education was itself far from homogeneous. The masses clamoured for village schools while more advantaged groups demanded places for their children in secondary and higher education.'⁽²⁵⁾

In Thailand, the demand for education is similar to that of developing countries. A person, who was born in a government official's home or a rich family, will have a better chance to receive a good informal and formal education than children in less fortunate families. Clearly, a good education almost assures opportunity in the bureaucracy and in industry. The governments of many periods have not been able to overcome the problem of social class in education. The rich can afford to send children to a good school at home or abroad, and they always occupy high social status and maintain privileged groups. Although the seventh year of elementary education has attempted to extend the level of educational attainment of the poor in rural areas, they still cannot reach that level. The government itself is unable to expand 7 years of elementary education to all villages because of the shortage of funds. Evidence exists that within ten years (1951-1960) only 1,488 village schools were able to make provision up to this level, and another 2,466 villages could provide only the fourth year of elementary education. Up to 1970 the compulsory education law of 7 years' duration planned

to compel 400 hamlets to extend 7 years elementary education, and hoped to extend this to all villages by 1980. Recently, the MOE concluded the failure of this plan. Then, in 1977, there was an announcement to change the educational system from 7 - 3 - 2 to 6 - 3 - 3 forms.⁽²⁶⁾ This meant shortening elementary education to six years.

For years, one of the greatest concerns of the MOE has been the problem of education in rural areas. It has long been realized that to prevent the increasing flow of students from rural areas to towns and the city, it must improve and expand education in rural areas more than in urban ones. To accomplish this a project called REDPHE (Regional Education Department Project including Higher Education) has been in operation for several years. Special attention has been paid to the training of teachers throughout the country, with the expansion of the training programme at TURTEP (Thailand Unesco Rural Teacher Education Project). Six boarding schools were opened for children living on rivers and canals and for children coming from remote and small villages.

Another step towards the improvement of rural education has been the introduction of radio for educational purposes. In January 1953, the Education Broadcasting Service was initiated to provide general education programmes, a new service and education news for the public, students and teachers. In 1958, school broadcasting was begun. It is hoped that using media for education will help rural people to receive more or less the same knowledge as urban people.

The government always claims that education is one of the means

of helping rural children achieve full opportunity with urban children, so they are taught the same subjects as urban children. In reality, rural children need many things, including different knowledge that they can apply to rural life. But schools are unable to satisfy their need so they are not much benefit to them. The rural children also have many disadvantages such as shortage of schooling, poor teachers and poor teaching materials. As a result of this, it is difficult for them to receive full opportunity in education as urban children. If it is impossible to provide equality in education for them, it will be better to try to eliminate certain gaps between rural and urban education. Adult education is one of many methods to help disadvantaged rural people to receive more opportunity in education.

The Reconsideration of the Responsibility for Education:

As mentioned earlier the MOI shared responsibility for running elementary education in rural areas. In 1966, all the remaining public first level schools were transferred from the MOE to the provincial administrations which were under the responsibility of the MOI. The MOE remained responsible for a few hundred experimental schools, for the pedagogical curriculum and for supervising aspects of the transferred schools. The Department of Local Education (DOLE) has been responsible for the actual day-to-day operation of the rural elementary schools, including budget, teachers and staff facilities. This is a decentralization which is designed to increase authority and initiative for education at the provincial level. It places the administrative responsibility for the schools in 71 provinces of the DOLE. An attempt has been made to provide democratic administration at local level and to comply with Article 70 of the Constitution of

the Thai Kingdom which reads 'the government should promote local administration and encourage the local administration bodies to carry out effectively their works according to the authority and responsibility given to them.' (27)

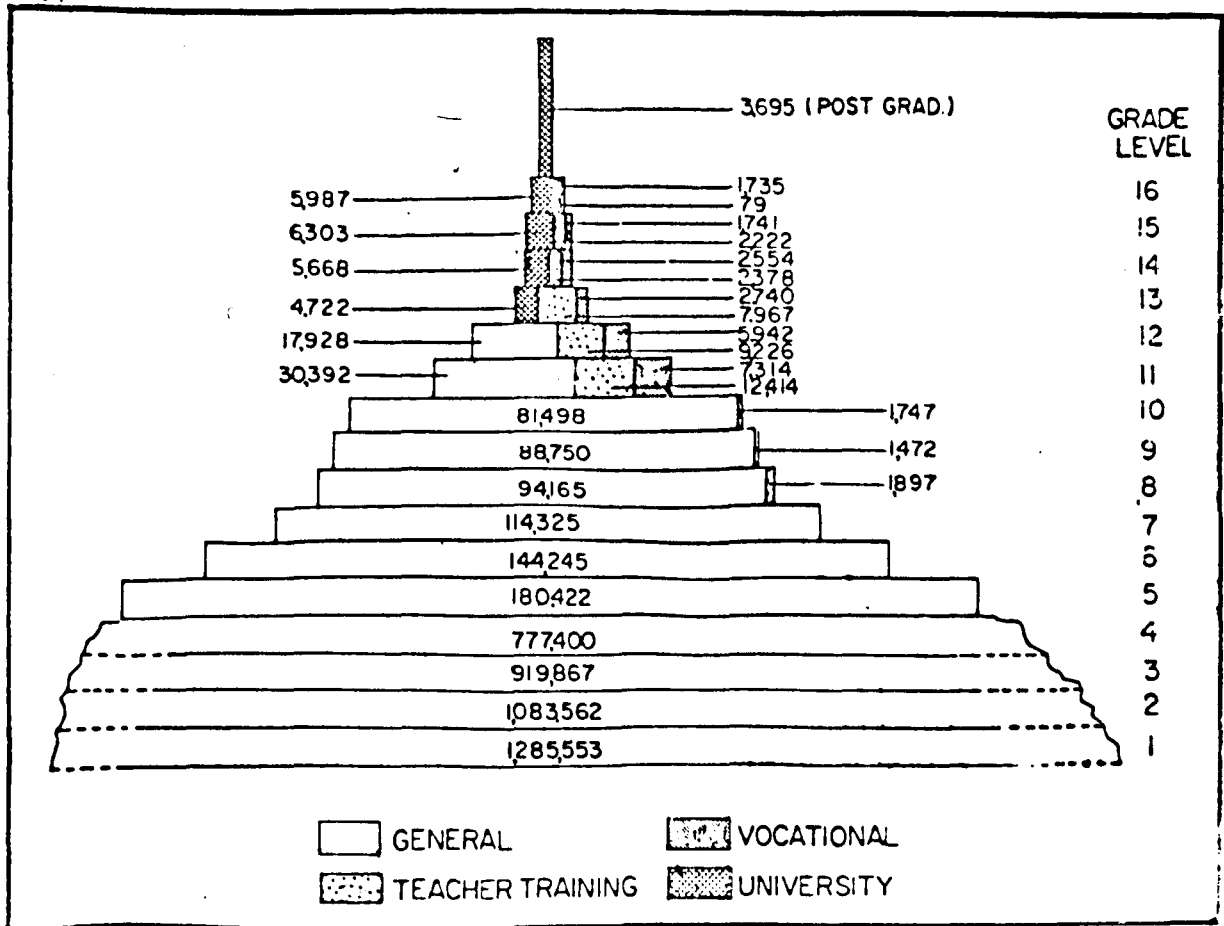
So elementary schools now have two masters, the MOE and the MOI. There is a complicated and somewhat unclear system of administration: second-level vocational and technical education, teacher training and some first level and special schools run by the MOE. Non-educational aspects of the majority of first-level schools are administered through local administrations by the MOI. It can be imagined that 'educational planning in a country with two different ministries responsible for different levels of education and with a long tradition of departmental autonomy, is a very difficult and complex task.' (28) Early in 1978, the teachers under the MOI became dissatisfied with their position, promotion and salaries, which did not equal those of the MOE teachers. They called a strike and demanded to be returned to the responsibility of the MOE. But rural teachers could not succeed in their complaint. It was pointed out that the MOI controls a large number of educational budgets so the authorities did not want to lose these benefits and their power in rural education. Also it would be difficult to give all responsibility for education to the MOE alone, because it has inadequate staff and teachers to carry on running rural schools. They may be unable to control local administration because of lack of power.

Literate Women After the 1960s:

Although an effort to expand education to the whole society had been made, the productive capacity was low. As Diagrams 4 and 5

DIAGRAM 4

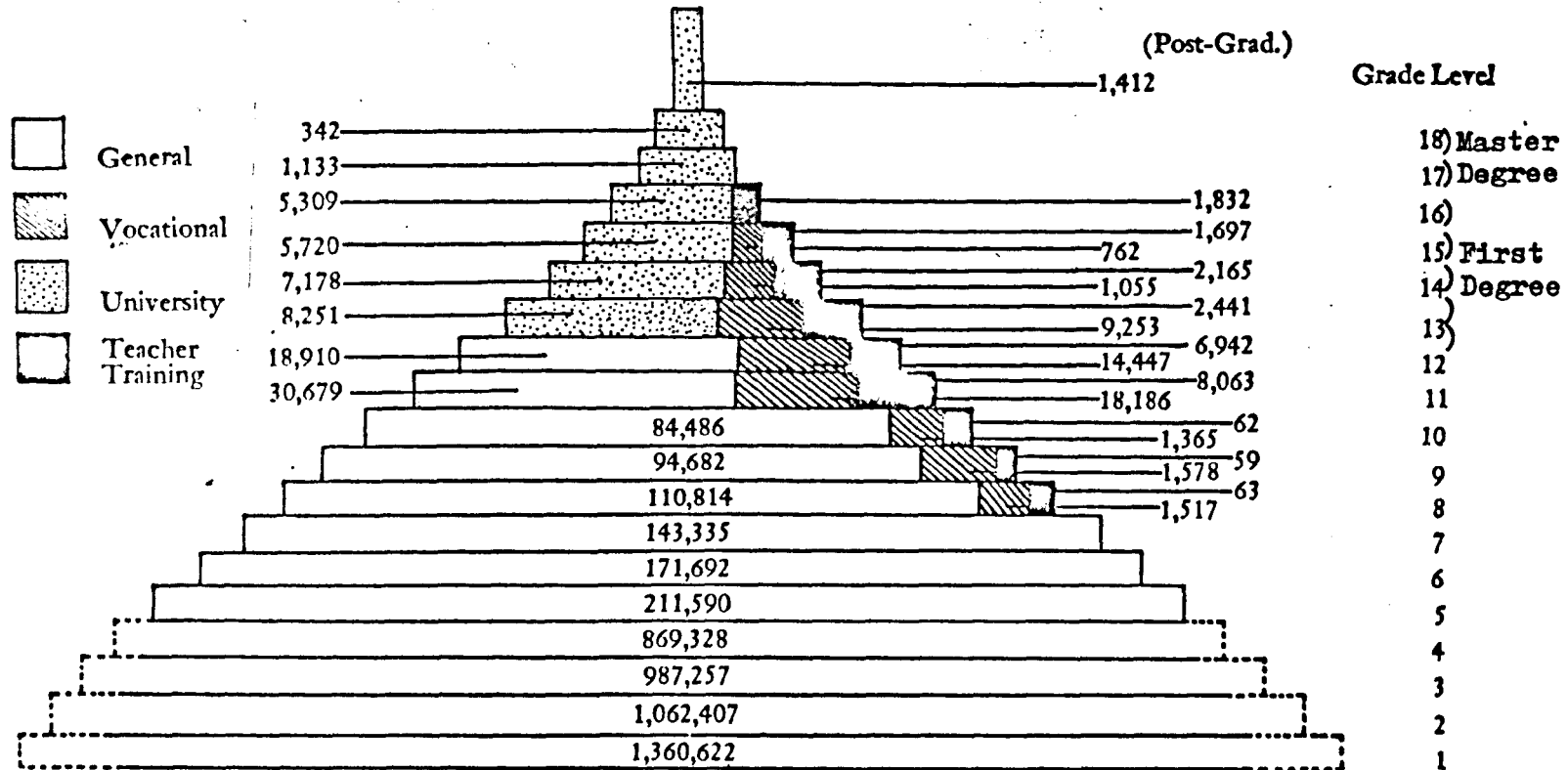
THE PYRAMID OF ENROL MENTS, 1964-1965



Source: Educational Planning Office,
Ministry of Education

DIAGRAM 5

The Pyramid of Enrolment, 1966



show, the pyramid of enrolment in 1964-65, and 1966, revealed a large number of school leavers after completing grade 4 or below. For example, in 1964-65, school enrolments fell from 777,400 at grade 4 to 180,492 at grade 5, and from 869,328 to 211,590 in 1966. The next major drop out point was at grades 10 and 12. The two pyramids also indicate few students continuing to advanced degrees. From this evidence, one can assume that Thailand is composed mainly of people with an educational background roughly under upper secondary education. The pyramid is sharp on top which means the country has few professionals. The pyramid of enrolment for 1966 shows only 8,251 students at university level. They would become professionals in 1969-1970. In this position Mole says that 'in a non-progressive nation, this number of graduates might suffice to maintain the nation's essential needs. But the number is insufficient for a rapidly developing nation.'⁽²⁹⁾ Thailand has few university students because the large majority of students do not reach upper secondary education, so it is impossible for them to enter universities. In practical terms, university graduates become the potential builders, educators, administrators and achieve top careers. It is said their education makes them influential in whatever role they occupy.

The country needs to up-grade the educational level of individuals as much as possible, but the shortage of funds, manpower and equipment to run schools and universities limits the enrolment number. The total number of students in Thailand who could be accepted into the appropriate level of educational establishment ranged between 4% and 78% of the total relevant age group as shown

in the table:

LEVELS	AGE	TOTAL POPULATION IN SCHOOL AGE	TOTAL STUDENTS WERE ACCEPTED
Elementary Education	7-13	7,725,543	6,609,239
Lower Secondary	14-16	2,766,434	850,533
Upper Secondary	17-19	2,517,948	302,910
University (first degree)	19-24	4,681,581	115,084

Source: Ministry of Education, Education Report 1975.

The table reveals that at the elementary education level, more than a million children may be uneducated or will find it difficult to achieve enrolment at school. This ensures that illiteracy will remain high. Thailand will never overcome its illiteracy problem, if new alternative methods to educate people are not initiated, particularly providing for those who are left out of schooling. Adult education or non-formal education can help to remedy a lack of formal education.

With regard to females' literacy, the proportion of girls in the school enrolment is considerably low at the secondary education level. Girls show a greater number of drop-outs or school leavers than boys. So discussion about females' education needs to examine how far they are literate. Taking the 1960 census as a crucial example, it revealed that the level of literacy varied considerably both in urban and rural residence and also in age groups. The following table shows that for the kingdom as a whole 39% of all females aged 10 and over were classified as illiterate in comparison with 19.4% of males.

ILLITERATE POPULATION IN THAILAND

Year of census	Population from 10 years up			Illiterates			Percent of Illiterates		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1937	5,055,979	4,944,809	10,000,780	2,668,620	4,210,387	6,879,007	52.7	85.1	68.8
1947	6,143,460	6,183,926	12,327,386	2,002,942	3,702,372	5,705,314	32.6	59.6	46.3
1960	9,004,412	9,021,992	18,026,404	1,750,822	3,519,232	5,270,054	19.4	39.0	29.2
1970	11,581,756	11,871,557	23,453,313	1,218,880	2,893,454	4,111,334	11.1	25.2	18.2
1975	-	-	26,000,000	-	-	4,200,000	-	-	16.00
1980	-	-	30,000,000	-	-	3,400,000	-	-	11.30

Sources of information: Population census 1937, Ministry of Interior
 Population census 1960.
 National Statistics Bureau 1975 - 1980.
 Projection of population, Education Commission

Literacy was highest for those in the youngest age groups, reflecting the greater education which these females had achieved. The table on page 32 shows a peak of 87% literate females among those aged 13-19. The percentage of literacy declined with increasing age to less than 10% of the women 55 and over. The lowest literacy levels characterized those in rural areas, just under 60% of the women in rural non-agriculture and rural-agriculture were classified as literate. This contrasts with 72.8% of the urban women in agriculture and 73% in non-agriculture. It is also found that females in rural agriculture and non-agriculture made up a low percentage in other educational levels, except at primary 1-4 years. A slight proportion of women in rural agriculture had education at university level (0.1%) while women in Bangkok constituted 2.2% at this level.

By 1970, the educational position of women had been broadly accepted in terms of comprehensive education, with much emphasis on vocational skills. When they were accepted to have the same careers as men, they have attempted to go for further education, especially at vocational level. This was a striking growth in education among women and demonstrated literacy improvement. This year, the whole kingdom showed 74.8% of females literate, but males were still better on the average, showing 88.9%. This confirms that males had higher educational opportunity than females at every educational level except the lower primary education grade 1-4 as shown in the table on page 33.

In a comparison of literacy rates of both sexes with regard to age-groups, males and females showed little difference at young age-groups, as shown in the table on page 34, but at age 45 and over, females showed less than half of the males' literacy; for

PERCENT LITERATE FEMALES BY AGE AND URBAN-RURAL RESIDENCE,
1960

Age	Bangkok	Other Urban, Non- Agric.	Urban, Agric.	Rural, Non- Agric.	Rural, Agric.	Total Kingdom
13-19	88.2	93.6	94.6	84.4	86.8	87.0
20-24	83.7	88.0	90.3	77.2	79.9	80.2
25-29	78.0	84.7	81.2	71.9	74.6	74.9
30-34	75.0	79.9	82.6	69.7	68.2	69.4
35-39	68.1	68.9	76.2	51.3	47.1	50.1
40-44	51.9	60.5	64.4	35.1	29.6	33.3
45-49	43.7	44.3	41.0	27.1	21.5	24.6
50 and Over	29.6	24.8	24.5	9.3	6.0	8.7
Total	69.3	73.0	72.8	59.2	59.4	60.6
Total Standardized for Age	69.6	73.0	74.1	59.7	59.3	60.6

Source: National Statistical Office, 1975.

SCHOOL GRADE ATTAINED BY POPULATION 6 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER, 1970

School grade attained	Description	Total		Male		Female	
		Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
0	None	5,145,341	19.0	2,880,028	21.1	2,265,313	20.1
1- 4	Lower Primary	17,178,543	70.4	8,786,649	64.2	8,391,894	67.1
5- 7	Upper Primary	1,189,219	4.0	715,228	5.2	473,991	4.7
8-12	Secondary	1,336,654	4.2	846,631	6.2	490,023	5.3
13-15	Attended college	106,878	.4	61,999	0.4	44,879	.4
16	Completed	72,482	.2	50,597	0.4	21,885	.3
17 or more	Graduate degree	5,269	-	3,722	-	1,547	-
	Religious, pre-primary and unknown	561,577	1.8	338,412	2.5	223,165	2.1
	Total	25,595,963	100.0	13,683,266	100.0	11,912,697	100.0

Source: National Statistical Office, 1970 Population and Housing Census, Whole Kingdom.
National Statistical Office, Office of the Prime Minister, Bangkok, 1973.

LITERACY RATES FOR THE POPULATION 10 YEARS OF AGE AND OVER,
BY AGE GROUP AND SEX, FOR THE WHOLE KINGDOM, REGIONS AND MUNICIPAL AREAS

Age Group	Whole Kingdom		Central Region		Northeast Region		North Region		South Region		Municipal Areas									
											Whole Kingdom		Central		Northeast		North		South	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Total	89.9	74.8	93.0	78.2	91.2	80.3	82.5	65.7	83.5	67.1	94.5	84.4	94.7	84.8	96.3	86.4	93.9	82.0	91.5	80.1
10-14	95.9	94.2	97.5	95.5	97.5	96.7	92.2	89.6	93.9	91.8	98.1	96.6	98.2	96.6	98.2	97.1	98.2	97.3	96.9	95.3
15-19	95.8	92.9	97.8	94.9	97.6	96.2	91.5	87.1	93.3	88.2	98.4	96.4	98.7	96.5	98.6	97.4	98.1	96.4	96.9	94.3
20-24	95.1	90.7	97.7	93.4	97.0	94.5	90.5	83.0	90.0	83.5	98.3	95.6	98.6	95.8	98.5	96.9	97.8	95.7	95.4	92.8
25-29	93.2	86.1	96.8	89.9	95.8	91.6	87.2	76.1	86.9	76.1	97.4	92.9	97.8	93.1	98.3	95.9	96.6	92.2	94.5	88.9
30-34	90.3	80.1	94.8	84.1	94.1	88.1	83.1	82.1	67.4	95.6	87.1	95.8	87.0	97.7	93.7	94.7	94.7	87.3	92.6	82.4
35-39	88.4	77.5	93.4	82.7	93.0	85.4	80.0	64.9	80.5	66.6	94.0	84.8	94.1	84.4	97.1	92.2	93.4	85.7	91.0	80.0
40-44	87.5	68.6	93.0	76.9	90.7	74.3	80.3	55.8	79.4	57.0	93.0	81.5	92.9	81.8	96.6	88.1	94.3	81.5	88.9	74.1
45-49	82.1	49.6	89.7	58.7	84.4	55.3	72.7	33.4	75.3	40.4	90.9	72.4	94.7	76.9	91.5	67.1	86.9		86.9	63.5
50-54	75.0	32.8	83.8	39.5	76.4	37.1	64.0	19.9	68.3	26.6	86.2	56.1	86.0	56.9	90.8	64.6	86.8	51.5	82.6	48.7
55-59	72.1	25.7	80.5	31.9	72.3	27.3	61.5	15.9	68.0	22.2	83.0	47.9	82.3	48.2	88.3	55.9	84.3	45.3	81.4	40.8
60-64	63.6	13.2	74.4	20.2	60.8	10.5	52.7	06.9	62.2	12.6	77.6	36.4	77.4	38.6	81.9	34.5	77.5	29.7	75.1	30.1
65-69	59.2	10.5	70.6	16.9	53.7	06.7	47.7	05.1	61.9	11.0	73.6	31.4	73.5	34.6	77.9	23.6	72.0	23.1	72.8	25.6
70 & over	51.7	08.1	64.0	12.9	40.6	04.7	44.9	04.1	52.0	08.0	67.8	25.4	68.6	28.0	59.7	19.6	65.6	16.9	64.1	21.2
Unknown	28.2	22.2	37.6	29.5	26.1	20.1	22.2	18.1	22.9	19.5	49.2	39.4	57.5	47.3	38.0	24.0	34.5	31.4	29.5	26.7

example, at age of 45-49 there was only 49.6% of literate females, but 82.1% of males.

In a comparison among regions, statistics reveal that females in the Northeast constitute a higher percentage of literacy (80.3%) than females of other regions. But, on the average, Thai women received education at very low levels; the majority of them completed only primary education and few had the opportunity to go on up to university level. Since, the country needs to have qualified manpower for supplying economic sectors, Thai women are unqualified to work, so they need more educational training. It might be easy for the young girls to seek knowledge and skills during schooling. But from statistics the unqualified women are middle aged. This makes it impossible for them to seek further knowledge and skills through schooling. Adult education may be an available source of knowledge to them. It can provide them with training at convenient times, and it can bring them to realize that no one is too old for education.

Women's Interest:

An investigation of women's interest in selective subjects illustrates for the educational planners the need of women for future careers. It is also necessary to make flexible adult education provision to support their needs if formal schools cannot organize such subjects for them.

The 1974 Final Report on Education revealed that girls were interested in arts as well as in sciences. By looking at enrolment in these fields, there was an almost equal number of girls' enrolment in the arts (7,283) and in the sciences (7,453). But boys were rather more interested in the sciences (11,089

enrolments) than the arts (3,940 enrolment). Obviously, Thai girls prefer studying languages, history, literature and politics to technological subjects. So each academic year, more girl applicants appeared for arts subjects than for scientific subjects. The Report also indicated the girls' choice in vocational subjects; for example, at upper vocational evening secondary schools, girls selected business administration as first choice, languages second and Fine Arts third. In contrast, at upper vocational secondary schools for full-time students, girls enrolled for such options as home economics as first choice, cooking second, food nutrition third and women's crafts fourth. Nobody enrolled in the agricultural option. Obviously, Thai women rather want to work for industry or bureaucracy than in agricultural service, and the choice of subjects is usually dependent on the structure of the labour market. A variety of jobs are offered for women such as typists, secretaries, sales-girls, clerks, guidance for tourists, language-interpreters, beauticians, social-workers, managers, accountants, government officers and other domestic services. These jobs can be said to shape the future education of Thai women.

In theory, vocational education in Thailand is co-education. Girls and boys are admitted to study the same options. But in practice, several factors prevent girls from enrolling in as many subjects as boys because of physical differences, boys are offered training courses as mechanics, in the construction fields, in radio-T.V. repairing, as carpenters, in metalwork and leather-work. Girls are offered subjects in embroidery and flower arrangement, book-keeping, home-management, secretarial studies, typing, languages, marketing, business, domestic science and

industrial training (mostly concerning accountancy, calculation and sales-girls).

Women and Higher Education:

So far, the development of education for women has been discussed in areas of elementary and secondary education. This following section examines women's opportunity in higher education. By investigating a field of women's studies we can distinguish their opportunities to enter professional occupations.

1. Universities in Thailand:

At present, Thailand's higher education institutions concentrate on academic streams in order to train students as professionals only. This is due to the country's need of highly skilled manpower. The oldest secular university is Chulalongkorn University which was founded by King Rama V in 1910 as a school for Royal Pages. In 1911 King Rama VI changed it into the Civil Service School and it was converted to a university in 1917. It is still the most prestigious university in the country.

In 1934, Thammasart University was founded by Pridi Phanomyong, the Prime Minister. At the beginning it was the university for political and vocational training providing for students of all backgrounds without the discrimination of qualifications. Later it contributed a large number of unemployed graduates especially within the field of law and economics. Then it was restricted in its intake as other universities.

Other universities are the University of Medical Science (1942), Kasetsart University (Agriculture and Vocational Science 1943), Silpakorn University (1953) and Sreenakarin Tharavirod (formerly Prasarnmit Higher School of Teacher Training, 1953

which includes 13 teacher training colleges in the whole country).

In attempting to meet increasing manpower requirements and to achieve a better geographically balanced economic and social development, regional universities were set up; such as, Chiangmai University (1964) which became the first university to be located in the northern province, then Khon Khaen University (1964) quickly followed in the Northeast and the Prince of Songkla University (1968) in the South.

There is an Asian Institute of Technology, situated in Pathum Thani, Bangkok. It accepts graduates from all countries in Asia for postgraduate courses in the fields of engineering, hydraulics, public health, structure, transportation and soils.

Despite the rapid growth of universities in Thailand, these institutions have not been sufficient to cope with the demand for higher education. A large number of students had to go abroad each year, particularly to Malaysia, Singapore, the Philippines, India, U.S.A., Canada and Europe. Then, in 1971, Parliament passed a bill to create an open university, named Ram Kamhaeng University. In the first year, the enrolment was 40,000 which almost equalled the number of students in all other 11 universities.

Thailand also has 6 Higher Institutions of Technology equivalent to university standard. Today the universities and the Higher Institutions of Technology are the responsibility of the National Education Council which was founded in 1959 by the Prime Minister's Office.

2. Admission Process:

According to the admission process, graduates from the two upper secondary education streams of Arts and Sciences, including those

of the upper vocational secondary schools, apply for examination to the National Education Council (NEC). Each student has the choice of applying for 6 faculties. Examinations are held in some 20 subjects, question papers being set by the relevant faculties of the university institutions. Each candidate is required to take 5 papers, choosing subjects in accordance with selected faculties (having stated the order of preference such as, 1 ..., 2 ..., 3 ...) to which he or she seeks admission. The selection is based on grades obtained in the different subjects and aims at directing successful candidates to the faculties for which their results best qualify them and to faculties in accordance with their order of preference.

A person who wants to go to a university must take an entrance examination, and regardless of whether he/she belongs to a rich family or a poor one, is a nobleman or not, if he/she cannot pass the examination, he/she will not be admitted. If students' families have money, the parents may send them to a foreign university. Bradley says that 'such competition in examination is a democratic element in the Thai social structure.'⁽³⁰⁾ It is an improvement towards equal opportunity.

3. External Factors determining educational opportunity at university level:

Although the admission process does not allow discrimination against students from any classes, students from good family backgrounds always win the places. Guskin studied students' backgrounds in Thailand universities in 1964 and found that 'the vast majority of the students came from families with incomes of less than Baht 5,000 and 58.4% came from families earning less than Baht 2,000 a month'⁽³¹⁾, these figures seem

high when measured against the per capita income of Thai farmers, who are reputed to earn Baht 500-600 per year.' (32)

The occupation of a student's parents is highly correlated with a student's chances of gaining a university education. According to Kraft's study of student backgrounds and university admission in 1968, 'he found that the child of a government official has a 268 times better chance of being admitted to university than does a child of a farm family. Children from families of manufacturers and industrialists have a 36 times better chance than a farm child, when compared with the relative proportions of the population.' (33)

According to the Report on the Joint Higher Education Entrance Examination, academic year 1973-74, the occupations of students' parents were proprietors (50.39%) government officials (24.99%), agriculturalists (6.84%), employees (6.84%) and others (4.5%). Breaking university entrants down according to geographic areas, the Report also indicated that residences of students' parents are metropolitan (40.07%), the North (12.15%), the Northeast (9.80%), the South (13.58%), the East (8.28%) and the West (7.83%). These statistics show that students from Bangkok had a better chance of entering the university than did those from other parts of the country. The urban bias begun in the elementary system continues at university level. According to Kraft's study, ^{the} urban student has a 25 times greater chance of getting into the university than does the rural student. (34) It is noticed that Kraft's study is ten years old and the situation has improved somewhat, but the basic pattern holds. Thus there is strong support for Kraft's conclusion that admission to

higher education is something which begins much earlier than the close of secondary school; that admission begins at birth, as the chances of a student receiving a university education are vitally affected by the family into which he or she is born, the area of the country in which he or she resides, the racial group to which he or she belongs, the student's sex, the economic status of the parents and a great many factors beyond the control of the individual.

Obviously, a person with a higher education qualification is greatly respected in Thailand so middle class and poorer families often make real sacrifices to educate their children. Pride in having a child in a university seems to exceed even the pride of owning a new automobile or a piece of land and house. In general, the parents of wealthy families will support daughters as well as sons to study in universities and 'it is found that the financial status of the girls' families is higher than that of the boys' families.'⁽³⁵⁾ The following table shows the women's enrolment figures have been increasing every year; it illustrates that Thai women have realized their rights to a higher level of education and to share opportunities with men; of course, they might have less opportunity than men in a comparison with the rate of enrolment, but in the near future, their enrolments may be ahead.

Thai women have not suffered sex discrimination within higher education because of the entrance examinational system. However, women's choice of subjects usually is different from those of most men. Women are most likely to be found in courses of arts, social science, education, business studies, politics and law

Percentage of Women in Thai Universities, 1961-73

Universities	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1973
Kasetsart	19.9	21.2	23.9	25.5	25.9	26.2	34.6
Khon Kaen	16.8	11.2	10.3	28.2
Chulalongkorn	39.8	38.3	41.1	42.1	44.2	43.5	49.2
Chiang Mai	46.7	52.4	53.9	46.0
Thammasart	20.9	21.1	21.9	27.2	26.2	38.6	41.5
Mahidol	48.4	48.8	46.8	48.3	50.4	49.1	55.1
Silpakorn	28.4	32.0	34.5	36.7	36.1	32.6	59.5
Total	25.7	25.9	27.0	31.7	33.6	40.4	44.9

Sources: Adapted from Richard J. Kraft, Education in Thailand: Student Background and University Admission (Bangkok: Educational Planning Office Ministry of Education) 1968 and Educational Report: Institutions of Higher Education, Office of State Universities, Office of the Prime Minister, 1973.

which will prepare them for careers traditionally regarded as feminine. Only few women are interested in engineering and sciences. It is not because of inability to gain entrance, but an attitude towards women's careers determines the choice of studies in university. Therefore, at professional levels, women are engaged with social services (teachers, government officials, social welfare officials and business managers) more than technical services.

Women are given reasonable opportunities for entering higher education. The Report also indicated in 1974, 41.44% (4,268) for women's enrolment and 58.56% (6,030) for men. The number of women enrolled is less than men due to their having no chance to pass an examination rather than to sex discrimination. Educated

women also seek for further education since postgraduate levels show an almost equal enrolment of men (560) and women (557) in 1975⁽³⁶⁾. This proves that the prospects of women in the educational system seem to be high and opportunity equals that of men at postgraduate levels.

Khattiya compared the opportunity of education at university level between men and women during a 6-year period (1969-1974), she found that women had more opportunity than men as the following table shows, 'that the increased rate of women's enrolment was 3.29% within a 6-year period but for men there was a 2.88% decrease ⁽³⁷⁾. This proved that opportunity for women to obtain higher education has been increasing.

Year	Women %	increased/decreased (%)	Men	increased/decreased
1969	30.91	+ 26.41	69.09	- 26.46
1970	57.32		42.68	
1971	37.01	- 20.01	62.99	+ 20.31
1972	39.06	+ 2.05	60.94	- 2.05
1973	38.36	- 0.70	67.64	+ 6.70
1974	33.72	- 4.46	66.28	- 1.43
Total		+ 3.29		- 2.88

It may be more realistic to look more closely at women's opportunity in enrolment for higher education, so the Thammasart University can be taken as an example showing the number of men and women enrolled in 1977. The following table identifies faculties of studies that women selected.

It is found the competition is highest for getting into the Faculty of Commerce and Accountancy because of the large number

Table of Undergraduates

Faculty	1st year		2nd year		3rd year		4th year		5th year upwards	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Political Science	106	59	87	97	114	94	43	93	28	15
Law	240	98	246	101	280	156	246	54	173	32
Economics	163	153	143	62	218	79	102	41	29	-
Commerce and Accountancy	184	207	289	459	157	237	143	169	17	21
Social Work	12	62	9	16	1	12	5	12	4	7
Sociology and Anthropology	19	22	2	6	1	-	7	6	7	5
Liberal Arts	105	328	12	77	18	89	15	153	8	13
Mass Communications	32	87	3	16	3	12	7	13	3	8

Source: Thammasart University, 1978.

of candidates in demand for employment in business, and women have occupied more places than men for many years. The Faculty of Law and Political Science had more men than women because being a lawyer is valued as a suitable career for men. But the Faculty of Liberal Arts and Mass Communication had more women than men. Usually, women enrolled in the faculties which can assure their employment. In general, women are more security conscious in jobs than men because of the scarcity of opportunities for them. The Thai educational institutions predict the students into the profession for which they will train. Women will become professional persons as well as men, in such positions as teachers, doctors, natural scientists, government officials and businessmen. In general, women can be accepted or employed in every occupational category, if they can prove their ability to handle that job and have the required certificates. Obviously, the majority of educated women work more with the government and business enterprises than with others.

Summing up, the investigation of women's education from its beginning up to today found that women and girls have been limited in their opportunities to be educated or to obtain higher education. Discrimination in women's education was not begun by educational institutions, but by parents and the social values accorded women's role. Regional discrimination also limited the educational opportunities of rural females and males. Education has been expanded primarily in towns and other densely populated areas, leaving young people in isolated areas to struggle with an illiteracy problem. The following table can be taken as evidence to confirm that rural children have less opportunity in continuing education than urban children.

School Entrance Figures (1972)

Number of Student Entering	Total	Urban	Rural	% Rural Enrollees
Enter: Prathom 1.	1,563,451	130,449	1,443,002	92.3
Enter: Prathom 5.	383,020	73,937	309,083	80.7
% Continuing from Prathom 4	40.2%			
Enter: M.S.1	225,494	56,459	169,035	75.0
% Continuing from Prathom 7	85.6%			
Enter: M.S.4	97,970	45,460	52,510	53.6
% Continuing from M.S.3	69.4%			
Enter: Higher Education	30,696	20,341	10,355	33.7
% Continuing from M.S.5	50.0%			

Source: The Ministry of Education

Problems of Education:

The following discussion analyses the problems of formal education which will induce adult educators not to repeat such mistakes. According to the MOE's conclusion, the problems of education are defined into four types; social, quantitative, qualitative and administrative problems.

1. Social Problems:

Rural people do not recognize education. A recent research project carried out by the Department of General Education discovered that '80% of rural parents did not know why they should send their children to school, except that it was the law.'⁽³⁸⁾ The children themselves also do not know why they have to go to schools so they drop out from schools at an earlier level.

Because of the poverty, the majority of rural people cannot afford to send children to schools. They also need a labour force from children to help work in farms. Particularly, girls are asked to look after younger sisters and brothers at home while parents are working in the fields. This situation causes the girls to leave school. Obviously, rural schools are attended by the children of relatively advanced peasant families.

Rural areas are influenced by urban-modernization with the growth of small industries, towns, new systems of marketing, transportation and cultural changes. But, only materialism results, the government has long ignored the need to remedy the rural people's quality of life, especially in upgrading their educational level and also in correcting the educational system. Children, who will make a living from agriculture, have to receive the same education as town or metropolitan children, who will work

in industries, so they decide to drop out when schools cannot adapt to their needs. In order to satisfy local needs, it is necessary to revise the curriculum and types of schooling. Rural people should learn about something relevant to their own ways of life and society. Rural schools should prepare young people to be qualified manpower in their own areas and prepare the individual for productive activity for the purpose of satisfying his/her desire for economic goods.

Obviously, Thai people are degree-conscious. Some boys and girls prefer waiting for re-entrance in the following year, if they cannot pass an examination in one academic year. Students from grammar schools usually refuse to enter a short-term training course of vocational school which may enable them to get a job in a short time. This creates an unemployment problem for young graduates. There is also the problem of the widening gap between expectations from schooling and the reality. More and more parents are pressing for their children to go to school and university to secure certificates so that they can obtain well-paid employment. But the number of available jobs is not growing at the same rate as that of graduates. Many students are found unqualified for jobs because it is the certificate that they value. If degree-consciousness still exists in Thai society, it will be extremely difficult to introduce a variety within the educational system and education will continue facing difficulty in producing qualified manpower.

In fact, it is difficult to provide education to satisfy rural and urban needs when several factors limit the possibility of developing education in both areas; such as, finance, staff,

equipment and social values of different sub-social groups. Also it may be hard to succeed in providing an equal opportunity in education for all citizens. One way it can be done is by providing adequate education to bring everyone to a given standard; no one shall be allowed to have education at less than a certain level which would ensure that they have adequate knowledge and skills to earn and to live happily in their own societies. Furthermore, they should also be provided with an opportunity to continue education whenever they wish. So the potential role of non-formal education or adult education cannot be ignored as a means of allowing people to retrain in certain skills and knowledge. Educational planning must be carried out comprehensively, embracing all levels of education to satisfy people in different social circumstances. In this way, inequality in education may be minimized.

2. Qualitative Problems:

There is a very great concentration on examination throughout the educational system with an end-of-year examination for each student in every grade. Fifty per cent is a pass mark which allows the students to be promoted to the next class. A final examination to evaluate the students' progress, particularly at terminal grade 7, 10 and 12, has used the same Standardized Test of the MOE for the whole country. Because of the students' desire for qualifications and the success of teachers, which is dependent on students' examination results, it appears that education at every level is very much a matter of learning certain facts. It does not exercise the students in questioning the teachers. The teachers usually devote most of their teaching

preparing students for examination questions, with consequent reductions in real learning. The students are also willing to accept every detail as long as it enables them to pass examinations. 'They are not encouraged to attain intellectual freedom or develop reasoning abilities.'⁽³⁹⁾ On the contrary, they are taught to be followers rather than leaders. This learning situation is not the same as for students in Western countries, where they are used to questioning teachers, to raising problems and discussion. For the Thai students, although they are full of questions, custom prevents them from asking teachers.

A major problem is that in Thailand education is a continuum from the elementary education level to university, so there is a very strong tendency for schooling and institutions at all levels to concentrate their efforts on producing qualified candidates for the next higher level. This is a world wide tendency: for schools to teach what is needed for acceptance into further education rather than what individuals in that particular level might need to know.

In a developing country such as Thailand, it is common to see that the opportunity in career of people is very closely related to the number of certificates and degrees obtained. So an individual may feel frustrated through having a lower level of education which makes it impossible to achieve better social status. Then the demand for continuing education may be increasing gradually. Adult educators should take this opportunity to organize some degree courses or certificate courses for those who need them as a passport to enter employment or as a ladder to improve their socio-economic status. However,

such courses must avoid duplicating the syllabus or curriculum of those schools and universities which have demonstrated their inadequacy in educating young people. They must provide a flexible knowledge to allow for local, community and individual differentiation and needs.

Another qualitative problem is the shortage of qualified teachers, particularly in rural elementary schools. The majority of teachers hold lower teacher certificates than a degree (B.Ed.). Teachers with a high degree would rather accept positions in urban schools because of good opportunities for promotion, status and security. In fact, Thailand has been facing an unemployment problem among teachers for many years, particularly in urban provinces. The MOE has attempted to convince teachers to work in rural schools by providing them houses and extra incomes. But teaching in rural schools is risky. Recently, teachers became a target of communists who believed that literacy is one of the obstacles to imposing communism upon the villagers. So they must get rid of teachers. Many teachers were attacked, kidnapped, killed. As long as there is no peace for them in living in remote areas, no one wants to risk his life teaching at rural schools.

3. Quantitative Problems:

The most serious and intractable quantitative problem is the very limited financial resources available for any type of schooling. The MOE has to discriminate in its supply of financial support; for example, the distribution of resources to schools in different parts of the country, and mostly the urban schools receive more in funds than the rural schools. In

rural areas, parents are persuaded to contribute money and materials to construct a small school for their children and they are willing to do so when they see schools provide some benefits for their children.

Although there are many organisations in Thailand providing formal education to the public, the majority of Thai people have only four years of elementary education and 'the average for the whole country is under six years.'⁽⁴⁰⁾ So it is necessary to encourage those who have a low level of education to improve themselves through informal learning or continuing education. Adult education co-operates with schooling to provide them with the kind of knowledge that they need.

The pressure to increase enrolment at all levels of education results in the MOE supplying all available resources for quantitative expansion leaving very little for the qualitative improvements that are needed. The pressure is due to the fact that the MOE is trying hard to eliminate differences in educational opportunity between urban and rural schools and between different regions of the country.

The rate of increase in enrolment has been accompanied by a rate of increase in educational expenditure in every year - and the future progress of education is also dependent on the increase of government revenues and the solution of the serious budget deficit situation. In reality, from the total budget money has been largely supplied for secondary education rather than for education at other levels. There are also the inequalities in per-pupil recurrent cost allocation between different levels of education; for example, to keep a student in university for

one year requires 15 times the investment needed to keep a child in elementary school up to vocational secondary school. When money is going to be invested in the high level of education, the low levels have to share the rest of the educational budget so they are unable to accept a large number of enrolments.

The examination of each academic year requires 50% of pass mark. If students are unqualified for this, they have to repeat the same class for another academic year or drop out.

Dropouts and repeaters have a significant effect on the costs of education. In some provinces up to 50% of children in grade 1 are forced to repeat and approximately 400 million baht a year is spent educating repeaters. It has been calculated that at present it requires 4.7 years of education for one pupil to go from grade 1 to grade 4. It also has been suggested that 'if Thailand introduces a scheme of automatic promotion in first-level school, instead of the examination system, about 300 million baht could be saved per year. This amount of money constitutes 10% of the total government educational expenditure in 1970. The introduction of an automatic promotion scheme would considerably ease the financial problems at present burdening the educational system.'⁽⁴¹⁾

The highest wastage rates of all exist in upper secondary education, with about 40% in private schools repeating grade 11, 20% repeating grade 12 and about 15% dropping out. In the government secondary schools the wastage is also high, with over 25% repeating grade 11, 10% repeating grade 12 and 15% dropping out. The reason for the very high wastage rates is that the reputation of schools depends more on the proportion of their

final year students who qualify for university entrance than on any other factor, thus, the schools tend to keep students back until they feel that they have a good chance of passing their examinations. Dropping out also can be a serious wastage of educational resources if students are not equipped with the skills, knowledge and understanding for which that stage of education is designed.

4. Administrative Problems:

At present, Thailand education is rather centralized than decentralized. Decisions are formulated in Bangkok and then passed out to the 12 educational regions. [For administrative purposes, the 71 provinces are grouped into 12 educational regions, each supervised by a regional education officer, provincial supervisors and district officers. Each region has the responsibility to adopt education better to fit local needs as well as geographical, occupational and cultural backgrounds found in a particular region.]

A serious problem is that of supervision as with only one supervisor for every three hundred schools, it is inevitable that the majority of teachers will feel very much on their own and will lack motivation to improve their teaching performance. It is realized that the need to increase the sufficient number of supervisors for overall schooling is necessary. However, it might take a long time to perform this task when the MOE is still faced with a shortage of manpower and funds to recruit supervisors.

Regional problems are also included. In the south, people have their own religion and language (the majority of Southern people are Muslim

and speak Malay). Quite a number of children do not go to schools. The Northeast also faces language problems. (A million Cambodian speakers and most of the rest of the population speak a regional dialect, Isan which is very close to Lao). So it is difficult for government officials who are original town people or from central Thailand, to speak or communicate in the local dialect. Sometimes, language problems and different social backgrounds also create difficulties in organizing education. Therefore, a new policy in education should include native people who hold teacher certificates to work in their own areas. They would provide more effective educational organisation and learning activities to satisfy local people than would officials from Bangkok, who may be unable to understand local people and their needs and demands for a specific type of education, because they are alien to such a society.

So far, the strengths and weakness of all the Thai educational systems have been discussed. Thailand needs to bridge the gap between tradition and modern technology, between the inequality of opportunity between the urban and the rural population, and also between females' and males' education. As education is seen as a means of bringing about social and economic development, a great effort will be needed to revise the formal educational system and other alternative educational systems must be applied into rural societies as adult education may help formal education minimize inequality in education of the urban and the rural population. It also may help to bridge over all gaps which are created by the formal education. It must be realized that solving the problem of education does not mean to make education reputed but rather how to meet the popular demand for education.

Education at a higher level must be made available to more people and at the same time it is necessary to improve all aspects of education both formal and non-formal. Particularly, education in rural areas must be of different types and provide different activities from the urban education. As the Conference on Education in Rural Areas comments that 'the range of educational activities in rural areas should normally be designed to meet the needs of the major groupings, membership of which overlaps. The need for a comprehensive rural development strategy requires that any plan for education and training in rural areas should be as well integrated as possible, with the maximum of operational co-operation among the various agencies involved.'⁽⁴²⁾ So co-operation is important to bring success to the application of education in rural areas. Finally, education must be a continuous process in order to encourage rural people to seek further knowledge throughout their active lifetime. In this respect, adult education is extremely useful and desirable.

CHAPTER II
THE EMERGENCE OF ADULT EDUCATION
AND ITS RELATION TO DEVELOPMENT

From a study of the past experience of the country, it was discovered that informal education or adult education had long been practised before formal education was set up. Thai adults learned harvesting, hunting, fishing, and domestic skills from the elderly. They also learned literary skills, literature, culture and home made medicine from the temple. It could be said that the temple was the first institution to provide adult education, especially for the villagers in remote areas.

By the time the absolute monarchy ended in 1932, the government had already taken an interest in adult education. The government of Poltree - Prahol Polpayuhayotin, the first Prime Minister who planned for the Thais to be under a democratic system, realized that many people were still illiterate. 'The national census 1937 revealed that 68.8% of the 10,000,700 people over ten years of age were illiterate (52.7% of males and 85.1% of females).⁽¹⁾ Illiteracy prevented men from having a proper understanding of their rights and responsibilities as citizens of a democratic society. Although the government had extended formal schools into rural areas for more than fifty years, it had not succeeded

in eradicating illiteracy. This situation needed an urgent solution and it was necessary to make a literacy campaign.

'Then on 23 December 1937, the government recommended that adult education should be under the responsibility of the state.'⁽²⁾

A policy on adult education was formulated and presented to the Parliament. The government appointed a National Adult Education Committee to plan and launch the literacy campaign.

Thailand introduced adult education under the state's responsibility later than some Western countries, so it is not surprising that adult education in Thailand has developed slowly and lags behind the Western countries.

When the Thai government accepted that adult education was a part of the state's responsibility, it was necessary to prepare qualified staff to cater for this task. The MOE was recommended to select qualified educators for administering adult education. They were provided with grants for study tour abroad. Some educators were sent to take degree courses in adult education in Europe or the United States. The MOE also recruited staff for working at the Adult Education Division (AED) which was established within the MOE in 1940. In the same year, the government decided to embark on a nationwide campaign to eradicate illiteracy. This was the first year that the government announced its adult education policies to the public. The government passed an Act of Compulsory Literacy for all Thais, stating that 'the illiterate adults must attend adult education classes.'⁽³⁾ In 1941, the first school for adults was set up.

The government also requested every ministry to give full support to the MOE in carrying out adult education programmes partly

through encouraging the rural population to participate in literacy programmes. Then, there was a movement in adult education amongst various ministries; for example, the Ministry of the Interior conducted literacy classes for prisoners and the Ministry of Defence opened adult education classes for illiterate soldiers. The government tried to encourage private schools to open evening adult classes for the public, but unfortunately this attempt failed.

At the beginning, the government used adult education as 'a tool to inculcate a sense of national identity and social cohesion'.⁽⁴⁾ This was related to the government's policy which needed support from people in order to bring real democracy to the country, which had just reformed its political system from the absolute monarchy to a democratic system, but the Thais lacked basic knowledge of parliament, democracy and civic responsibility. They were not used to living under the responsibilities of the government. As a result of this, adult education was used as a tool to help people to understand democracy through literacy classes.

Unfortunately, the MOE could not complete the literacy campaign because of the Second World War. The Japanese landed in Thailand and used the country as a military base to attack Burma. The war destroyed many prospects for education; for example, the Japanese occupied 200 schools for military activities so the children students and adult students could no longer attend schools. In fact, '68 schools were bombed and many were damaged.'⁽⁵⁾ Even so, the MOE did not give up its literacy campaign and insisted that other organizations should carry on literacy classes.

To enforce this policy, a Compulsory Education Programme for Adults was announced in 1943 as follows:

1. all members of civil servants' families, aged between 8 and 55 must go for literacy classes by the end of 1943. If they refused to do so, they would not get permission to live in the government's accommodation.
2. illiterate persons were forbidden to trade in schools and government offices.
3. the government made an agreement with the Buddhist temples not to allow illiterate men to be ordained. It also recommended that those who were living in temples must become literate persons by the end of 1943.
4. the government officers, who were concerned with education at district and provincial level must be trained in the method of teaching adults.
5. the village leaders, district and provincial officers must be trained in the method of organization of adult classes.
6. all police stations and municipalities must provide adult literacy classes for the public.
7. prisoners must be taught literary skills.
8. the Ministry of Defence must provide adult literacy classes for soldiers.
9. the Ministry of Agriculture and the Ministry of Commerce should force their staff and members to seek further education.
10. the Ministry of Industries should emphasize adult education for labourers and workers in mines and agriculture.

Furthermore, the government passed a law that 'everyone who was found illiterate after 1943 must be fined 5 ticals per head. Every head of a family must report to the district officers all the illiterates within the household at the beginning of each year. Infringement of this law incurred a fine not exceeding 50 ticals.'⁽⁶⁾

Because of the enforcement of the Act for the Compulsory Education of Adults, it was found that 'the literacy rate increased 20.49% within 3 years of the campaign (1941-43). There were 1,409,688 graduates'⁽⁷⁾ who were given certificates on the success of their studies.

The first effort of the literacy campaign was directed to remedying what formal schools had failed to achieve in teaching literacy and to provide an opportunity for adults who had missed elementary education. This made men and women believe that they could have the right to obtain elementary education and to be literate. But they might not co-operate with the campaign if they saw that it was not necessary to develop literacy skills and if they felt that they were too old to be educated. This was proved true. By 1943 people began to infringe and object to the law. If the government had made a more flexible approach with an emphasis on vocational training, the adults might have been delighted to come for adult classes when they saw what prospects and benefits they could bring them.

When the Japanese capitulated and peace was declared on 16 August 1945, adults showed a lack of interest in education. They suffered from the war and were faced with economic crises, inflation, a high cost of living and low agricultural productivity.

They wished mainly to increase their earning power. So there was a lack of belief in the need for literacy and it was impossible to motivate adults to come to literacy classes. The government also had to pay much attention to economic reconstruction. As a result of this there was little interest in developing adult education.

In 1946, the Thai government realized the immediate need for vocational skills of the majority of the people in order to succeed in economic development. It recommended that adult education should have three roles, firstly, to eradicate illiteracy, secondly, to improve the economy and thirdly, to create national security. It also announced that adult education was a key factor in national growth. The national aims for adult education were formulated as follows:

- to promote literacy skills.
- to promote occupational skills.
- to foster responsible citizenship in a democratic society.
- to improve living standards.
- to promote a more profitable use of free time.

To succeed such aims, adult education emphasized developing individual potentialities; for example, being a responsible citizen (refers to a person who should have an enquiring mind); is able to adapt to new environments, a thoughtful and creative person, sensitive, aware and participating in community affairs.

To produce such a capable person, it was recommended that the teacher of adult classes should know how to use effective methods of teaching and programmed learning to help the students to broaden their minds.

At the beginning, a curriculum for vocational adult education was designed by Dr. Frank C. Laubach of the World Literacy Committee for Christian Literature in January 1949. He wrote 'Two Readers' in Thai with the help of the local teachers and the villagers. He helped to set up two model centres, one at the Lad Yao district in Bangkok province and the other at the Chaw Haw district in the Nakorn rachasima province. The 'Two Readers' included 1,165 basic words and were used in these centres. It was expected that such words would help adults to master literacy within two months. This proved successful. Then, in 1950, the MOE formed the model subjects of vocational adult education to provide for the public in areas such as, trade, radio-maintenance, electrical work, mechanics, carpentry, sewing, house building, English language, photography, umbrella-making and mat-weaving. There were 962 adults enrolled for all subjects. Unfortunately, no available data reported the number of females' participation. This is common, the Thai officials always record the enrolment of both sexes without discrimination, so it is impossible to examine how far females were interested in vocational adult education in the earlier period.

The MOE confirmed its belief in vocational adult education as a tool to improve the economy. As Apai Chantavimol, Director-General of the General Department of Education (1953) stated 'vocational adult education provides skills and knowledge that adults could apply to make a better living and it also results in stability and wealth for the country.'⁽⁸⁾

Monkorn Promayotee, the Minister of Education in 1953 also said that 'vocational adult education can improve the necessary skills

of adults, enabling them to develop their abilities for the benefit of families and nations.'(9)

In 1954, the MOE formulated the following specific aims for adult education to help rural people 'to improve their living standard, to support development programmes for rural youth; and to extend public library services to remote areas beyond the reach of adult education centres.'(10)

Proposal to improve adult education:

In 1960, illiteracy was still high, constituting 32.03% of the 4.8 million people over 15 years of age (total population 26 million). The AED found that the literacy campaign could achieve an annual increase in literacy rate of only 2% every year. Therefore, the AED decided to increase its efforts for the development of adult education.

In 1962, the National Research appointed a sub-committee to help the AED to develop a more effective literacy campaign. Later the sub-committee made six recommendations:

1. the National Educational Reform Committee should be established to take on the responsibility of planning adult education programmes.
2. there was the complete absence of a body or an organisation to co-ordinate the whole field of adult education. So it was suggested that the AED should become a central co-operative office, to prevent duplication which occurred because each organisation developed a plan and applied adult education programme according to its own interests.

3. the government and the MOE should support private and voluntary bodies in running adult education programmes. It was time to co-operate to eradicate illiteracy.
4. Thai people still had inadequate knowledge of adult education so the AED should propagandize and advertise its advantages through the mass media.
5. No universities in Thailand provided adult education to the public. They specified their own role as academic training for professions only. The MOE and the government should insist that they organize degree courses in adult education and post experience training.
6. Hitherto vocational education had insufficient concern with the manpower need of the country. So adult education should concentrate on providing intensive vocational training which should be correlated with the National Economic Plan.

The sub-committee proposed these recommendations to the National Research in 1962 but because ^{the} bureaucratic system in Thailand is slow they were not approved until three years later.

In 1965, the AED thought it would be best to appoint committees to take the responsibility for reforming particular projects of adult education. Then, the National Educational Reform Committee of Adult Education was appointed. It had 5 sub-committees, one for each of the following projects:

- (1) functional literacy;
- (2) continuing education;
- (3) higher degree courses in adult education;
- (4) mass media and
- (5) other aspects relevant to adult education. Each sub-committee was able to specialize in a particular field which

would achieve the degree of adult educational development expected.

Since then, the AED has been able to bring together for discussion and common action a great variety of other bodies interested in adult education, listed here:

AGENCIES

National Council
of Women

Nursing Unit, Thai
Red Cross Society

Pan Pacific Women
Association

Thailand Professional
and Business Women's
Association

Peeraya-Nu-Krao Charity

Handicap Charity

Girl Guide Association

Banking Training
Schools

Office of National
Youth

Private schools

Thailand Rural
Reconstruction Movement

Christian Missionaries
and Peace Corps

American's Association
(AUA)

British Council

German Embassy

YMCA

PROGRAMMES AND ACTIVITIES

Community centres, recreation centres,
publishes journals, women's education,
child-care centre.

Community centre, voluntary
education.

Recreation centres, community centres,
volunteer training centres.

Recreation centres, volunteer training
courses, community centre.

Child-care training.

Vocational training.

Training in Domestic Skills.

Banking course (1½ hours a day)

Youth training, general education,
recreation and interest group.

Adult evening classes.

Community development programmes.
Youth training.

Literacy education and English
language.

English language (basic and intensive
courses).

English course for teachers of
English classes.

German language for the public.

voluntary education, youth clubs,
recreation centres, sports and
languages.

YWCA	Languages, domestic skills, sports.
Universities:	
Kasetsart University	Summer courses for agricultural training, nutrition, planting.
Chulalongkorn University	Spanish, Italian, French, English and Japanese languages, Sunday classes for illiterate adults from slum areas, philosophy courses, general laws and other courses organized occasionally and subsidiary subjects of adult education.
Thammasart University	Summer courses in general subjects for labourers, Sunday courses for adults.
Sreenakarin Tharavirote	Subsidiary adult education subjects leading to B.Ed. degree.
Silpakorn University	M.Ed. course of adult education.
Chiangmai University	Adult education course for B.Ed.
NIDA	management courses for officers from several factories.
The Department of Co-operatives	Business Co-operatives.
The Ministry of Health	Health education, providing mobile health audio-visual units tour the rural areas, broadcasting radio programmes for women on health, family planning, child-care and nutrition.
The Border Police	Organizes the village scouts and provides the members with social education and mobile education units.
Thai Seato Community Development Centre, Ubol	Training courses for officials and voluntary workers in community development in the Northeast region.
Islam Gurus	Continuing education and general education, vocational education for adults in the South.
Ecclesiastical Education Division, Department of Religious Affairs	Sunday schools, literacy classes for monks, recreation centres and publishes documentary.
The Ministry of Defence	Literacy classes for newly recruited for military training.

The Department of the Penitentiary	Literacy classes, general education and vocational classes for inmates.
The Department of Vocational Education	Mobile vocational training, vocational education for adults.
The National Cultural Council	Production of reading materials for neoliterates and new readers.
The Department of Social Welfare	Literacy and vocational training in women's rehabilitation camps and to the hill-tribes in resettlement stations.
The Department of Community Development	Community centres, recreation centres, agricultural training for farmers, youth training, child-care training and vocational training for women.
The Department of Labour Force	Worker's education out-of-school vocational training for unemployed youth.
Thailand-Germany Demonstration Centre	Agricultural training for re-settlement of inhabitants.
The Department of Industry	Home-industry, textile.
The Department of Agricultural Academy	Silk-worm rearing, mechanics.
French Association	French language for the public.
United Nations Women's Club of Thailand (composed of ladies connected with the United Nations agencies in Thailand)	Batik cloth printing, vegetable and fruit carving, flower-arranging, flower-making, cooking, crocheting, bridge lessons, special talks and games.

The government ministries and voluntary bodies concentrated mainly on providing adult education for rural people while the private agencies organized adult education for profit-making in urban areas. The private agencies found that in order to provide adult education in rural districts or villages, it was necessary to invest large amounts of money and that they must charge high tuition fees to cover all expenses. But it was very doubtful

whether rural people could afford to pay or regarded such training as necessary, so they tended to avoid playing a part in providing adult education for rural people. However, the greatest need for adult education is in rural areas. It is necessary for the government to assist the private agencies and to provide them with grants in the operation of programmes in rural districts.

As far as the development of adult education from 1937 to 1965 was concerned, only two aspects were much emphasized, literacy and vocational skills. This may be interpreted as arising from the past when Thailand was facing economic crises and had a high rate of illiteracy. So the first need for adult education was to concentrate on solving these problems. But, the country also needs to improve the quality of the life of its population in terms of health, sanitation, nutrition and living conditions. Adult education has to help the country to meet these needs. Various alternative methods are a possibility. The next chapter will show the development of adult education programmes which make an effort to overcome social, economic and political problems.

Philosophy of Adult Education:

The original philosophy of adult education in Thailand was to attack illiteracy and to support the government's policy. It was related to the government's indication that 'the success of democracy depends upon the level of literacy, the interest and the concern of Thai people.'⁽¹¹⁾ Recently, adult educators began to discuss applying the Lord Buddha's philosophy on learning for the improvement of the quality of life and happiness in relation to the aims of adult education. It could be said that the philosophy of adult education in Thailand has been changed due to the political situation, socio-economic conditions and

religious influences.

Although there is a great deal of discussion about happiness and the quality of life in Thailand today, nothing is recommended as a suitable teaching method which will achieve this happiness. Nothing is recommended as to the role of adult educators concerned with planning and making the programme a success. If there is a need to adopt the Lord Buddha's philosophy to be one major aim of adult education, it is necessary to examine how far the philosophy can introduce a new methodology in adult education.

Originally, the Thai philosophy of education was an offshoot of Buddhism which can be expressed through the model of a normative theory, (which may be called the Buddhist Philosophy of Education). Being of a normative nature, it consists of two parts: the content and the method.

The content: the Lord Buddha's philosophy suggests that the content of knowledge or subject taught should be based on 'individual and life cycle'. Taking his philosophy, 'man is considered as an aggregate of five components or simply as the five aggregates changing and moving from birth to childhood to youth, to old age and to death. Therefore, the nature of man's education is the development of all aggregates so that changes of all kinds, inevitable or otherwise, will be least painful and the accompanying suffering and miseries reduced to a minimum.' (12)

Someone might suspect why Buddhism values education as a tool to help people to achieve happiness. To make this point clear, it is necessary to explain the original idea of the Lord Buddha.

He called the obstruction of happiness or peace 'Dukkha', a Pali word meaning unhappiness, unsatisfactoriness or suffering. He stated that 'from the moment of birth, all through life and until the point of death, a person is bound to suffer. The body is subjected to illness, deterioration and old age.'⁽¹³⁾ So through the development of excellent health and physical fitness, a child may grow up into a youth without much suffering - this suggests the provision of knowledge related to physical education, health and recreation. He said also that the mind experiences all kinds of emotions both pleasant and otherwise, but more often than not, it is filled with desire for one thing or another. Death itself is considered as suffering, for no one wants to die. Each one wants to live longer and fears the darkness and unconsciousness which Buddha interpreted as death. To destroy suffering the mind must be cured of all ailments. To find the correct remedy, one must know the cause and its effect. He stated that 'men suffer because of three great sins, selfishness, ignorance and lack of good will towards others.' He suggested the 'Eight Fold Path'⁽¹⁴⁾ which is an essential part of the Buddhist's religion, in order to minimize suffering. The eight points are:-

1. right understanding through self-examination in relation to each of the experiences which one encounters.
2. right thought through examining one's own motive for feelings in regard to others - this requires sufficient detachment from the idea or event so that it might be viewed objectively.
3. right speech precludes saying anything that may be displeasing to others even though it may be completely true.
4. right action encourages action in harmony with the Buddha's thought and teaching - it makes excellent sense in the close community.

5. right livelihood requires that one's occupation be within the accepted area of earning one's living. It must be one that benefits all living things while avoiding harm to all.
6. right effort declares that constant practice is required for thought to result in the proper development. Thus one must learn to practise self-control, self-appraisal and self-discipline.
7. right mindfulness (state of mind) requires that one's total perspective of existence be in focus in daily life. This would permit the individual to relate all thought and actions to reality instead of to the illusions which dominate life.
8. right concentration provides sufficient means for the individual to gain insight with its resulting knowledge through deliberate concentration on a single subject. This concept has resulted in the development of several Buddhist schools of thought which utilize varying methods to achieve this goal.

These eight steps are not to be practised one by one, achieving in each one before moving to the next. 'Instead, they are all closely related and must be simultaneously and continuously practised.'⁽¹⁵⁾ Through the development of balanced mental qualities and understanding in order to complete the Eight Fold Path practice, a boy or girl may move through the period of youth or adolescence towards maturity without delusion.

Following the Lord Buddha's philosophy, the educational planners may emphasize the basic aim of education as developing the individual in terms of 'making him/her aware of the social ideals prevailing in the society so that he/she may become an effective citizen; emphasizing his or her capacity of thinking as it leads to effective understanding; and making an effort to achieve the moral and ethical development of individuals to encourage peaceful relationships among members of society.'⁽¹⁶⁾ The content of education therefore, must embrace a knowledge of social studies, the humanities, the moral and ethical, culture, arts,

health, physical and recreational education, vocational and professional education, mathematics - and other knowledge relevant to human life. Applied to adult education, such knowledge must be flexible and relevant to the adult's background and needs.

The Method: the Buddha's philosophy of education emphasizes two methods of education; (1) strategies of education, particularly the task of planners and (2) teaching techniques, emphasis on the task of teachers. These are key concepts that adult educators should consider.

Educational strategies are as points of emphasis necessary for the success of the total educational programmes; for example, (1) achievement in planning programmes depends on a very careful recruitment of experienced teachers; (2) achievement in administrative work is concerned with the characteristic of an administrator; he must have moral rule or disciplines (Sila) to maintain good relationships and to avoid chaos; deep thinking or meditation (Samadhi) which means being precise in plan, experimentation and evaluation; wisdom and understanding (Panna) which means understanding the matter concerned in order to arrive at an effective conclusion and to act in a wise manner. This suggests that the administrators should observe the social circumstances which may affect the plan and programmes, leading them to make decision wisely.

The Buddha's philosophy of education introduces three principles for teachers to achieve in teaching; (1) the individual is the main focus of learning activities and a designed programme. According to the Lord Buddha's instruction, individuals have differing potentialities for accepting knowledge. He compared

an individual's wisdom to lotus flowers; for example, some are blooming and grow over water to get sunshine, but some are dying under water because they are unhealthy. As individuals have differing abilities, a clever man will be able to accept knowledge and advance quicker than a man with low mental ability. This opinion suggests that all learning activities should respect the individual's backgrounds and needs. If the teacher of adults follows this instruction, the adult student will gain great success when she/he is able to learn something relevant to her/his ability. (2) The participation concept; it is generally accepted that the success of education is dependent on the learning method. In this respect, the philosophy comments on the practice of sharing, participating and co-operating among members of the learning group (which is called Saraniya - Thamma - the Aparihaniya Thamma) and among organizations. This concept suggests that the teacher of adults should introduce group-work, seminars, discussion, social interaction and social activities into adult education programmes. One should realize that 'man is a social animal, so effective learning is more likely to result from co-operation with others for shared purposes than from direct teaching.'⁽¹⁷⁾ (3) Motivation; the philosophy says, concerning the Kalama Sutta (free spirit of enquiry), that people like to seek knowledge because of self-consciousness. They are willing to ask for education because of their wishes, but not because of force. This suggests to the teacher of adults that he should use motivation in encouraging the students to have 'sutta' for such subjects or contents before beginning to learn. Individual adults need different learning and teaching methods from students in schools, which should be related to their

experiences. According to the Lord Buddha, he seeks knowledge and solutions through problem-solving methods. (He sets up hypotheses, beginning with a problematic condition, then, experiments and analyzes to find a solution). The Thai adult educators have agreed that this method is the most available to adult students in learning activities. At present, problem-solving is recommended as one of the learning processes applied in adult classes.

The Lord Buddha indicated 'happiness' as a final goal of life which can end up in suffering. This concept is adopted to be one of several aims of adult education today. Therefore, it is necessary for adult education to define in what aspects it could help people to reach happiness when individuals have different ambitions in achieving happiness. The following discussion points out several ideas which advise adult educators to make an effort to provide knowledge for helping people to achieve happiness.

Kowit Worapipat, the Director of the AED, who introduced 'happiness' as one of adult education's aims, defines 'happiness as the extent to which man and his environment are in harmony. Complete happiness can be achieved when there is no conflict between man and his environment physically or mentally.'⁽¹⁸⁾ He gives as an example of happiness 'a poor man who has not enough to eat is probably just as unhappy as a rich man who has plenty to eat but who is guilt-ridden or suffering from stomachache. Man will continue to strive until he reaches that equilibrium which can be found either by changing his environment or making an adjustment within himself.'⁽¹⁹⁾

For the Western points of view on 'happiness', Bergevin argues that 'if we are truly engaged in the maturity process, we do not live to work and make money or have a physician keep us alive merely to be alive, how to use money and our good health to enrich our lives. We use these resources, money and education to help us to live.'⁽²⁰⁾ If we can do so and are satisfied with what we are, then we will reach happiness.

Dave says that 'the idea of happiness is gaining more and more influence. Happiness in this connection could be defined as the full exploitation of all elements of modern life.'⁽²¹⁾

Knox points out that 'an indication of the success of adaptation and adjustment during adulthood is reflected in trends in the level of happiness during the adult life cycle.'⁽²²⁾ He defines adaptation as enabling one to adapt to shifts in aspirations, circumstances, problems and opportunities.

Burr also argues that 'happiness and morale depend on more than the individual's objective circumstances. For example, the number of material possessions is less associated with happiness than how the person feels about them. Satisfaction is a function of aspiration and expectation as well as accomplishment.'⁽²³⁾

When adults are unhappy because of the great discrepancy between their expectations and achievement, programme planners can help raise their satisfaction level by helping them increase their performance, reduce their aspiration, or both.

The level of happiness is, according to Knox, related to the extent to which individuals (1) feel emotionally secure, are accepting of self in general and when comparing aspirations with

accomplishments and lack cynicism, (2) receive acceptance and affection from others, (3) feel that they can influence desirable outcomes and lack a strong sense of powerlessness and (4) believe that life has meaning and that their values are sound.' (24)

However, the characteristics most highly associated with happiness include higher socio-economic status, greater self-esteem, better physical health and more varied social participation. (Maddox 1963, Cantril 1965, Wessman and Ricks 1966, Neugarten and Tobin 1968 and Bradburn 1969).

How can adult education bring people to achieve happiness? In the light of the discussions above, adult education should teach adults 'how to live a free and productive life with the ability to make a living and stay well. Equally important is the knowledge of what to do culturally and spiritually with life and talents.' (25)

Kowit cites adult education in Thailand as helping people to create their own harmony and to increase happiness by giving them some kind of knowledge to enable them to develop 'critical thinking'. It is a vehicle of harmony. At present, the development of critical thinking (called in Thai, Khit-pen) is included in specific aims of Thailand adult education, and problem-solving is recommended as a suitable learning method to develop a Khit-pen man.

It is expected that the individual who has mastered the process of critical thinking will be able to approach problems with the widest range of information on alternative courses of action, and be able to weigh the merits of each alternative based on his values and capabilities. When the individual can judge his

problems and is able to adapt himself within a certain or an uncertain situation, later he will know how to live happily.

To succeed in the development of critical thinking, it is suggested that all learning situations should focus on the immediate problems of the students, so the content of knowledge, activities and programmes must be upto date and flexible.

Particularly, if adult education wants to improve the quality of life of rural women, it must offer them an opportunity to share their own experiences and local circumstances. Thus, the nature of learning must emphasize practical work. However, one must realize that adult education cannot be expected to be used as a tool to develop the intellectual powers of individual students, but to lay the foundations of more intelligent citizenship as a Khit-pen man/woman. Relatively speaking, the philosophy of adult education is a means of introducing the teachers, planners and other bodies to more flexible attitudes towards programmes, teaching-learning methods and staff recruitment and perhaps the Lord Buddha's ideas on happiness, individual ability, the quality of life, participation and the content of knowledge are not too old fashioned to be applied to adult education operations.

Establishment of Regional Adult Education Centres, Lifelong Education Centres and the Ideas behind them:

From the establishment of the AED up to 1977, adult education was administrated through a centralized system which presented a number of difficulties when the plans, policies and instructions were issued from Bangkok down to the province and district levels. It showed up the rigidity of field operations and a lack of awareness of the needs and demand for adult education of local

people, especially of the individual. The new philosophy of adult education focusses on serving the individual's need with the necessary knowledge to enable him/her to improve the quality of life. But, as long as a centralized system still operates and influences the plans and policies for rural adult education, it may be difficult to apply this philosophy. The AED recognized that it is necessary to use a decentralized system for adult education and to have some sort of organisation at provincial and district levels with full responsibility for planning adult education programmes, able to respond to the direct needs of local people. In 1977 it planned to provide a decentralized system for adult education by setting up four Regional Adult Education Centres (RAEC) in Ubol province in the Northeast, Lampang province in the North, Yala province in the South and Rachaburee in the Central Plain. All four RAECs are under the jurisdiction of the Department of General Education, which supplies the budget, personnel and controls the overall functioning of these centres through the AED. Three reasons were put forward in setting up only four centred in the country; 'firstly, because there was a certain degree of social, cultural and economic homogeneity within each of the four regions; secondly, because available human resources were not sufficient for a larger number of centres; and thirdly, given the centralistic tendencies of the Thai educational system, it is pragmatic to decentralize and diversify by gradual steps.'⁽²⁶⁾

A decentralized system provides an opportunity for the four centres to offer adult education programmes which are more responsive to local needs and conditions. They are given full responsibility for running adult education projects directed towards their regions. It is also expected that they will make

efforts to investigate and design new types of programmes relevant to individual needs within the framework of the limited financial and personnel resources.

After one year, the four centres displayed several problems; for example, a lack of qualified adult educators and staff discouraged them from initiating adult education programmes to suit individual and local needs. They applied mostly various types of adult education which were indicated as models of Central Bangkok for operation in their regions. The lack of self-confidence discouraged them from risking failure in applying new types of programmes. The central authorities onus still influence the implementation of adult education. Another problem was that each RAEC was responsible for many provinces, districts and villages so it was not possible to explore or thoroughly investigate individual and local need.

When demand is great, each RAEC needs some assistance from local committees, village leaders and power groups of the region, especially for an organization to share responsibility in implementing adult education programmes. In 1978, the AED helped each RAEC to establish 'Lifelong Educational Centres' (LECs) at the provincial level, in order to assist the RAEC in organising adult education adapted towards local provinces. The idea of lifelong learning was behind the establishment of the LEC. The AED planned to encourage rural people to seek knowledge throughout the life cycle. The LEC would be an organisation to promote lifelong learning for local people.

In practice, many persons are involved in designing adult education activities at the LEC; for example, the provincial

committee consists of the Provincial Education Officer Head, the Head of the Provincial Supervisors, representatives from adult evening schools, the head of LEC and three supervisors. Village committees consist of local leaders and volunteers. The LEC recommended that all activities must be approved by the villagers through village committees who have the authority to accept or reject the services of outside agencies, but if the services are accepted the committee must comply with the regulations of the agency involved. That agency will also have the authority to supervise such activities; however, the village committees will have the power to discontinue the services of the agency if and when it so desires.

The RAEC, Provincial Educational Office and other agencies will provide technical assistance, particularly in the form of materials, equipment, in the training of village committee members, in sending volunteers to work in the village and in running specific adult education programmes or sending rescue teams to deal with specific problems, but they will not control the administration of the LEC.

Although the LEC is a new approach to rural Thailand, it is expected that it will be able to serve the needs of the target group and to encourage rural people to seek knowledge applicable to their own life cycle. It enables individuals to take advantage of a diverse choice. Its task will be accounted as a case study which will be discussed in the next chapter.

The functions of the LEC are:

1. to organize adult education classes or develop individualized instruction programmes in functional literacy and skill training.

2. to act as centres from which radio listening groups can be organized (radio correspondence in adult education is used as a vital tool to educate the rural population).
3. to act as centres from which interest groups can be organized and to serve as recreational, cultural and community centres.
4. to provide learning - exchange services for individuals by putting them in contact either with teachers or with fellow students with similar interests.
5. to serve as resource centres for the surrounding area through the provision of library and audio-visual services and to hold exhibitions and displays of follow-up materials for various educational and developmental programmes.

In 1978, there were 77 LECs in the whole country. The facilities available in each rural LEC will also vary according to local conditions and the ability of the local population to support the centre. The AED recommended that in general the LEC should initially consist of at least a small library, a reading room and a meeting place. As the LEC grows, additional facilities can be added such as a radio listening area, recreational area or classroom. At best, adult education in Thailand has reached the threshold of the idea of lifelong learning. People can fulfil themselves throughout their own life cycle. It is one of many efforts to enlighten rural people and to awaken them to the need for continuing education. It is hoped that illiteracy in rural areas will now decline rapidly.

Administration:

Adult education programmes are administered at each level of educational organisation throughout the country; for example, at the village level, the District Education Officers (DEO) and the Provincial Education Officers (PEO) are given the responsibility for most of the control of the projects. The DEO assists the PEO in selecting the site of operations, the

location for adult classes, for making surveys of the number of illiterates in the village and for enlisting the support of local people.

The 12 Education Regional Office (ERO) provide teacher training, supervise, evaluate, conduct research and serve as co-ordinators between the AED and the ERO.

The AED controls the administration of the projects and co-ordination of its technical aspects with the supervising unit, which is in charge of supervision, teacher training, research and evaluation.

To make adult education relevant to the environment and culture both in urban and rural areas, experts and consultants are required to supervise and to give advice to the adult centres. But the AED still meets the shortage of supervisors for all centres, particularly for supervising the projects in remote areas. The number of supervisors is few, due to the lack of qualified adult educators. The Report of 1976 indicated that adult education programmes as a whole had only 64 supervisors with different qualifications, as shown in the table:

By Qualification	Number of Supervisors
Doctor's degree	-
Master's degree	7
Bachelor's degree	24
Non-graduates	23
Total	54

Source: The Ministry of Education, 1976.

The number of supervisors remains the same at the present time. It seems that the shortage of supervisors of adult education is not regarded as an immediate problem to be solved. In fact, the inadequate number of supervisors discourages the progress of adult education when teachers do not know whether they are teaching in the right way and when they have no counselor with whom to discuss their problems. Obviously, many teachers are ignorant of improved learning-teaching processes relevant to adult students. They teach adults as they teach students in schools. When they are not supervised, they will carry on teaching inadequately.

The shortage of supervisors provides an overload of work for individuals; for example, six supervisors work for the central office in Bangkok, two supervisors work for the RAEC and 56 supervisors work at provincial offices. Eighteen provincial offices have no supervisors to work with. All supervisors have the responsibility of making reports to the AED on administration, techniques and problems connected with adult education projects.

Personnel Requirement, Status and Training:

Two essential requirements for any system of adult education are: firstly, the need for qualified administrators and staff to run the centres; secondly, the need for teachers and leaders available to adult centres.

National Staff:

According to the AED's figures in 1976, there were 1,246 persons engaged in adult education organisation at the AED, as shown in the following table:

By Qualification	Officers	Teachers	Resource Persons	Total	% Per cent
Doctor's Degree	-	-	1	1	0.08
Master's Degree	-	9	6	15	1.20
Bachelor's Degree	1	26	18	45	3.61
Below Bachelor's Degree	381	804	-	1,185	95.11
Total	382	839	25	1,246	100.00

Source: The Ministry of Education, 1976.

The problem of the AED is one of a shortage of staff with advanced degrees; few have specialized training in the adult education field. Another problem is the shortage of teachers which causes an imbalance with the number of schools for adults.

It has to be recognized that a country newly establishing its system or adult education will not be in a position to staff all the divisions of adult education immediately, or to make adequate provision in every particular simultaneously. Suitable people will have to be found and trained for the work and it will take time to do this.⁽²⁷⁾ However, reducing the problem of the shortage of teachers can be done by recruiting part-time teachers and volunteers to take charge of the projects.

In reality, it is difficult to estimate the number of teachers required in the adult education field, because adult classes can employ volunteers as part-time and full-time teachers. Formal schools can estimate the number of teachers recruited by estimating future student enrolments. But the adult educational planners may encounter the problem of predicting the demand for adult classes or enrolment, when adult education is extended to

all age groups from 15 and over and for a variety of occupations. There is a view among the Thai adult educators that it is possible to estimate the number of teachers required in adult schools by waiting up until adults enrol for a particular course or programme which indicates the number of teachers required and their qualifications. The AED has no stock of people ready educated in the adult education field, so it may be difficult to supply qualified teachers for classes until the planners know what types of courses are needed by adults.

Requirement of Provincial Staff:

The AED has estimated 122 staff to work for each RAEC. This is based on financial resources to recruit staff and also adequate manpower to deal with adult education operations at each centre. The table on page 87 shows staff categories.

There is a need for administrators to co-ordinate the non-formal education and adult education with the four RAECs, the LECs, and other agencies. The AED estimated 57 persons to work at the co-ordination sector, as shown in the table on page 88.

Part-time staff and teachers:

There is the reluctance among school teachers to act as adult educators in rural areas because of the difficulty of travelling, the overload of work, unattractive work and salaries and the absence of opportunities for promotion. To overcome the shortage of teachers, the AED uses key persons in the villages to act as resource persons and co-ordinators, because it is now realized that any proposed educational scheme which is aimed at a rural audience requires the interest and co-operation of the most influential leaders within each village. Recent experience also

Staff Category	Administration Unit	Research & Development Unit	Materials Production Unit	Training Unit	Operation Unit	Radio Unit	Total
Administrative	6	1	1	1	1	3	13
Professional	-	10	-	4	12	9	35
Technical	4	1	3	2	11	-	21
Clerical	2	2	2	2	4	6	18
Employees	26	-	3	-	4	2	35
TOTAL	38	14	9	9	32	20	122

Source: The Ministry of Education, 1974.

Staff Category	Sub-Division	Loan Office	Regional Centres	Radio Correspondence	Total
Administrative	2	3	2	2	9
Professional	-	-	8	18	26
Technical	-	-	2	1	3
Clerical	1	2	4	9	16
Employees	1	-	-	3	3
TOTAL	4	5	16	33	57

Source: The Ministry of Education, 1974.

has shown that some people can become effective teachers without extensive formal training in adult education. With respect to rural Thailand, the key persons are:

1. The Wat Committee, which is of extreme importance in community development programmes. Particularly in rural Thailand, many monks favour more active involvement in social activities and development. They naturally play a leadership role in the community. Monks who have been under orders for many years attain high prestige and are able to influence secular projects in community development. There have been a number of efforts in different parts of the country to motivate monks to participate in adult education activities. Others who are included in the committee are senior persons. They are more prestigious than others in the village. They also have influence over the young villagers' behaviour and social activities. So they can help to organize adult education and to integrate it into religious activities. They may help in group learning and survey local needs for the adult centres.

2. The School Committee: the local teachers are generally important members of the community. Their prestige derives from their influence in children's education, their status as government officers and their own advanced education, so they can help by acting as part-time teachers of adult classes and supervise group learning. But it must be realized that local teachers may be unable to take part fully in adult education activities when they are administratively under the authority of the MOE who demands from them a heavy workload. Nevertheless, if the teachers and the school committees are willing to accept their role in adult education, it is an advantage. They may

help to operate a community centre in the school area and persuade parents to meet for educational activities.

3. The Village Committees are usually established as part of the policy of different centres, in an effort to operate the programmes which the officials cannot personally supervise and to create genuinely functioning groups such as Village Community Development, Land Co-operative Society, Farmers' Association and Reading Centre Committee. So adult education planners may use these groups to act as middlemen to promote adult education and to publicise activities in the villages. These groups are also able to support and to provide grants to adult education which the planners can make use of.

4. The Village Headman usually acts as the formal leader and maintains contact between the villagers and the officials.

'Thailand has some 50,000 villages (Mhuban), each of which elects a village headman (Puyaiban). These villages are combined into 4,926 communes (Tambon). Each commune consists of 10 villages with a commune leader (Kamnam) who is chosen by the village headman of the particular commune. The average commune is a political or territorial combination of villages rather than an economic unit.'⁽²⁸⁾ The village headman is potentially in an influential position because he holds a position of authority and is often a relatively wealthy and educated member of the community. He is usually elected by the villagers. There is a condition that any male between the age of 21 and 60, who is neither a monk nor a civil servant and who has lived in the village for at least 6 months, is eligible.

Obviously, the headman is the most influential person. He is

respected and his advice is listened to. So through him, adult education can benefit; for example, he helps to survey the needs and demand for adult education in his village, he arranges a target group, to search for a local experienced man to act as a voluntary teacher and he can compel the villagers to contribute money and labour for educational purposes. It is said that, because of his influence, the villagers are afraid to refuse his requests.

5. Village Volunteers: Jacobs comments that the key persons for helping in the development of village community in rural Thailand are the multi-purpose village-level workers.⁽²⁹⁾ They are usually working for the community development project. So they are specialists and have a basic knowledge of subjects essential to the villagers. They have a prime responsibility for 'identifying the village's natural leadership and to help them to become the truly representative and productive force in accomplishing village tasks.'⁽³⁰⁾ So adult educational planners can ask them for co-operation to assist in surveying the villagers' needs and the demand for specific types of programmes. They can also bring adult educators in close contact with the villagers.

Specialists are also required to act as volunteers and resource persons for a particular subject; for example, health persons, district doctors, members of women's cultural associations, youth clubs, farmers' organisations, grannie midwives and community development officials.

If the AED is able to work in partnership with those key persons, benefits may accrue to adult education in several ways, for

example, firstly, in reducing capital investment when local resources are an available mobility; secondly, in creating self-development among the villagers so that they are able to use their own human and material resources for satisfying the needs of lifelong learning; thirdly, they help to collect and survey the needs and demand for adult education programmes and provide very useful data to assist the programme planners in making effective plans to satisfy local needs.

Attitudes towards a career in adult education:

Although there is a movement to use these key persons to act as part-time adult educators, the shortage of teachers and staff still exists. This problem occurs because of the absence of an attractive career structure in adult education. As Coles says 'the career prospect for those wishing to work in adult education is far from satisfactory. There is a widespread feeling that if you want to get to the top of the educational profession as a whole the only safe route is by working up through the formal system.'⁽³¹⁾ In Thailand, a teacher of an adult class is regarded as having lower status, slower promotion prospects and as having a more difficult task than a formal school teacher. Teachers see adult education as teaching illiterate adults to read and write, so it is not an attractive career to those who hold advanced degrees or certificates. Some teachers do not understand what adult education is. In reality, most teachers in Thailand have been trained to teach students in formal schooling only, so the lack of academic confidence in the adult education field discourages them from taking part in teaching adults. They do not regard adult education as sufficiently

prestigious. At professional and administrative levels, they feel that the responsibility for adult education is disproportionate to their post. Thai educators still have the ideas that adult education is a general field of knowledge and that anyone can be involved whether he or she is qualified or not. As a result of this, adult education in Thailand is in the charge of unqualified people who have never received any formal training in adult education. It is seen that adult education cannot fully achieve its objectives. One way of overcoming this failure is for the government to establish a satisfactory salary scale and career structures which enable competent employees to rise to the top of his or her chosen profession in adult education and also to encourage teachers to pay more attention to the task of adult education and become more involved in this field.

The lack of qualified staff is due to the scarcity of properly trained persons involved in an adult education career because universities and teacher training colleges pay little attention to the operation of the degree course for adult education. Another reason is the lack of adequate finance and resources which is the main barrier to extending and improving adult education, particularly in recruiting a sufficient number of teachers.

Training Staff:

Aspects of training adult educators and teachers are:

1. Essential attributes of teachers

Teachers of adults should be sufficiently qualified in the subject taught and must be sufficiently ahead of their students in order to teach them with confidence and understanding. It is necessary

for them to know about teaching methods, the psychology of adults, the philosophy of adult education and the social backgrounds of adult students. The AED usually provides pre-service training to newly recruited teachers of 5 to 7 days or 25 to 35 hours.

Orientation is arranged for new teachers and staff to understand the philosophy of Thailand adult education. Full-time teachers are usually allowed to have intensive training courses of 6-12 months' duration at universities, teacher training colleges or adult education centres.

There is a high demand for teachers of adult classes. Consequently many part-time teachers are completely unqualified. So training courses for these persons should consist of further guidance and refresher courses in the short period which is available to them.

2. Essential training attributes of the administrators

Administrators of adult education should have a thorough understanding of the aims and principles of adult education and of educational planning and finance. It is also necessary for them to know the fundamentals of sociology and possess a knowledge of teaching methods appropriate to adults in case they are needed to supervise the classes. Training programmes for them are usually provided on different terms; for example, the RAEC organizes short workshops, seminars, conferences, refresher courses, apprenticeship training and in-service training for such persons involved in adult education. Senior staff and administrators are regularly sent to study abroad for a Diploma, M.Ed., M.A. and Ph.D. when scholarships are available. Upon completion of their study, they will not only serve as key persons

at the centres and the AED, but will also assist local universities to develop adult education degree courses. The next table shows a projection of future posts for graduates from abroad. Some staff and teachers of the AED and centres are also allowed to study subjects relevant to adult education at universities or teacher training colleges inside the country, with paid leave.

To gain the desired number of persons involved in adult education, the AED should provide grants to students in the teacher training colleges and universities to encourage them to take adult education as a major subject and the AED also offer them posts. It is necessary to improve and emphasize the attractive career prospects to encourage young people to enter the adult education field.

A necessity is to provide a few useful skills for the village leaders and committees which will enable them to motivate the villagers to participate more in adult education activities. Information on adult education facilities should be included so that they can give guidance to those seeking details of what is available. The RAEC has the responsibility to conduct training courses for them. Usually all activities are of a practical nature and are concerned in community development. If there are more than 150 people who need training in a particular field at a particular time in any one region, the RAEC will train the trainers and send them to instruct these people at the provincial or district level. Types of training at the RAEC are usually given as shown in the table on page 97.

Long Term Training Requirements for Specialists

No	Field	Level	No. of Trainees	1974/75	1975/76	1976/77	1977/78	1978/79	Duration	Suggested Countries	Future Post
1.	Adult Education with specialization in programme development	Ph.D.	4	-	2	2	-	-	27 months	U.S.A.	Chief of Research and Development Units
2.	Educational Research with specialization in programme evaluation	M.A.	4	-	4	-	-	-	9 months	U.S.A.	Researchers in Research and Evaluation Unit
3.	Adult Education with specialization in curriculum and material development and adult psychology	M.A.	4	-	4	-	-	-	9-18 months	U.S.A. England	Programme Development specialist in Research and Evaluation Unit
4.	Adult Education with specialization in vocational programme, curriculum and material development	M.A.	4	-	4	-	-	-	9-18 months	U.S.A. Germany Holland	Programme Development Specialist in Research and Evaluation Unit
5.	Rural Development with specialization in education aspect of development	Ph.D.	4	-	4	-	-	-	27 months	U.S.A. England	Chief of Operation Promotion Unit
6.	Mass Communication for education purpose with emphasis on radio correspondence	M.A.	4	1	1	2	-	-	9-18 months	U.S.A. England	Programme Officer in Radio Correspondence Unit
7.	Development of Radio Programmes	M.A.	3	-	3	-	-	-	9-18 months	U.S.A. England Australia	Subject Specialists at Headquarters

Residential and Training Activities
of Regional Adult Education Centres

Type of Training	Length of Course	No. of weeks per year	No. of Course
Correspondence Tutors	1 wk.	1	1
Correspondence Group Leaders	3 days	1	2
Residential Correspondence Participants	1 wk.	4	4
Functional Literacy Teachers	2 wks.	4	2
Skill Training Teachers	1 wk.	2	2
Supervisors and Administrators	1 wk.	2	2
Second Chance Teachers	1 wk.	6	6
Long Term Volunteers	4 wks.	4	1
Student Volunteers in Vocation	3 days	2	4
Listening Group Leaders	3 days	1	2
Staff of Urban Lifelong Centres	1 wk.	1	1
Committee of Rural Lifelong Centre	1 wk.	1	1
Annual Lifelong Centre Meeting	1 wk.	1	1
Board Meeting	1 wk.	2	2
Librarian Training	1 wk.	1	1
Mobile Unit Animators	1 wk.	1	1
Short Problem Oriented Skill Course	2 wks.	6	3
Other Agencies Training	n.a.	10	n.a.
Total		50 wks.	

Finance for Adult Education:

FISCAL YEAR	EDUCATION BUDGET	FORMAL EDUCATION BUDGET	ADULT EDUCATION BUDGET	PER CENT BASED ON EDUCATION BUDGET
1969	4,039.00	1,367.80	13.47	.33
1970	4,604.80	1,752.90	15.15	.32
1971	5,191.10	1,789.10	22.55	.43
1972	5,543.50	1,957.90	28.89	.52
1973	5,592.50	2,111.20	34.40	.57
1974	6,930.70	2,439.80	59.03	.58
1975	10,059.00	3,484.90	82.32	.81
1976	12,991.02	4,204.76	123.71	.94

Currency, million of Baht.

- Sources of information: 1) Planning Division, Under-Secretary's Office.
 2) Planning and Evaluation Sub-Division Adult Education Division.

Between 1969 and 1974, total expenditure on education was not high, but during 1975 to 1976 the amount doubled to 12,991.02 million Baht, and in 1978 the education budget was increased to 16,293 million Baht. The growth of adult education expenditure was also increasing but not very rapidly, in comparison with the growth of the formal education budget.

During the third Five Year Plan (1971-76) various organizations were asked to project the most rapid possible expansion in educational activities. It was found that one of the priority areas in the plan was the expansion of adult and non-formal education. Thailand has been active in promoting a policy of lifelong education, and non-formal education has been regarded as a necessity, especially as it has a low cost of investment. The

AED studied a project of non-formal education with regard to enrolment, cost per adult student, cost for teachers, expenditure of unit costs per library, per audio-visual unit and per class. From these totals, levels of expenditure could be calculated and the budget was granted by the government which was increased from 123.71 million Baht in 1976 to 234.7 million Baht in 1978, it totalled almost double the previous budget. This showed the great interest in adult education and non-formal education of the government and its recognition of the increasing public demand for education and the urgent need to upgrade the skills and knowledge of the whole population.

The AED also receives aid from USAID, mostly in the form of equipment and vehicles. The World Bank provides financial support for provincial adult education centre establishment of 100 million Baht per year. The World Education Organisation gives financial support to pilot projects, workshops, seminars and other programmes outside the regular budget from the government.

A certain amount of money is collected from adult students for tuition fees. Significant fees are charged, varying from 240 Baht to 480 Baht per year. About 15% of its total expenditure is derived from free revenue.

Co-operation:

Forty-eight adult education organisers have conducted programmes for staff and the public (SEAMES Report 1973). Some of these have organized functional literacy for the out-of-school population and have acted independently, without referring to the work of other organizations. Consequently duplication of subjects has regularly occurred; for example, health and nutrition were

organized by both the Women's Association and the Department of Social Welfare. The MOI and the AED provided the same courses in second chance adult education. In-service training was mostly given to its own staff. Outsiders could not join. It is obvious that organizations, whether government or private agencies, appear to be insignificant in relation to each other and isolated from each other.

Co-operation is necessary to solve the problem of duplication and wastage of money and to help improve the programmes. For this purpose, in 1971, the National Committee on Adult Education (NCAE) was formed with representatives drawn from the Ministries of the Interior, Education, Defence, Agriculture and private agencies.⁽³²⁾ The committee has a duty to set up policies, principles, plans, objectives and methods of following up, evaluating and researching adult education programmes. The current activity of the committee is to survey and advise the arrangement of those programmes. It is not a permanent institution, but it is called when problems need to be discussed.

In practice, co-operation rarely takes place. There is evidence from interviews, that many private agencies and government officials have complained that they do not co-operate with the AED and other ministries because those organizations are reluctant to supply educators and experts when requested. So the NCAE must act to solve this problem and inform organizations not to think that other adult education programmes are of no concern to them or are not their own business. They should determine to devote themselves to working in close co-operation with and assisting other agencies, otherwise adult education in Thailand will never reach its ultimate goal.

Statistical Report 1975

Population in 1975	41,869,000
Female population	20,841,000
Population in age groups of 16-55	20,603,000
Female Population	10,257,000
Population, completing elementary education grade 7	2,001,800
Female population	819,400
Population, completing secondary education grade 12	242,300
Female population	83,300
Population, completing vocational education	359,700
Female population	140,000
Population, completing the first degree at university level.	107,600
Female population	38,700
Population, in receipt of earned income	14,683,800
Female population	6,598,300

Women in Economic Active Labour Force (in thousands):

	Women	Men
educators	268.5	351.5
administrators	14.7	171.5
clerks	166.0	187.7
traders	1,206.7	690.2
farmers	3,344.2	3,850.9
transportation services	43.7	561.4
skill workers	1,237.7	1,909.9
services	333.6	323.5
others	.9	2.7

CHAPTER III

FACTORS RELATING TO ADULT EDUCATION,
WITH REFERENCE TO SPECIAL NEEDS OF RURAL WOMEN

This chapter examines social backgrounds, the socio-economic status and problems of rural women, and of the country in general. Such information is available to adult educators in diagnosing needs and in making effective plans for adult education among rural women.

General Backgrounds:

Thailand, formerly Siam, is centrally located in mainland Southeast Asia. She is surrounded by nations recently emerged from colonial rule, but she has never been colonized - because of the outstanding leadership of the Chakri dynasty (from 1768 to the present) and it was also a practical need for a buffer state between the British and French colonies in the area.

Thailand covers an area of 514,000 sq. km, about as large as France. The total population in 1972 was 42 million; density was 170 persons per sq. mile or 69 persons per square kilometre. The country is divided into four regions: the Central, the North, the Northeast and the South. The following table shows the population of each region and its area.

Region	Area (sq.km)	Per Cent	Male	Female	Total Population
Central	103,579	20.1	5,258,410	5,353,467	10,611,877
Northeast	170,226	33.1	5,970,284	6,054,856	12,025,140
North	170,006	33.1	3,750,610	3,738,073	7,488,683
South	70,189	13.7	2,144,558	2,127,116	4,271,674

Source: Statistical Handbook 1974, pp.1-3.

The central region is a great plain in the heart of Thailand and is economically the most prosperous. It is irrigated by the Mae Nam (Chao Phya (River)) on which Bangkok, the capital city, stands. It accounts for the greater part of the country's rice growing. The income of the farmers is fairly good. Population in Bangkok 'constituted 2,183,011 males and 2,068,420 females in 1975.'(1)

The Northeast is the largest region in area and has the largest population with the lowest standard of living. The plateau is isolated from the rest of the country by its mountainous and densely forested western and southern rims, named the Dong Phraya and Dong Rak, which are barriers to communication. This region is unable to produce crops effectively due to its inability to make effective use of the substantial water resources available. The farmers have to earn extra income from handicrafts and rearing animals. The region is facing serious problems of the high rate of population growth, malnutrition, a high number of school leavers, youth unemployment, migration and communist infiltration. It is an area that adult education has to play a great part in helping to minimize such problems.

The North is 'a mountainous area with many large fertile plains suitable for growing rice, teak, soya bean and tobacco.'(2). It faces a serious problem of the increasing densities of population on presently cultivatable land but the rate of crop product output is low because of backward technology and drought. Its industrial development base is dependent on agricultural raw materials, without them, manufacturing opportunities are severely limited. Chiangmai, capital of the region and the second city of Thailand, has a population of 1,026,450 (518,391 males and

508,059 females in 1974). Local people earn a living from home crafts, lacquer ware, porcelain, silverware and textile weaving. The north faces the problem of raising the educational level of the people. Young people tend to drop out early at the primary level, and the majority of students are unable to continue their education beyond the fourth grade. This constitutes a severe handicap to development in the rural areas.

The southern region runs down to Malaysia and has achieved the cultivation of typically equatorial lowland crops such as rubber and oil palm. The marketing of rubber, mining and other commodities constitutes the country's second most important source of foreign exchange. The standard of living is high. This region includes 'one million Malays who resist Thai assimilation and whose main cultural contacts are with neighbouring Kedah and Kalantan in Malaysia.'⁽³⁾ The majority of Malays want to separate the southern region and unite it with Malaysia. This causes a political problem of the country today.

National Income is dependent on four principal products: rice, rubber, teak and tin. Rice is the main export. It is said Thailand can truly claim to be rice bowl of Asia. Many countries, such as Japan and the South-East Asian countries import Thai rice. Recently middle-eastern countries have become the chief importers of rice produced in Thailand.

Age and Sex Distribution:

Thailand's population is young; the median ages for the whole kingdom are 17 and 19 years. In 1970, 45% of the population were under 15 years of age. Only 3% were under 65 and were actively participating in the labour force.

A comparison of the overall sex ratio showed that there were slightly more females than males; the sex ratio in 1976 showed 97 males per 100 females between the age of 15 to 34. About 45% of all Thai females are in the productive age of 15-49. When over half of the population are females, it could say that they are an important element in the labour force of the country and they are also expected to play an equal role to males in economic development.

Marital Status:

The median age at marriage of Thai men is 24 and of Thai women 21 (see marital status of the population 13 years of age and over, by age group and sex, Table 29). Generally parents wish their sons or daughters to settle down with a family after being matured by experience of work or after completing formal education at a certain level; usually at grade 10-12 and university level if possible. Thai people see marriage as an honourable symbol of a couple, who must obtain the consent of parents or relatives. Blanchard says that 'marriage in Thailand is considered a social improvement for men and women. Traditionally, a young man is not allowed to touch a girl before his marriage to her; such an action is regarded as tantamount to expressing a desire for sexual relations and extremely immoral. Social dancing does not involve bodily contact; the Western style of dancing adopted by the sophisticated young people of Bangkok is considered shocking by the villagers.'⁽⁴⁾

It is a practice in rural areas that the bridegroom gives some presents or a dowry to his bride before marriage. The status of a woman is dependent on the value of the dowry or payment;

such as, a lump of silver, land, clothes, gold or diamond ring or necklace. Marriage costs a lot of money, so it is said that Thai men feel reluctant to re-marry. The percentage of divorce in 1970 on the whole appeared quite low, about .17%. A recent survey found that more persons enter into marriage at a younger age in the countryside than in the cities, and at a higher age in Bangkok - Thonburi. This is related to the number of years that a person spends in schooling. The person, who has low level of education, tends to marry at a younger age so it could be assumed that quite a number of people in young age groups in rural areas includes housewives. This suggests to adult educators that adult education may be needed in terms of household management and family planning by young housewives.

Household: Family Income: Land Holdings:

Household size in Thailand tends to be large, the average 5-6 persons per household. Thai people love to stay together among their relatives. The young Thais give honour to their elders and accept advice from them. Parents are able to fulfil their roles as generous patrons of their children by giving them land. Children acknowledge their debt to their parents and elder siblings for their care and protection, and look after aged relatives. Apart from their own lands, the rural parents may be unable to give other properties to their children because of poverty and a lack of cash in hand. In 1973, Statistical Reports revealed that 40% of all households were poor; the average income of each household, according to regional differences, was as follows:

Rural farmers

Central region	15,816 Baht
the South	11,179 Baht
the North	11,076 Baht
the Northeast	6,890 Baht

Urban Bangkok - Thonburi
(municipal areas) 24,353 Baht

The northeast rural families are the poorest; on the average each family earns about Baht 580 per month. The poor have to survive by primitive subsistence methods in crop growing, hunting, gathering food in the forests, scavenging and doing odd jobs for irregular wages. Because of the poverty, it is impossible for their children to reach secondary education.

Although the majority of the population are farmers, they do not hold large areas of land; 'almost 50% have holdings less than 2.4 hectares (15 rai)^{in area} and only 5% have 10 hectares and more. Holdings of less than 10 rai are regarded as belonging to the poor classes. About 0.5% or 60,000 farmers are landless.'⁽⁵⁾ Recently, the average size of farm holdings has declined somewhat and tenancy has increased, which affected the farmers' security. Where tenancy exists, the usual terms and conditions of tenancy are the one-year oral contract; which may be renewed, with rent payable either in cash or in kind. Payment in kind is much more prevalent; it amounts to about 50% of the crop, the tenant furnishing work animals and implements. Payments in cash are highest in the northern region on the productive double cropping. High rents, insecurity of tenure and lack of assurance of compensation for improvements are likely to reduce the tenants' incentive to improve the land or buildings. Some 80% of farmer

families were in debt in 1976. Twenty-two families in the Mae Rim district, in Chiangmai the North were interviewed in March 1978; they claimed they were in debt due to the need to buy fertilizers and insecticide, and another reason was money needed for their children's education and food expenses. Often when they cannot pay the rent, they may simply leave the villages and migrate to other provinces. It is predicted that in the near future, unemployment among rural farmers will rapidly increase because of the fragmentation of farm holdings and the absence of more new jobs in agriculture.

Although the government in 1973 helped the farmers by establishing the Bank for Agriculture and Agricultural Co-operatives to lend money direct to farmers, past experience proved that the farmers were reluctant to accept new ideas such as agriculture credits. They preferred accepting from the middlemen who offered them money at their villages rather than travelling to town for discussions on loans with officials at the Agricultural Bank. It was also found that the farmers' groups were not active in co-operative activities. There was a discrimination among members of the co-operatives; the wealthier farmers were given privilege. This caused a wider income inequality at the local level and created rifts in the traditional society.

The Kukrit Pramote's government launched two projects (from October 1974 to April 1976) to help poor farmers, (1) a decentralized control of rural development funds and (2) a provision off-season employment in rural areas. Equal sums were given to each of 5,023 sub-districts (tambol). The allocations were 3,500 million Baht, or 600,000 Baht per tambol in 1976, and will be 2,500 - 488,185 million Baht in 1985. Later,

it was found that the injection of cash revealed many of the weaknesses and a few strengths of the formal and informal structures of administration and control in rural areas.

Kroekkiert criticises the 1975 scheme of those projects that 'they encouraged corruption, cheating and embezzlement, and for destroying the co-operative spirit and encouraging capitalist relations within villages. The local influence of members of the well-to-do peasants and junior official classes tended to determine the nature of the projects and frequently were prominent in other ways.'⁽⁶⁾

The rural development project may not fully be achieved, if the persons who run the projects are corrupt and selfish. It is necessary that the farmers must know how to control corruption among the leaders of the co-operative groups. To do so, it is essential to have educated farmers to lead the farmers to fight for their equality in being served or helped by the co-operative groups and to get rid of corruption. If the majority of farmers are educated they will be able to help the government in controlling the administrative affairs of the local co-operative groups, thereby assuring success for the rural development project.

The government realized the significance of this when they gave up the two current projects in 1977 and brought volunteers to teach rural farmers in an indirect way a knowledge of the local government, co-operatives, credit unions and marketing. 7.8 million people were employed to launch the voluntary labour programmes and the Summer Community development project. The government contributed 545.07 million Baht to this scheme.

Decision in household affairs:

In practice, there is no specific seat of authority in a household either in urban or rural society; the husband and wife have authority over the respective sections of the household. He supervises field while his wife engages in family affairs. As the official data of the NCWT (the National Council Women of Thailand) revealed 57% of 749 women respondents claimed they shared the same responsibility and decisions for family affairs, 38% of respondents said only wives took decisions and only 3% claimed that their husbands took decisions alone.⁽⁷⁾ This result showed that rural women have shared their responsibility with their husbands and are not in a completely subordinate position despite some inequalities between men and women. As De Young comments regarding the position of Thai women in rural areas, 'the social position of the Thai peasant woman is powerful. She has long had a voice in village governmental affairs. She often represents her household at village meetings when her husband cannot attend. She always does the buying and selling in the local markets. Through their marketing activities, Thai farm women produce a sizeable portion of the family cash income, and they not only handle the household money but usually act as the family treasurer and hold the purse strings. Control of family finances by rural women is possibly even stronger in urban regions where a money economy is more intimately involved.'⁽⁸⁾

Rural Thai Society: has had relatively few organisational bonds compared to urban society. The only other important focuses for social life are the local temple and the village school. Both of these have provided opportunities for social advancement to the villagers. Buddhism dominated their way of life, they

respect and follow the Lord Buddha's disciplines; for example, providing food to the monks every morning, having the belief of doing 'merit or goodness', or giving food and other things to the poor or to wanderers. The twenty-year old men have to be ordained for three months at least and stay in a temple practising religious activities, learning the Pali-Sanskrit language and morals. Some daily activities and critical events of village life also require religious services; for instance, birth, marriages, divorce and deaths. The villages have limited recreational facilities. The most common forms of recreation are visiting relatives and friends, cock fighting, fish fighting, bull fighting, gambling and some celebrations. Reading books, newspapers and sports are not popular leisure activities.

Problems of Rural Women and of the Country:

Several problems of rural areas and of the country are related to women's roles and characteristics. Women may be the cause of the problems or may receive a reflection of the problems of others. This section examines all major problems and the needs of women in order to find out an effective solution, especially to apply adult education for attacking those problems.

I. The problem of population growth:

The secular decrease in death rate, which amounted to 0.54% in 1976 and an increase in life expectancy to 64 years for women and 56 years for men have contributed to the acceleration in the rate of population growth. 'In 1975, the population growth rate was 3.3% and according to the project of family planning application, the rate fell to 2.5% in 1976.'⁽⁹⁾ If Thailand does not take account of the urgent problem seriously, it is predicted, 'the number of population will be double within 20 years, estimated at 117 million in 1997.'⁽¹⁰⁾

The Pearson Report says that 'no other phenomenon casts a darker shadow over the prospects of development than the staggering growth of population.'⁽¹¹⁾ It is true, the high rate of population growth affects demography, poverty, unemployment and educational expansion. It threatens the overall development of the country when natural consumer resources are limited. 'The government finds it difficult to create the social and economic conditions needed to preserve the vitality of the lives so saved and to feed them, educate them and provide them with employment.'⁽¹²⁾

The population growth rate in Thailand affects the growth of unemployment among the young age groups, who at the age from 15 up to 19, are accounted as the chief labour force of the country. (estimate 44.72% or 19 million in 1976). Economists forecast that at least 9 million new jobs should be created between 1970-1985. It is quite impossible to develop industry sufficiently to hope to offer new employment in this scale.

In realization of the effects of population growth, the government has made a new population policy to reduce the birth rate (see population project in tables 30, 31); but this seems achievable only in urban areas which family planning programmes can reach easily. The rural areas still continue to produce a high birth rate, especially in the areas of needy families in the labour force.

Recently, Thai economists planned to slow down the rate of population growth; firstly, using the birth control and family planning approach; secondly, the developmentalist approach, which stresses economic development is being improved because the reduced fertility rate is increasing employment to both

sexes in the labour age. Women are encouraged to extend their participation increasingly in the labour force and to prolong the years of education. Adult education is recommended to give instruction about birth control in combination with functional literacy programmes and to provide vocational training for people who are in the labour force age, particularly skill training for women.

Attitudes towards the number of children:

It could be judged that women cause the high rate of population growth because of the attitude of having children in the family and the ideas towards new treatment of birth control.

Particularly, rural women need to have a large number of children to help in farming and household work. At Mae Rim district, 22 interviewed housewives out of 27 claimed that they prefer having between 4-6 children to help them in gardening and farming, but they worry about the shortage of schooling in their village which will affect their children's education. In contrast, some women in towns nearby seem to want only 3-4 children as a maximum. According to the NCWT in a socio-economic survey of 20 villages in the North and Northeast, 1,272 rural women indicated their reasons for having the number of children as shown in the following table.

Women respondents who were satisfied to have more than 4 children claimed the reason was for earning (48, 58, 59%). Figures also reveal that poverty and lack of inheritance determine women to have only two or three children.

Recent survey of the Institution for Population and Social Research on 'the work and fertility relationship' found that

Reasons	Number of Children (%)						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	over
Can support	73	90	90	74	34	23	18
Warmth			1	1	3		
To help in earning		1	3	16	48	58	59
To look after parents when they are old		1	1	5	10	15	14
Because there is no inheritance to provide children		5	3	3	1		
Others	27	3	2	1	3	4	9

Source: The NCWT, Thailand, 1977.

unemployed rural women have had the smallest and non-farm women have had the largest number of children ever born as shown in the following table:

Parity Distribution of Sample and Mean Number of Children Ever Born by Current Employment Status, Rural Thai Women, Age 15-44 (1972)

Current employment status	Parity			
	0-2	3-4	5-6	7+
Non-farm	25.8	25.8	25.8	22.5
Farm	28.7	27.4	23.2	20.7
Not currently employed	36.7	28.4	16.7	18.3

It shows that work status does not inhibit fertility, because women who are non-farm tend to have a high birth rate. In the whole country, Thai women maintain an average of 6.5 births in the time it takes to complete the reproductive cycle.

Critically, it is quite difficult to convince rural women to accept birth control when they need many children for the family labour forces and to help earn supplementary income. Another powerful motivating force against birth control is religion. Rural people are religious. They believe in demerit (Bap), which will accumulate throughout life and is reborn into a new form; angel, demon, human or animal that appears in hell or earth in accordance with the quality of the Kama (making sin). Birth control is regarded as a kind of sin and since people are afraid to get Bap they may reject birth control. In accompanying the Mahidol Medical College to instruct about family planning and birth control in villages and the hill tribes of the North, the writer observed that the villagers were not interested in this project. They did not understand why the authorities persuaded them to practise birth control. They were also afraid of having a new medical treatment. This problem needs to use motivation through showing a good example of a family who benefits from having few children. Films, slides, posters and leaflets must be shown to demonstrate to rural women and to tell them that they have nothing to be afraid of. In addition, there must be acceptance of modern treatment for birth control or family planning among rural women, which can only be based on trust of the science of medicine. Personal experience, especially the experience of friends, with the treatment is also a lesson for others to accept or to refuse the treatment. Another important point is the family planning knowledge must be integrated into the syllabus to educate young people to realize it is an obstacle to have an excessive rate of population. It also must be part of the teaching in adult classes to rural women, particularly housewives.

Blake and Davis argue that nowhere has economic development alone or birth control programmes alone lowered fertility. They point out that only by paying close attention to the complexity of social life can national population problems be attacked.⁽¹³⁾

For example, the employment of women outside the home constitutes one of the most likely sources of desire for small families.

Alternative satisfactions and rewards, including financial rewards, are offered by the role of workers to women. They will realize a better life if they have only a few children to look after.

Suppose the population growth cannot stop and gets out of control, there should be development in other ways, for example, expanding work and wages for the growth of population and preparing qualified training for young people to enter the labour force. Therefore, adult education must play a part in preparing skilled workers as well as formal education by providing vocational training needed in industry and agriculture.

Education can be one of many factors to help delay births and to reduce the population growth. The level of educational attainment may delay the age of marriage; for example, in Thailand students do not end their university degree until up to age 22 to 25, then, they look for careers and marry afterwards. So the level of educational attainment has a strong effect on fertility.

Maurer's survey on 'Fertility and Labour Force Participation of Thai women' also supports such an idea.⁽¹⁴⁾ She recommends that changing levels of men's and women's schooling has substantial effects on completed fertility levels among older women. Schooling for women is linked to higher fertility in the 25-29 age cohort but substantially lower fertility at later

ages. Increased education among women may also marginally reduce the proportion of women married, but it may not affect the size of the female non-agricultural labour force significantly. The tendency for women to occupy non-agricultural jobs also appears to be largely a function of the local structure of industry and the level of female unemployment. These labour market variables for women also have a pronounced indirect effect on fertility and the timing of marriage.

At present, alternatives to marriage become more attractive, women at the margin will postpone, reject or terminate marriage; labour force participation opportunities encourage women to delay marriage. Schooling might have the same effect, directly for the young women who may continue studying instead of marriage. But the percentage of delayed marriages may be seen as high among urban women who are offered higher educational levels. Rural women have less educational opportunity than urban women so the likelihood of marrying is still high and it may be difficult to use education as a process to delay fertility in rural areas. Nevertheless adult education should attempt to extend the marriage age of rural women by organising second chance education for young age groups and for school leavers. In this way, rural women increase educational opportunity and may want to have some sort of training for a certificate for employment instead of getting married after leaving schools.

II. Illiteracy Problem:

As has been mentioned in Chapter I, women in older age groups constitute a higher rate of illiteracy than those in young age groups. At present, illiteracy is still one of the major problems which needs an urgent solution. In 1975, illiteracy was

claimed to be 16% (out of total 26 million population from 10 years old and over) in the whole country and it is projected to be 11.30% in 1980 out of total 30 million population of this age. In Thai education, illiterates are counted as those who have never been in schooling and those who have completed an elementary education but later have fallen back into illiteracy because of the lack of follow-up knowledge and regular communication with others by writing messages.

Illiteracy causes many problems. It tends to resist change and constitutes a real obstacle to economic growth, population control and improvement in health. Illiterate persons are unable to respond to the facilities which are created for them. They become backward and lack the self-confidence to accept new innovations and new knowledge. As Euwadee recommends about the belief that food and diseases are dependent on educational attainment, 'because of their low educational background, the mothers are prone to accept dietary information from any source and this information may be false or inaccurate.'⁽¹⁵⁾

A case study of Wichai on the Problem of Nutrition Programmes in Soong-nern district found 250 village women (80% of respondents) had a strong belief in forbidden food for the mother during the U-fai period (recovering after having delivered a baby by lying down near fire to gain energy and to make her uterus strong and clean), only rice and dry fish are proper for the mother.⁽¹⁶⁾ Some rural women believe that meat causes illness and a poor memory in children. Vegetables give children upset stomachs. Eggs and meats are forbidden to children 1-6 years old because they will cause parasitic infestation and tooth decay. This is true that illiterate women lack understanding of

the problems of their immediate environment; for example that food advertising can influence their decisions on food choices. They easily fall under the dominating power of advertisements. However, there is not only the problem of health and nutrition, illiterate mothers face the problem of incompatibility or mental imbalance with their children, who are now more advanced than them.

For many reasons, illiterate women in rural areas need help from adult education in broadening their knowledge of health, nutrition, child-care and domestic science in order to make a home physically attractive and comfortable. Adult education should also motivate illiterate women to an interest in things which happen outside their own areas. Nevertheless, literacy teaching is necessary, illiterate women require a basic knowledge of reading and writing. Illiteracy can be reduced if adult education provides a comprehensive service in terms of remedy and compensation for illiterate women.

The Economic Role of Rural Women:

In a developing country such as Thailand, education is regarded as a passport for entering the modern economic sector, and an indication of educational level is also necessary as a means to get oneself a well-paid job and position. The value of a degree or certificates motivates Thai people to be ambitious in their educational attainments. Since Thailand education is a competitive system, women from good family backgrounds receive better opportunity in education and occupations than women from poor families. The professional level or other superior careers are always occupied by the privileged groups. As earlier mentioned, rural women are disadvantaged groups, they have no educational background beyond a secondary education to provide

them adequate skills for employment, so their careers are always limited to certain types such as unskilled workers and domestic servants. Although they have low educational attainment, they have played actively a great part in the labour force, according to official data in 1970, 83.4% are engaged in agriculture, 6% in commerce, 3.7% in manufacturing and trade, and 5.4% in services. (17)

Rural women earn a living more from agricultural activities than other careers. They always share the work with men in farming. Then economic development in rural society has motivated them to earn their own income outside the home. Some women earn with small-scale businesses on their own account or produce goods for sale or for trade at nearby markets. They are increasing their rate of participation in production or other activities because they can easily combine the care of children and domestic duties with work in small businesses located in the family dwelling. Obviously, they open a small food shop, dressmaking shop, beauty salon shops and small newspaper shop.

The career cycle of women differs in several major ways, regarding the relation of satisfactory performances, age, physical characteristics and educational attainment. As a result survey of the Mahidol University Institution of Population and Social Research on 'the labour force participation of rural women' found 'age and duration of marriage are significantly related to current employment status; the rate of labour force participation at age 30-44 is 92.4%, comparing with 87.5% at age 15-29; these age differentials in participation rate are reflected in the age structure of the employment status groups. The non-employment women are the youngest with over half (54.2%) under 30 years of

age. A similar relationship is seen for duration of marriage and work; women of longer marital durations perform a higher proportion of work in non-farm occupations.' (18)

Adult education may need to consider the types of women's occupations in non-farm or in farm working, including age-group differentials in order that it is able to effectively design training skills to meet the need of women in a particular occupation.

The labour law of 1973 indicated that Thai women earn wages equal to men's and the maximum hours for industrial work should be 48 per week, but women may not be employed in work of a dangerous or strenuous nature between 2400 hours and 0600 hours, except in shift work. In Thai society, it could be said that the wages of males and females are dependent on educational certificate levels, inequality of wages between the sexes is not seriously practised, except in the unskilled labour force where males may receive higher wages than females because of their greater physical strength.

The majority of Thailand's labour force is unskilled who have little economic power and there are no trade union leaders among them. The majority of workers are poor, when they have some conflict with the employers they dare not to strike and live on their own money during the strike action. The labour organisations also cannot provide enough funds and other benefits if the workers remain on strike. There has also been a social barrier against employees sitting down and talking problems over on an equal basis with their employers. The workers are poorly

educated and feel socially inferior. Particularly, the women workers fear to express their needs and are afraid of becoming unemployed if they criticise their employers. For example, recently the women workers at the Taiwanese-owned standard garment factory, went on strike in June 1975 for an increase in their miserably small wages, they were attacked and injured. Every time the workers strike, the employers win, it is said because the workers lack knowledge of trade unions and the labour law to bargain with the employers and also do not have power against the employers. So they are always the losers, oppressed and cheated. Their problems need help from adult education. The workers need to be taught knowledge of trade unions, labour law, the rights to claim for wages, training for trade union leaders, knowledge of interrelationship between work and family, skill training and sex discrimination in employment. Before organizing skill training courses for the workers, the adult education planners may consider the types of workers as criteria to design a programme of training. For example, the economists in Thailand define many types of labour force which should be given different levels of education suitable for future employment as professional and technicians, semi-skilled workers and unskilled workers.

Professional level is assumed to require four or more years of university training. Technical level requires two or more years at the post-secondary school level. From experience during the last ten years, less than 20% of persons in the professional level completed a university degree programme. This suggests the need for more universities to train people to fill the ever-increasing high-level manpower shortage, particularly in professional, technical and administrative positions.

The major responsibility for this task is undertaken by universities, and adult education may share the responsibility by preparing post-professional experience training or organising a specific training scheme for those professionals who want to complete a degree programme. If possible, Thailand should have a department of extra-mural studies for professionals.

The middle-level manpower consists of persons who are engaged in farming, fishing, hunting, logging, the craftsmen and production process workers. These people were found to lack educational attainment beyond lower secondary level - which represents some of the serious middle-level manpower deficiencies. Adult education is needed to play a role in this level through providing re-training or re-education in skills needed.

The manpower project on 'secondary education' proposes that unskilled men need less than 10 years of schooling and they are the least significant in terms of meeting manpower needs and it is not necessary to provide them with retraining or re-education in formal school. This is unfair, the unskilled workers should not be limited in their educational opportunity. In this case adult education may have to pay more attention to this group; if it wishes to bridge the gap of educational inequality. These people may need a second chance education, short-term or long-term vocational certificate courses, in order that they can use certificates as a passport to enter the higher level of manpower categories. In comparison, they may become the majority clientele of adult education programmes rather than other groups who are already offered educational opportunity by formal schooling.

Youth Unemployment Problem in Rural Areas:

In 1970, the total of unemployment appeared high in young age groups of 11-19 (males = 17,722, females = 18,893). These figures were referred to those young people who were looking for work and waiting for the farm season.

In 1972, the rate of unemployment increased to 85,470 out of 16,214,960 persons in the labour force in the whole country, and in 1974 it increased to 103,740. The highest rate of unemployment was found in rural areas within the young age groups of 15-19 and 20-24. Among females, more rural females (22,050) were unemployed than urban females (9,490) and male unemployment in rural areas was also high (50,370) but less in urban areas (21,830).

Overall manufacturers and industries throughout the whole country are unable to employ all the graduate students when the country's industrialisation is progressing at a slow rate. But education produces over demand of manpower for the industrial sector. As a result of this, it creates a competitive system among young people and only few candidates are given job opportunities. For example, the enrolment figures at the secondary and vocational levels in 1970 were 700,300. These figures were supposed to be equally distributed into the 6 grades so it was assumed that 1/6th of the total enrolment ($1/6 \times 700,300 = 116,717$ students) would pass out each year from 1972 to 1976 to be absorbed in the non-agricultural sector. According to the data presented in the Third Plan, the labour force engaged in manufacturing and industry was 18.99% of the total labour force in the non-agricultural sector. Therefore, only 22,106 graduate students would be offered

job opportunities ($\frac{18.99}{100} \times 116,717 = 22,106$). The rest would risk unemployment or getting into other labour force sectors such as agriculture, services and construction.

Youth unemployment and under employment have caused a wastage of the country's human resources and led to the problems of crime, juvenile delinquency, poverty in the slums and economic stagnation of the country. (19)

The Unesco Seminar on 'Rural Youth and out-of-School Education in Asia' discussed the problem of out-of-school rural youth 'as victims of underdevelopment, of slow or stagnant economic growth, in other words of deprivation and poverty, and the failure of economic planning and development.' (20)

The Thai government has made great efforts to solve the problems of youth unemployment by expanding the rate of employment in other sectors, such as agriculture, services and manufacturing. The Third Plan indicated an expansion of new employment opportunities in rural areas totalling 2,071,000 but only 515,000 in urban areas, but the expansion of job opportunities into rural areas presents one of the most challenging problems to the economic planners, since those young rural people are unqualified in skills and have low levels of educational backgrounds which do not satisfy employment conditions in the modern sectors of the economy, when entering manufacturing or industrial sectors in Thailand requires educational experience of at least a secondary education or vocational secondary certificates. So it is an urgency to prepare the out-of-school youth to qualify for new jobs. It needs an expansion of educational capacity, especially vocational training of long-term duration for youth

who are too young to work, or short-term training for youth who have experience of working but need to re-train for further skills.

Recently, there is a belief in some circles in Thailand that increasing educational opportunities in rural areas can raise employment opportunities. One must realize that rural people are unable to afford to continue higher education because of social and economic deprivation. Although the government has an expansion of vocational schools or agricultural schools for rural children, parents still cannot pay tuition fees. The geographical barrier, to travel from a village to go to a school situated in other towns, is also stopping the children's ambition to go to school beyond a primary education. Another reason is there are not enough jobs in rural industries to absorb a large number of rural youth who need to earn a living by industrial work, so they may see education unavailable to them. Nevertheless, educational opportunities are important. The rural youth should be provided with two ways of learning: first, education outside school for school leavers and education in school for those young people who can afford to go on with their education at a higher level.

In rural communities the greater need is to improve socio-economic conditions so educational programmes for out-of-school rural youth should be conceived as integral parts of a total rural development programme, and aimed at raising the quality of life in the rural areas. Such education is best undertaken in terms of non-formal education or adult education which brings them face-to-face with the immediate context of life and action of work.

The Unesco Seminar recommends the education for rural youth should account an environmental orientation as the main characteristic of both the substance and the methods applied in out-of-school programmes; what is taught and practised in such programmes should stem from local needs. To determine the need a priori is useful in micro-planning in providing it a seemingly rational basis for deciding which need should be given priority. It also results in programmes which focus on a single objective or need.⁽²¹⁾ The differences in the needs of various age-groups should be taken into account. For example, 'programmes which concentrate on occupational training tend to overlook the learning needs of the youngest; i.e., the 10-15 year age-group, who have to be given educational experiences to compensate for the basic schooling that they may have missed.'⁽²²⁾

Certificates could play a part in widening the appeal of out-of-school programmes. They may serve one or more of the following purposes: serving as evidence of stability and enterprise in finding employment or obtaining credit; giving the participant a sense of accomplishment and satisfaction and finally, functioning as a link to the formal school system, particularly in the case of school equivalency programmes.⁽²³⁾ Certification is one of the incentives that renders rural youth willing to join new programmes when they see the benefits of having qualified certificates for earning.

Special Needs of Out-of-School Women and Girls:

The discussion above refers to educational needs of youth of both sexes. But females may have special needs of a different nature from males, especially when they have to cope with dual roles; housewife and work outside home. The Unesco Seminar

suggests that educational programmes for females should be sensitive to women's roles in the family and society. Females should have opportunity to participate fully and equally in the social, economic and educational activities of their community. To reach this goal, the organisation must be sufficiently flexible to take account of the wide variety of interest and the changing needs of the rural women involved. The educational programmes must be concerned with: (1) basic literacy as well as skill training opportunities to make females productive members of their communities; (2) community child-care centres as important both for children as well as for women; (3) that the programme for females should be continuously adapted to their changing role in rural societies. Emphasis should be placed on social service and political education for females to participate in the general range of community activities.

Migration Problem:

Wages in the modern urban sector are much higher than wages and average earnings in the agricultural sector. These income differentials encourage young rural people to leave home for job opportunities; there is very little cash in the Northeast and the North. The labour is cheap, a woman may earn from Baht 300-400 per month in domestic service. The farmers will also leave home during off-season for other jobs in the big cities. They usually get manual and unskilled jobs because of low educational backgrounds. Some return home for the harvesting season, but the majority of the young people prefer the hard life of the towns to returning home for farming.

Rural migrants have many reasons to leave homes; for example, in Prasert's survey of migration in Bangkok, he found 6% of

699 migrants moved to Bangkok for job opportunities and 31% for educational opportunities. (24)

Mowat studied 'Education and the Urban Migrant' (25) in Bangkok; she found that migrants with different educational backgrounds tended to give different reasons for moving to the city. The better educated migrants move for educational opportunity and other reasons more than for the strictly economic or personal reasons cited by the less-well educated migrants.

It was found that more female migrants were better educated than male migrants. The majority of them viewed education as a stepping stone towards clerical, professional and other white-collar jobs, and they claimed that educated men or women should work in offices, not on the farms. This attitude leads us to understand why rural Thailand remains backward. It is due to the shortage of qualified manpower or educated people to bring development to their own areas.

Rural girls migrate to Bangkok because they see the cash jobs in the capital as not only ^a way to partake of the attractions of city life but as a means, through their salary, to send money back to their parents in order to pay respect to them and repay them for all the care given to them in past years. Obviously, rural girls meet many problems in big towns; for example, they have often been treated badly by their employers due to a variety of factors; such as regarding them to be ignorant, up-country folk who are not on the same level as the more civilized central Thais. Some young girls are cheated; they are kept to work in families as domestic servants but are not paid for their labour. If they complain they may be punished by the employers. Due to

lack of knowledge of the rural women, many of them are deceived into doing indecent jobs as masseuses, bar girls and prostitutes.

Low productivity in the farmlands also encourages the young folk to leave the area. But the actual potential wealth of the country lies in the rural areas so the government has to do something to keep rural people working in their home towns. There is a need to make life in the rural communities more rewarding, materially and intellectually. This means developing wages labour, new schools, marketing, recreational centres and entertainments.

'Young rural people need to be persuaded that the prize for educational success in their village school is not necessarily the award of a passport to the town. Healthy rural communities are the foundation of a country's wealth and well-being.'⁽²⁶⁾

Adult education should play a part in equipping young people for modern living and at the same time providing the stimulus and the means to develop in rural areas progressive communities attractive to the young and providing them with skill training so that they can be useful labourers in their own communities. It is important to initiate efforts mainly in training vocational programmes for rural women in order to increase their contribution in the rural labour market, and it will help to speed up the rate of increase of rural incomes and thus contribute to reducing the flow of migrants from rural to urban areas.

Rural People and the Beginning of Political Participation :
the Need for Civic Education and Political Education

During more than 30 years of her history, Thailand had been governed by a succession of military dictators. The Thais had no voice to claim for rights of political involvement even if it

was said 'the country is ruled by the democratic system'. The military government controlled power, became a privileged group and passed on overall advantages to its own generations and relatives.

The most powerful military government was headed by the Prime Minister Thanom from 1963 to 1973; in fact he was appointed in 1958 by Field Marshall Sarit Thanarat to be the Prime Minister but he had no real power to exercise over the country until 1963. During his period, the government could not solve the economic crises and through much corruption among officials, while the majority of the people were facing poverty, the military families became much richer. This situation caused dissatisfaction with the government among the Thai people particularly young university students.

In 1971, Thanom annulled the three-year-old constitution, dissolved the National Assembly and declared martial law under a military junta called the National Executive Council. In December 1972 a new interim constitution was promulgated giving Thanom dictatorial powers, and a new Assembly was appointed with police and military representatives holding 200 of 299 seats.

In October 1973, the military regime of Field Marshal Thanom and Prapas Charusathiara collapsed, following massive student demonstrations in Bangkok. The two leaders and Thanom's son, Colonel Narong Kitikachorn, fled into exile. King Bhumibol appointed the Rector of Thammasart University and President of the Supreme Court, Sanya Dharmasakti, as new Prime Minister in an interim government. The new constitution, the 10th in Thailand's history, was signed by the King in October 1974 and a new election was announced.

It was clear that Thai people began to display more involvement in politics; in the first election, there were 42 political parties with a total of 2,193 candidates (including 51 women) campaigning for the 269 seats in the new House of Representatives.

The first election tested the knowledge of the Thais in the democratic process. They lacked understanding of elections under a democracy. It was found the candidates gave them misleading instructions on how to vote by offering money, gifts, free meals and even girls in return for votes, and sometimes threatening violence. The Thais also received bribes and voted for the candidates who offered them presents and it appeared that only 47% of the electorate actually went to the polls. This shows that the Thais were not active in voting although the country was changing to the rule of a civilian government. Many educated people, especially the university lecturers, criticized that the Thais had no background knowledge of democracy, and they needed to be practised and oriented in the nature of democracy. The government of Prime Minister Sanya also considered that in the past the schools failed to teach democracy because of fear of the military government. Now the Thais have freedom of speech and others; therefore the schools must begin to practise the young students to learn how to live in a democratic society, and the Thai adults both in rural and urban societies must be told about 'democracy' through the mass media. In 1974, many documents, leaflets, books and magazines were published on 'democracy topics' and were supplied to adults throughout the whole country. The university and college students volunteered to teach basic democracy and demonstrate how to vote to the villagers. During this period, many adult education organisations also offered 'political education and public lecture'.

During the military rule, it was noted the majority of the Thais did not participate in national political activities. They had little to do with officials or representatives on the national level. Then, it was remarkable that during the period of free expression and dissemination of democratic ideas after 1973, 'the style of political behaviour of the villagers began to change to be more independent, outspoken and confident. The rural people were beginning to understand their situation and to formulate political and economic expectations, of at least democratic participation, reforms and greater economic and social justice.'⁽²⁷⁾

The first signs of rural men and women, particularly peasants, beginning to play a part in political affairs, appeared in May 1974. Many hundreds of women and men farmers from central provinces protested to the government over being dispossessed of their land by capitalist moneylenders. The Prime Minister set up investigating committees in each province, which were local officials from the areas concerned. The committees substantiated the facts of the problem but found that in all cases the farmers had been legally expropriated. In fact, it was commonly seen, the moneylenders cheated the farmers, particularly illiterate farmers by making them sign a contract to a certain amount of debt. The illiterate farmers could not read even the figures of the loan but they stamped their fingers on the contract. Later, it was found the figures were different from the real debt. The moneylenders increased the figures on the contract in order to cheat the borrowers. It was impossible for the farmers to repay the debt so they were dispossessed of their lands. This problem occurs regularly with illiterate farmers in Thailand because they do not have the background knowledge on land law to make a legal protest

to the moneylenders.

Often, the farmers marched to Sanam Luang and stayed at Thammasart University to demand land for the 1974 planting season and permanent land for the landless, but they could not call for the government's consideration because they had no representative organisation to negotiate for them. Then, November 1974 marked an event of great historical significance; the Peasants Federation of Thailand was formed (Sahaphan Chao Rai Chao Na Haeng Phrathet Thai = PFT) to act as the farmers' representative organisation to put pressure on the government.

The movement of the farmers towards involvement in political policy was growing rapidly. When they had problems, they would group together to protest the oppression in order to recover the rights of the farmers, which showed a heightened political consciousness. When the farmers had their own organisational representative, they did not march to Bangkok, but located the struggle in the villages. The work of the PFT was recruiting and politicising villages, holding meetings to inform the farmers of their legal rights, especially under the Land Rent Act, denouncing corrupt officials for misappropriating development funds, and distributing publications, including a new newspaper named The Thai Farmer (Chao Na Thai).

During the period the civilian government ruled the country, there was a slow steady growth in political consciousness among all sections of the population, among them, the most influential groups were the industrialists, the bankers, senior military officers, the ruling class of landowners and civilian officials. Many observers believed that it was doubtful whether these groups

would make the necessary concessions to satisfy some of the pent-up frustrations and demands of the poor majority. Then Thailand's latest experiment in parliamentary democracy might be shortlived. This was proved true later; the conflict among several groups ended the practice of democracy under civilian government and the military government took over the country again after October 1976.

One of the strongest groups was the National Student Centre Thailand (NSCT), established 1970, when the Thai students began to be involved in politics. Their movement started to protest against the involvement of Thai troops in South Vietnam and Laos, against the U.S. military bases in Thailand, against Japanese penetration of the economy and against the Thai military dictatorship itself. The students also played a leading role in the events leading to the overthrow of military dictatorship in October 1973.

Thai students, even in the secondary schools, both boys and girls, took part in political activities, and during 1974-1976 there were many student movements. They began to learn about conditions in the countryside by making extended visits to live and work in the villages. The NSCT and other progressive student organisations not only supported the PFT's campaigns but also joined in the numerous activities of local organisation and helped with education, protest and resistance in solidarity with peasants in many parts of the country.

After 1973 a class struggle was begun, the peasants, the urban workers and the students started an autonomous movement to press the government to make a real development for the poor and to

get rid of corruption among privileged groups. This caused panic among those who had benefited from the old corrupt and inequalitarian order. Then, they set up their own groups, called status quo groups. Their opinion supported the continuance of the old system. A more important aim was to destroy the student, peasants and workers alliance. Some important status quo groups were proto-fascist; for example, the Village Scout created by the Border Patrol Police under the patronage of the royal family; Red Gaure was a militant youth movement, which included technical students and Internal Security Operations Commanders who specialized in strike breaking and acts of political violence. They received U.S. aid for their activities; Nawaphon included officers and senior military who were active in counter-insurgency. These groups had a coherent aim to create a rival mass movement and to smash and discredit all rural elements. They acted as strike breakers, agents provocateurs and as spreaders of a hysterical anti-communism. Their policy was to support the nation, the monarchy and the religion. This strategy seemed to be succeeding as one by one the leaders of the PFT were executed and the student leaders were harassed, radical politicians murdered or forced underground, and the labour movement at least partially intimidated. The situation opened an opportunity for the military to return to power in October 1976 and to sweep away the democratic political structure which had been initiated after the 1973.

Thailand's effort to create a democratic society is hard to attain, unless its citizens realize their obligations and their roles to become involved in political activity. But from past experience, the Thais, both males and females were not used to living in real democratic societies when they were free to express themselves

and to act in an appropriate way in a new democracy under a civilian government, they did not understand the limitations of expression in free society. As an example, after the October 14, 1973 students' revolution, young people were formed into many organized groups and called themselves people who brought democracy to the country but they created violence in the strike, attacked opposing groups, demanded many things from the government, were aggressive to other people in the streets and threw a plastic bomb among passengers on bus services. Some young students attacked teachers on the need for more freedom in schooling. They claimed the teachers had no rights to blame or to fail them. Regretfully, a few teachers were injured and murdered. The violence among organized groups led the military to take power. The military government had a good excuse that the Thais were not ready to be ruled under the democracy of the civilian government because they lack background knowledge of democracy. The Thais need to be instructed and practised on democracy for some period. Particularly rural people need more practice than the urban people, because they have to select their own headmen and local committees to be middlemen in contacts with the government officials. They also should know the process of voting, know how to judge individual potentiality and to select a capable man who is able to utilize his authority. They must be practised in how to participate in government affairs, to enable them to discuss political questions, to contact officials, to evaluate the decision-making of the officials and to help promote reforms in the public interest. Adult education planners may help to prepare rural people ready for living in a real democratic society so political education should be integrated into adult education curriculum. The content of knowledge should emphasize to create political

consciousness so that rural people understand the nature of democracy and play an appropriate role.

Communist Infiltration : the village security

Communists in the forests of Thailand have attempted to propagandise their ideology in order to convince the villagers to believe in them through radio broadcasting and leaflets. The villagers listen to them and also listen to the government's radio broadcasting. Their ability to judge such information and propaganda is dependent on educational background, self-perception of their obligation and loyalty to the country. The communists help the poor villagers to elicit sympathy in return for their efforts; for example, they give the villagers things to do during a period of unemployment or after the harvesting season. They provide the villagers with medicine, foods, clothes, arms and money. Because of poverty, many villagers become communists. The poor want to make life comfortable and need to relieve their suffering from hunger so they are willing to accept help from the communists. They do not realize that at a later stage of their lives they would face more trouble than hunger under the communists' force.

In practice, the communists approach the poor in terms of welfare and three groups of people are their target: (1) Veterans; their disaffection is due mainly to the fact that they return to their home villages with the expectation of being honoured for having worn a uniform and having lived in a more sophisticated world, only to find that prestige is not forthcoming. The communists not only award them the status that they desire but can make use of their military talents; (2) the unemployed villagers are especially easy prey for the communists because they are both poor and idle; (3) the other groups are village

boys, who are usually free during the hot season, some boys think it is fun to risk a new life as communists and in return they get money or goods. It is obvious that the communists attempt to exploit the motivations and the skills of marginal groups because these people are illiterate and have difficulty in finding a proper job. Their lack of the knowledge needed to make judgements provides the opportunity for the communists to convince them.

Rural women and men should feel responsible enough to contribute their obligation and loyalty to the community and the nation. Education can help bring this responsibility about through instruction in civic education, local government, political education, the knowledge of communism, democracy and socialism and other essential knowledge which will bring solidarity to the village community. The awareness to construct internal village security is also important through practice of civic action work combined with village defence activity in an organisation of local villagers. Women act as men's companion or mothers; they can join with men to make strong co-operative social groups in order to bring social stability to the villages. From this perspective civic education is the most necessary subject which adult education should take into account in order to enlighten rural people and to help in shaping their obligation and loyalty to the nation.

The needs of rural women revealed in the results of questionnaires and interviews:

It would be incorrect to assume women's needs for adult education only from the judgement of the country's statistical and documentary reports although they may be sufficient for the adult education planners to design a needed programme. If the needs

for adult education are reported by rural women themselves, it will be better to support the planners in designing a needed programme with confidence. The following discussion presents some illustrations of the reality of the needs for adult education. The available information is included in the writer's interviews and the AED and the NCWT's questionnaires which were supplied to rural women of the North and the Northeast. Both organisations had expected to discover the socio-economic problems of rural women by the time the writer was surveying adult education programmes in rural provinces from December 1977 to April 1978. The writer selected answers which can be related exclusively to the topic of this research.

From studying the social backgrounds and problems of rural women in Thailand, the writer would like to say that they have in common attitudes, customs, behaviour and problems. This may be the reflection of the Thai way of life in which parents bring up their children and also the patterns of socio-economic systems in rural provinces have shown more or less similar conditions. Therefore, the findings as regards needs may be taken to represent the need and demand for adult education of rural women as a whole.

1. Need for Second Chance Education:

Rural women were asked at what level they would like to learn if they were given a new opportunity in education; 1058 respondents in 20 villages in Lampang province of the North, and 381 respondents in 9 villages in Ubol province of the Northeast claimed secondary education at grade 7 as the first choice and secondary education at grade 10 as second choice. Sixty-six interviewed women in Pichit Province and interviewed women of 22

families in the Mae Rim district also gave the same reason. The majority of rural women needed to have second chance education at grade 7 because they have already completed elementary education at grade 4 but they missed the opportunity to go to secondary school. The writer was given as reasons the parents' disapproval and the shortage of schooling at village level.

With respect to age differentials, it was discovered that the young age groups of 15-24 and the elderly of 51-60 expressed a wish to have second chance education at grade 4 and proposed to learn by radio correspondence course. This suggests that educational background and age-groups of rural women can be important factors in determining the level of educational needs.

2. Need for Skill Training:

Types of Training	Age			
	15-24	25-34	35-54	55 and over
Dressmaking	47	40	18	4
Arable Farms	9	13	27	20
Livestock	7	17	25	15
Second Chance Education	18	4	6	2
Handicrafts	2	4	4	12
Nutrition	5	4	3	2
Family Planning	2	2	1	0
Not required	7	10	9	13
Others	3	6	7	32
Total	100	100	100	100
Respondents	355	248	491	162

Source: The Adult Education Division, Bangkok

From examining through several questionnaires, interviews and a field survey in the North and the Northeast, the writer found that rural women seemed to know only of certain types of training as shown above and the NCWT's survey of the needs for skill training of 1058 women in the North also found the same rank of needs as above. With respect to age-groups, the young age group of 15-24 claimed for dressmaking training as first choice and second chance education as second. This group showed less interest in handicrafts and family planning; despite the fact that rural women earn much of their living from handicrafts, the young women tend to ignore this skill. The age group of 25-34 and 35-54 were women active in the labour force so they claimed for livestock and arable farms training. Nevertheless, the age group of 25-34 also showed high interest in dressmaking as the first choice.

According to the writer's interviews of rural women in many villages of Pichit, Chiangmai and Nakorn Rachasima provinces, the first choice of training was dressmaking, hairdressing as second, arable farms as third, flower making as fourth and food preservation as fifth.

Dressmaking is an attractive and popular subject among rural women of all age groups. From the writer's point of view, dressmaking is a feminine occupation that uneducated women or those who have a poor educational background and unqualified for skilled jobs, can earn a living with. It is not necessary to hold secondary or vocational education certificates to learn to make dresses, therefore, dressmaking provides the opportunity for disadvantaged women to earn a living by skill of their hands.

In view of the significant role of rural women in many traditional agricultural systems, they need more training in relation to agriculture in order to improve crop productivity. The educational planner must design and offer to them agricultural training courses, regardless of whether this subject is indicated by rural women themselves. It is necessary and important subject in bringing success to rural development and in improving the standard of living. Other skills and knowledge which are associated with agricultural earning should also be integrated into training schemes; such as marketing, fertilizers and insecticides.

3. Need for Secondary Occupational Skill Training:

In investigating of the need for earning extra income by means of a secondary occupation, 991 rural women in the North and central areas claimed to earn in small trade (36%), arable farms (19%), livestock (19%) and dressmaking (19%).

In investigating the association of age-groups and occupations, it was discovered that the majority of respondents in white collar work were in the age group of 21-25, in livestock age group 26-30, in home-industry age group 36-40, in small trade or self-employment age group 46-50 and in gardening age group 56-60. These results suggest the adult education planners should outline subjects and training activities for a particular age group and occupational category; for example, for those dealing with small trade; calculation, book-keeping and business management are necessary.

4. Need for Health, Nutrition and Family Planning Knowledge:

Rural women at age 25 and over expressed their interests in domestic science and child care. The age group of 36-40 claimed

the need for knowledge of mother care, baby food, food for pregnancy, birth control and family management. The age group of 46-60 wanted to know birth, death, migration, consumers, food poisoning and food for the elderly. These needs and interests were related to women's responsibility in childbearing and household affairs and age differentials.

5. Leisure time facilities/Need for short-term or long-term training:

The contribution of adult education to rural development depends on the individual's interest and upon her free time to participate in learning activities.

Rural women are usually occupied with farming: mainly cultivation in May - July; harvesting in November - December; free time during the slack seasons in August - October and January - April. Adult education planners may organise some training programmes for them during those free months. Even in the busiest month in every region, many people do not work fully; for example, 'in the North and the Northeast the minimum percentage of people not working reaches 8.7% in December and 8.1% in July.' (28)

Though^a twice-a-year cropping system has been introduced in various parts of the country, most of the farmers still stick to the once-a-year cropping system so they usually have a lot of free time, nearly 6 months a year. From surveys, it was found that the majority of rural people spent their free time in gambling, social groups and entertainments. Male villagers joined social groups and discussed current news, local affairs and marketing while females grouped together and discussed household affairs. Young girls also joined the same social activities as their mothers.

It will benefit rural women if adult education planners design a programme for them in their leisure time. Some of them may have short or long free time so it is necessary to offer them a variety of training courses. It is necessary for the planners to know the subjects of interest and the free time of rural women before beginning to operate a programme. For example, in an investigation of the need for short-term or long-term training courses, 1262 women respondents in the North indicated their interest in short-term training subjects, particularly in arable farms (77%) as first choice and fertilizer (68%) as second. The following table shows the rank of interest in short-term training:

Interest in Subject	Per Cent
arable farms	77
fertilizer	68
insecticide	66
mushroom growing	50
flower-gardening	50
sterilization animals	46
domestic services	43
fish-rearing	36
others	22

The respondents also expressed their needs for subjects if they have much free time for long-term training programmes as shown in the following table.

Noticeably, the subjects illustrate the requirements in long-term training subjects of rural women, but in practice, only few adult education organisations emphasize on providing these subjects for village women. The highest interest is shown in cookery and dressmaking is second. These two subjects are advantageous to

Subjects	Per Cent
cookery	45
dressmaking	43
tailoring	38
arts	37
repairing machines	36
radio repairing	35
hairdressing and beautician	34
electric instalment	34
mechanics	28
sewing - embroidery	25
typing in English-Thai	21
book-keeping	17

rural women that they expect to apply knowledge through an improvement of family health and opening a small business as a food shop or a dressmaking shop.

Other Interests:

An investigation of rural women's interest in law found that the interviewed women were interested in land law, labour law and family law. Only a few women indicated their interests in marriage law.

An investigation of opinions towards the government; the interviewed women with elementary education grade 4 indicated that the country should have military government, but those who completed elementary education grade 7 said that the country should have only civilian government. They indicated they were not interested in political or civic education and did not want to enrol in these subjects.

The majority of interviewed women in farm working expressed their needs for training skills in livestock. They needed to have a

new occupation as owners of animal farms; chicken, ducks, geese and oxen. But the interviewed women in small trade expressed a need to earn extra income by owning a pig farm.

The rural women also needed advice from the officials for a knowledge of seri-culture (silk-worm rearing), pig, ox and bird rearing, mushroom growing and sweet potato growing. They suggested that adult education organisations should provide educational programmes through radio broadcasting, leaflets and experts. 1262 women respondents ranked training courses which should consequently be provided for satisfying their needs as follows:

1. short-term training in a particular subject related to an individual need;
2. functional literacy through radio broadcasting;
3. second chance education or continuing education;
4. long-term vocational training.

Adult educators should take notice of this ranking when making the provision of adult education programmes.

Needs and Types of Adult Education Programmes:

Previous sections referred to several problems of the country; such as, population growth, illiteracy, youth unemployment, poverty of rural people, communist infiltration and migration. Formal education alone cannot solve such problems, there must be alternative education as adult education or non-formal education to bring about a solution together with formal education.

At present, the AED recommends that non-formal education or adult education has become the greatest educational need of Thailand.

It is regarded as a tool to achieve rural development. It can provide short-term planning for a target group and can have a quicker effect on development than the seven or ten years that are needed for a child to come to maturity through school. It also consumes less of the cost of investment, which may enable the education planners to design alternative programmes for a variety of target groups with respect to age, occupations and sex differentials.

Although non-formal education or adult education is accepted as the most important device for rural development and for meeting an individual's need in education, from experience of many organisations it was found that their aims and policies did not take account of individual needs and aspirations. The planners designed a programme without making survey and research of social backgrounds in demanding adult education of individual and interest group. In order to adapt adult education to meet the needs of rural women, the planners may diagnose their needs through many criteria such as:

1. Individual needs:

Recently, rural women have taken on a new level of socio-economic roles so they acquired new knowledge for being a qualified labour force. Especially when some villages are adding a new industrial sector, restaurants, markets, power and mechanization. These changes remind rural women that no more can life in the traditional way bring them happiness, they should also prepare themselves for new job opportunities. Then, the growing demand for qualifications among rural women arose.

Today, the pattern of life is changing; rural women are influenced

by a model of urbanized and cosmopolitan society. Modern innovations and urban values are more and more prevalent as Thai villages change their socio-economic system and evolve towards the rational pattern of an urban society. But rural women are still unable to adapt themselves effectively to new types of changes, so they need help from outsiders, particularly from educational institutions.

Although rural women are influenced by modern urban life, they may not want to learn things in the same context as urban women because they are living in different conditions. Even among rural women, there may be a diversity of need. Some may require adult education for the pleasure of learning but others may want to complete their goal in employment.

Individual women may have expectations of changes to meet the needs of society and of themselves so their expectations can result in special learning needs. As Fredriksson says that 'the situations that the individual faces in society lead to expectations that can mean a demand for education.'⁽²⁹⁾ As the individual's pattern of life changed she faced new problems and new educational need, this suggests that the education planners should plan the programmes from the viewpoint of the problem situations that the individual rural women are facing.

Cropley says that 'need for education should be concerned with self-actualization.'⁽³⁰⁾ In a world of excessive uncertainty the individual will have to struggle to maintain a stable concept of who and what she is, of where she fits into society, of what she means to other people and what rights, privileges and duties

she can take for granted so the individual must prepare for changes in order to enable herself to control her interaction with life and for this she needs education.

Knox says that 'the need for affiliation with other people encourages the individual to join in social activities in order to seek for interrelationships among friends and neighbours.'⁽³¹⁾ So he suggests that community development programmes should be applied to satisfy this need. He also recommends that the need for achievement encourages the individual to seek knowledge, but it declines with age, occupation and status. His idea can be applied to adult education organisations in rural Thailand. The need of rural women for achievement is obvious in internal relationships among neighbours, and community education is a suitable subject to help them satisfy their need.

2. Lifelong Learning Concept:

Recently, the concept of lifelong learning has been accepted in many countries that every stage of life in a new society requires a person to learn new things and learning can take place in many ways; such as, in work, family, social groups and other institutions. Learning from experience of day-to-day life may be insufficient to gain achievement in work or in social life and some types of learning require instruction and supervision. But rural women may not want to learn throughout their lives because of the lack of environmental stimulus and they may rather keep applying the old traditional practice. It is the responsibility of the adult education planners to encourage rural women to accept the idea of lifelong learning and make them ready to learn a new thing.

In fact, it is quite a difficult task for the adult education planners to design the needed programmes for rural women. There is one of many criteria which induces the planners to steer adult education content and method: it is the psychological needs of different age groups.

Erickson suggests a sequence of major topics or centres of emphasis for a programme of adult education with respect to the psychological tasks of ageing, such as:

1. the achievement of identity - personal and occupational identification, a task of adolescence, sometimes continued into the 20s;
2. the achievement of intimacy - learning to share life intimately with a partner of the opposite sex, a task of early adulthood generally active in the 20s and 30s;
3. the achievement of generativity - giving the best of oneself to continue and improve human life and human society, generally achieved in the 40s and 50s;
4. the achievement of integrity - accepting one's life as worthwhile and as something one can take pride in, generally achieved in the 60s and 70s.(32)

Taking Erickson's view means that training programmes of adult education should consider the stage of the developmental task of the age group; for example, before the age of 20, young women are looking for jobs, therefore vocational training is needed. If adult education in Thailand needs to use the psychology of ageing as a criterion to design the needed programmes for rural women it is necessary for the writer to classify the need for adult education of rural women in a particular age group:

At age group 15-20: Thailand regards a person at age 15 and over as an adult. This is related to the Compulsory Act which refers

to the minimum age before leaving elementary education. As earlier mentioned, the majority of rural women completed elementary education at grade 4 and they claimed for having a second chance education as previous discussion revealed of their need. So this age group may become the largest number of consumers of a continuing education programme.

This age group is preparing for employment and some may already have entered the labour force actively but need more skill training. Vocational training through on-the-job training programmes is the most important for this group.

Obviously, this age group plays an active role in community development and is easily influenced by new cultures; so adult education should offer them youth training, leadership training, community development training and cultural education.

At age group 20-34: This age group has already been employed, but they are looking forward to gaining promotion and status, and also need to refresh their knowledge and skills. Some may be looking forward to changing a job. So vocational training is important for this age group. Some may engage in farm working, adult education should organise agricultural education for them.

At age group 30-40: women have increased their roles as child bearers and employers. Their main responsibilities are focussed on family management and obtaining promotion in their careers. Choice of courses may be in the area of child development, the psychology of adolescence, family relations and domestic budgeting.

At age group 40-50 and over: Because of physiological and anatomical change in women after about 40, health problems appear increasingly,

so they require instruction on physical exercise, health, nutrition and work habits and it was also found that this age group needed such subjects as mentioned in the earlier discussion.

The task of becoming a responsible and informed citizen is likely to be postponed by many people until they reach middle age when they have achieved their earlier more personal tasks and have time, energy and commitments to their community which induce them to become active citizens. Regarding rural women in Thailand, at middle age, they play a significant role in cultural activities; such as, religious festivals, community activities and social groups. So cultural education, religious education, civic and political education, social club and recreational education are needed. Women aged over 55 should be offered some activities including a liberal education in order to help them to accommodate themselves to the traumatic experience of retirement from work.

3. Educational Need : Need for Literacy Programme:

Although the primary schools are widespread, reaching even remote villages, there is still the mass of adult illiteracy to be dealt with. Especially illiteracy is high among rural women at the middle and older ages. This causes a barrier for them to participate in the modernization of activities and to be employed in the modern trade and service sector. The over-short period of elementary education in rural areas; mostly 4 years but 7 years in urban areas, will also cause the young generation to relapse into illiteracy or to become semi-illiterate in later life; particularly in the areas where materials and opportunity for reading are deficient. Therefore, the prime task of adult education in rural Thailand is to design literacy programmes for illiterate or semi-illiterate rural women. Teaching literacy is

the first step to enlighten illiterate rural women to have basic knowledge in reading and writing. It later would become a voyage of self-education. Fisher, in his discussion on education for rural women says that 'literacy teaching is the best way to give knowledge to rural women because changing women's capacity is helping in changing her outlook in society.'⁽³³⁾

Literacy programme should include the knowledge of social education, health, nutrition, family skill and learning skills which enable rural women to reach out beyond their own families and work for a better community life. The programme should also provide the opportunity for rural women to continue their education beyond the basic class teaching. Some may want to qualify themselves in following a formal education line leading to certificates so general education is needed to be organised into the literacy programme.

Literacy programme benefits rural women. It brings more than prestige or status to them. It brings with it a sense of personal accomplishment, the idea that she is capable of learning something new through her own efforts and of moving along the path of continual self-improvement.

4. Work-related need/Need for vocational skill training:

When development is moving rapidly, the needs of new technology demand that both male and female applicants for jobs should be better qualified in terms of general school education and vocational training. This is a risk that few females than males may respond to the new requirement because the tendency to give women less education or a more general education while males receive specialized training.⁽³⁴⁾ Females need to prepare themselves

ready for job requirement and they may need more specialized vocational training than males. The training should not be limited to traditional female occupations, it should emphasize two areas which are necessary for rural women; (1) general vocational training skill for non-farm-working women and (2) agricultural training for farm-working women.

Vocational training for non-farm-working women:

In fact, there is a small percentage of rural women in the professional wages sectors or in non-farm working and the lack of vocational education attainment provides them low levels of skill which are insufficient for employment. So non-formal education or adult education is needed in terms of on-the-job training, continuing education and periodic refresher courses for upgrading of skills.

At present, the government attempts to extend industrial system into rural marketing so more sophisticated skills are required which could be a standard of vocational or technical education. Adult education may play a part in the development of the rural economy by providing on-the-job training for: (1) semi-skilled women workers to work in the rural modern economic sector; (2) unskilled rural women who are deprived of educational opportunities. Adult education must create employment opportunities by giving them short-term training courses; such as, hairdressing, clothmaking, typing, weaving and domestic service skills. This is important special skill training which may enable rural women to seek local job opportunities.

Agricultural training for farm-working women:

Agricultural training is the most significant need when the majority of rural women are engaged in farm-working. Adult

education has to bring new knowledge and skills in various dimensions of agriculture to rural women which may place emphasis on: (1) knowledge of new inputs which are available and which will, in fact, produce favourable results such as new seeds, breeds of animals, fertilizers, farm implements and equipment; (2) knowledge about new techniques of production time and techniques of planting, maturation and protection of crops or animals; (3) knowledge of how to economize in production and marketing. Other more specialized skills relating to co-operative farming and marketing are also important.

Adult education planners must provide agricultural training for rural women beyond the primary education because they have dual roles; homemakers and farm-workers, so they require not only agricultural knowledge but also household management in order to have the skill and energy to enhance the level of living in their homes.

Only few schools in rural areas concentrate on training young people to be farmers and agriculturists and the country is still short of qualified farmers. Adult education may help to solve this problem; particularly the shortage of agriculturists, by organizing a special course of agricultural training for those who will have to act as farm demonstrators or specialists.

5. Opened Course/ the Need of a Particular Group:

Adult education is needed by homogeneous women's groups who share common problems such as migrants, youth unemployment, women from racial minorities, women social workers, volunteers, local women leaders and women's officials. Several courses should be offered to them, particularly rural women's education should

include the subjects of:

Political education: 'if self-government or any kind of government based on ideas of democracy is to be possible, there must be a widespread effort of political education'⁽³⁵⁾ which will encourage rural women to participate in national planning and local politics.

Civic education: awakes rural women to the rights of citizens and to realize their duties and loyalty to the nation.

Community development: encourages rural women to involve in activities and leads them to a better understanding of local and national government and creates a greater contribution based on co-operation and partnership between the sexes.

Volunteer training: is important for motivating the self-efforts of rural women and also for increasing involvement in development programmes at village communities.

Education for family life: is important to prepare girls for responsible parenthood; it includes knowledge of family planning services and family law so that rural girls understand their rights as wives and mothers.

6. Mass Media Programmes:

Rural women in Thailand lack the information to follow up their knowledge. They have little opportunity to read magazines, journals, newspapers or documents due to the shortage of mass media supplied into rural marketing. Radio is the available information resource. Because of the shortage of information resources, illiteracy is still high in rural areas. Adult education must help to solve the lack of information by introducing mass media

into rural areas, particularly their distribution to rural women.
Mass media ^{contribute} to the success of lifelong learning policies,
because learning throughout life requires information media.

Conclusion: rural women in Thailand have played a significant part in the development of the nation, for example, they help the country in carrying out the programme of contributing to national security; taking as an example the mother role, she takes care of her children to help them to be good citizens who recognize their duties and loyalties to the nation. She keeps the family healthy. In the sphere of economic development, rural women help to induce great savings to promote more productive agricultural and industrial systems, and to increase the number of workers in many others. In the field of political development, they help to create greater popular awareness of the duties and responsibilities invested in citizenship. However, they still face many problems, such as:

- | | |
|----------------------------------|---|
| Unstable family life: | lack of knowledge of child care, lack of understanding between generations and the detrimental effect of certain changes in social and cultural values. |
| Poor health: | because of the lack of knowledge of nutrition and sanitation. |
| Lack of educational opportunity: | because of social discrimination and the absence of stimulus to further education in rural areas. |
| Poverty: | lack of knowledge and skills for occupational advancement, lack of capital, poor marketing and poor communications network. |

The full utilization of women in development should be a national effort, comprising many interrelated activities; such as, the encouragement of women's participation in decision making at the

economic and political levels. The realization of equal opportunity for education and vocational training is also important to awaken women to demand re-education for the improvement of the quality of life.

The next chapter will examine adult education programmes organized by three bodies: the AED, the MOI and the NCWT whether they have attempted to satisfy rural women's need for adult education programmes of the types discussed above.

CHAPTER IV

ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMMES
OF THE ADULT EDUCATION DIVISION

Many adult education organisations are conducting learning programmes for women in rural areas but the AED is the main body. Its policy is to avoid, as much as possible, duplication of the programmes from other bodies. It emphasizes only the improvement of functional literacy skills, general adult education courses, vocational adult education, interest group and public education. Few bodies have made efforts in these fields which aim to improve the quality of life and educational opportunities. In fact, the AED offers equal opportunity of enrolment for both sexes and from its experience has proved that males selected the courses which prepared them for earning and local employment, but females mainly enrolled for courses relevant to domestic skills for self-interest and family improvement.

The following outline explains the development of these programmes clearly.

I. A Functional Literacy Approach:

Functional literacy is a major programme that the AED uses for an improvement of the quality of life of rural women and it is necessary to explain its development and to focus on the specific topics of (1) planning and implementation of action for literacy; (2) content, methods and materials; (3) training of teachers of literacy classes; (4) student achievement and problems of overall activities.

It has been earlier pointed out that adult education in Thailand had, as its major aim, to eradicate illiteracy and to increase

the number of graduate adults with an elementary education at grade 4 level. So the AED emphasized its major task on providing 'general adult education' which indicated 6 months course to complete elementary education equivalent to grade 2 level and another 6 months course to complete elementary education equivalent to grade 4 level of formal schooling. The courses mostly imitated the formal schooling syllabus which included knowledge of the Thai language, numeracy, moral education, geography, history, health and civic education which included topics of local government and national structures, civil rights, legislation and civil responsibilities, also duties to the nation, King and religion. Experience proved that in rural areas there was a lack of motivation among illiterate adults to partake in general adult education as it was considered unnecessary knowledge in terms of economic gain. The enrolment dropped sharply, particularly among female students. The Thai government also did not provide much support for this programme but began to favour and support new alternative learning activities which helped improve vocational skills of out-of-school population. Nevertheless, the AED had to maintain this traditional literacy programme in rural areas in order to enable adults to complete the elementary education at grade 4 level. It also made a revision of the curriculum of literacy classes in big cities and made ^{it} more academic which provided educational qualification leading to higher education. Thus, higher levels of general adult education were extended to upper elementary education for adults at level 3, equivalent to grades 5-7 level of formal schooling but required only 1½ years to complete; lower secondary education for adults at level 4 equivalent to grades

8-10 level of formal schooling but required only 1½ years to complete; upper secondary education for adults at level 5 equivalent to grades 11-12 level and used a similar curriculum of formal schooling.

In 1965, the Thai experts and educators attended a seminar on the theme of 'Eradication of Illiteracy' at Teheran, in Iran. They agreed with Unesco on applying the new concepts of functional literacy to Thailand's literacy programme; in particular, the following concepts:

- (a) literacy programmes should be incorporated into, and correlated with economic and social development.
- (b) the eradicating of illiteracy should start within those categories of population which are highly motivated and which need literacy for their own and their country's benefit.
- (c) literacy programmes should preferably be linked with economic priorities, and carried out in areas undergoing rapid economic expansion.
- (d) literacy programmes must not only impart reading and writing, but also professional and technical knowledge, in order to lead to a fuller participation of adults in economic and civic life.
- (e) new literacy programmes should aid in achieving the main economic objectives, i.e. the increase in labour productivity, food production, industrialization, social and professional mobility, creation of new manpower and diversification of the economy.⁽¹⁾

The new type of functional literacy would focus students' environments and problems as lessons which would attract rural women to increase enrolments when they realized the benefit of applying in daily life the vocational skills and literary skills gained from attending the functional literacy classes.

Preparation of Reading Material for
Functional Literacy Classes:

Because functional literacy was a new concept to Thai adult educators and there was a lack of experts to design curriculum, methods of teaching and activities, the MOE requested UNESCO to sponsor a workshop on November 25, 1968 in Lampang province of the North, to try out a suitable functional literacy programme and curriculum relevant to social backgrounds of the country. Thailand invited experts from Iran, the Philippines, India and UNESCO to participate in the workshop, and to help design a particular type of reading material.

The first step, the international experts studied the general adult education of Thailand and they found it similar to other countries' traditional literacy; i.e. Iran, Mali, Algeria, Tanzania and India, that 'it concerned only the attainment of rudimentary literacy skills of reading, writing and arithmetic. Its function is chiefly remedial, that is to make up to some extent the deficiency of formal schooling. Its objective is primarily social, cultural and political rather than technical, economical and developmental. It is a consumer service rather than an economic input or an investment.'⁽²⁾ As a result of this it was rejected by rural adults, particularly in those areas where it was believed that there was no immediate need for reading and writing skills, and in a culture where communication always depends on word-of-mouth.

The international experts suggested that the AED should revise the traditional literacy programme and make it functional, that is more emphasis on economic development rather than the mere skills of reading, writing and arithmetic and 'vocational training

is a crucial element in the concept of functional literacy,⁽³⁾ particularly agricultural training should be a part of the core curriculum when the majority of illiterate adults in Thailand are rural farmers. Other necessary vocational subjects should be included for personal interest and educational opportunities.

The workshop stressed that the role of literacy and reading materials in the educational processes should aim at social and technical changes. Particularly in a rural setting, development requires the reverse, that the individual becomes disadapted from her traditional outlook, that she changes. Modernization is not internally imposed by the rural group; it is exerted upon society from outside. This external pressure often requires rural people to adopt new elements unknown to their groups, sometimes conflicting with what the people have believed for generations. New ideas, concepts, skills, ways of action introduced through reading materials is one way of communicating elements of change from outside to rural group and reading materials may play an important part as a means of making people aware of new ideas or practices and in providing additional information at the 'interest' and trial stage.

If functional literacy in Thailand emphasizes improving the quality of farmers, an appropriate reading material should focus on the farmers' significant characteristics which define that 'they are the planners, cultivators, managers, book-keepers, buyers and sellers. They are also practical biologists, chemists, technologists, producers, businessmen, shrewd observers of nature, and men with experience.'⁽⁴⁾ Seeing is believing, is their dictum what is seeing is good, so practice, demonstrations of farm methods, taking account of their experience and situation

move them to accept a new idea and adopt new practices. Therefore, the printed materials must be attractive, catch the farmer's attention, create and retain their interest, motivate their ambitions, get them to see choices and alternatives within their physical, economic and social surroundings.

Finally, the international experts suggested the following guidelines for preparing reading and follow-up materials which were very useful to Thai adult educators, particularly to the Curriculum Development Committee; they are:

1. It is necessary to examine educational, occupational and cultural backgrounds of the intended readers in order to produce reading and follow-up materials suitable for them.
2. It is necessary to consult with different people concerned with the subject matter for identification of the problems, and to obtain advice on the suitable methods of presentation at different levels of preparation.
3. The use of techniques like surveys, questionnaires and interviews will help to bridge the cultural gap which exists between the author and the potential readers.
4. Reading materials need to be reinforced with other media and services. To bring about the desired changes in understanding, attitudes, behaviour and action of the intended audience, it is essential to exploit all possible media to the fullest extent.

Such suggestions were welcome by the AED and it revised the curriculum of the literacy classes. Reading materials were published which emphasized the importance of health care, nutrition, family economy and agriculture. After the reading materials were used in literacy classes in 1970, the AED investigated their efficiency and found^{them to be the cause of} failure. On the whole, the adult students got on well, in literary skills, but learned little of the practical aspects of the new curriculum. In addition, the

AED met the problem of shortage of staff to teach health, nutrition and agriculture. Usually, primary teachers without specialized training were called on to teach functional literacy classes, but they knew no more about those subjects than their students. Lack of self-confidence and their ignorance discouraged them to use new methods of teaching but concentrated only on teaching literary skills in which they were trained and experienced. As a result of this, the adult students saw nothing benefit them so many of them dropped out.

The AED made another effort in curriculum revision to be more attractive to adult students and the next pilot project was tried out, it was called the functional literacy programme and family life planning (fl and flp). The teachers of adult classes were given a training course to specialise in this field.

II. Functional Literacy and Family Life Planning Programme:

Although the literacy campaign had been repeated in 1970, the literacy rate remained high 'approximately 18.2% out of total population 23 million over 10 years of age.'⁽⁵⁾ By this time, literacy rate included those who completed at least two years of elementary education but it could not confirm how many years they could remain the ability of literacy. From official research it was found that 'about one-third of those who completed compulsory education might relapse into illiteracy within a few years from lack of follow-up materials.'⁽⁶⁾ Therefore, the estimate of 18.2% of illiteracy may be somewhat lower than the true figures. This high rate of illiteracy, together with the present high rate of population growth and limited resources of the government, pose alarming problems for adult education.

In fact it is difficult to determine the real level of literacy. People who have had schooling for more than 4 years may become illiterate when they are reluctant to continue themselves to read and write although they have been living in modern societies where there are plenty of published materials, radio and T.V. But people who have been in schooling for one or two years only may be able to keep themselves literate if they continue themselves to read and write.

Unesco says that¹ the distinction between literate and illiterate is very hard to determine, and it is clear that what is meant by illiteracy depends upon the importance of literacy in different societies. Unesco defines a person as literate, when he has acquired the essential knowledge skills which enable him to engage in all those activities in which literacy is required for effective functioning in his group and community; and whose attainments in reading, writing and arithmetic make it possible for him to continue to use their skills for his own and the community's development.⁽⁷⁾ In the case of rural society in Thailand, people who can write their name and read simple instructions and information may qualify as literate. They usually do not read regularly and seldom write because communication is generally by oral and not written means.

In June 1970, the Thai educators and health officials were invited to take part in an international workshop, held in India which intended to explore the possibilities of incorporating family planning education into functional literacy. They agreed with this idea that it was a useful method to bring adult education to help reduce the high rate of population growth and

to improve the quality of life of rural people.

In June 1970, Thailand planned to revise the functional curriculum and included family life planning topic as one of lessons.

Thailand asked the World Education and the United States Operations Missions (USOM) for technical and financial support.

At first, the goals of the fl and flp were formulated as a basis for the new curriculum in the following way 'to help illiterates to cope with the problems of their environments by providing necessary and useful information, correcting misconceptions and encouraging the application of acquired knowledge.'⁽⁸⁾

In support of these goals, curriculum development must begin with identifying the problems in the daily life of rural communities such as the beliefs, habits, living conditions, needs and language patterns of the target group in order to influence the core curriculum. A Curriculum Committee was formed, including representatives from the Ministries of Health, Interior, Agriculture, Industry and Education to co-operate in writing the curriculum. They made a survey on social backgrounds of rural people in target areas of 5 villages of the North. Finally, they recommended that the social backgrounds of rural Thai people required 4 broad areas of contents: (a) earning a living; (b) health and family planning; (c) family economics and consumer education and (d) civic responsibility.

Curriculum of fl and flp laid down two parts of knowledge which should be imparted to adult students:

1. Conceptual section: the teachers should impart concepts of the knowledge through group discussion which takes advantages of the natural learning environment of the Thai adults, who often

gather in the evening to chat about family and village problems. The adult students will be encouraged to participate actively by presenting their own problems and experiences and comparing them with other peoples. They also share ideas and knowledge with others. Discussion will educate the students to be more rational and practical in deciding how to improve living conditions.

2. Literary skill practice section: the teachers should practise literary skills of students by giving them complete sentences about such concepts that they have discussed thoroughly, and which are in everyday language; as they begin to associate sounds, symbols and meaning, their ability in reading will increase. The basis for using these methods is from anthropological studies, which show that illiterates tend to compensate for lack of reading and writing by developing their memories and relying on word of mouth information.

The fl and flp classes provide different content of knowledge from the traditional adult education which leans very much on facts and ^{are} flexible to suit local conditions and individual backgrounds. The teachers may change a lesson plan in order to use local backgrounds; for example, if they teach adult students in the South, the topics may concern growing coconuts, fruits and rubber instead of rice. Southern people are mostly Malays and speak the Malay language. So the language used in reading materials may need to be revised and local dialects used. The teachers may speak Malay but use the Thai alphabet. 'Experience in teaching bi-lingual adults in functional literacy classes has shown that explaining in the Malay language but using Thai alphabet was more effective than speaking and using the Thai language alone.' (9)

Programmed Text:

The textbook for fl and flp classes was also revised which included loose cards tied together. Each card contained a complete story. To complete the fl and flp class, the adult students should study 212 cards. These cards were combined into 18 chapters which covered all four broad areas mentioned earlier. The front card consisted of pictures and was explained by key words. The pictures could be used for leading discussion, particularly as they were drawn from real problem situations in the village and related to common social problems. Such pictures can make the learners see afresh their own village problems. The back of the card revealed the conclusion which was expected to emerge from discussion. It would be also used as a reading exercise and for reference. The students may observe their progress as they build their cards into books. The cards also allowed maximum flexibility and minimum cost in developing lessons suited to each locality. Several lessons can be modified for different regions according to specific needs and can be inserted, without printing entirely new editions.

Exercise Book for Literary Skills:

In order to aid the students in improving literary skills, an exercise book in the Thai language was developed. It was designed to accompany the textbooks; for example, providing practice in reading and writing key words which have been discussed in each card or in the textbook. It helped the students to improve reading comprehension, composition and skills in summing up the content.

Teachers Handbooks: were written in bound loose sheets, each sheet dealt with one card in the text. On one side, it reproduced

the illustration and the content of one card. On the other side, it discussed the origin of the particular text card, the objectives and suggested topics for discussion. As well as the teachers handbooks, the teachers were provided with reference books which gave further information on the problems included in the curriculum of the fl and flp classes.

In conclusion, with the advent of the fl and flp programme in 1970, the AED concentrated on creating a consciousness of the value of literacy, revising the knowledge content of the curriculum based on students' needs and linked it to the students' lives, utilizing techniques of learning and teaching that would increase the students' participation, providing opportunities for adults to improve their problems and occupations and finally improving the knowledge of family planning and living conditions. It was expected that new alternative functional literacy would bring harmony to family, society and nation.

Evaluation:

In 1971, the first pilot project of the fl and flp was tried in 20 adult classes in Lampang and Prae provinces of the North. If it proved its efficiency and strength in improving the students' competence, the AED would expand this project through rural areas as a whole.

At first 248 rural women and 179 males were selected as samples. They were divided into two groups; one group was called 'the experimental group' and they were taught the new concepts of the fl and flp curriculum and the other was called 'the control group' and they were taught a traditional adult education syllabus in which was emphasized academic subjects as in the formal schooling

syllabus. The success of the project was evaluated by measuring the level of the students' performances, in terms of information acquired and changes in attitudes. A test was done before the teaching started, and another test was conducted after 6 months instruction. The evaluation found that the students had changed attitudes towards many aspects of living conditions. Here are two examples of attitude test result:

Statement: Before getting married, it is unnecessary to be well prepared by having a job, a house and property in order to settle down in a new family, because we can get these afterwards.

Result: pre-test: 146 students agreed
post-test: 176 students disagreed

Statement: When we farm, there is no need to select the best seed for growing crops.

Result: pre-test: 137 students agreed
post-test: 212 students disagreed

The students have changed their ideas about family planning and agricultural productivity after having learnt the new ideas of the fl and flp curriculum. The test also found that the two groups demonstrated different abilities. The experimental groups were able to answer, and gave more reasons for ideas than the control groups. Also they did best in reading and writing. This was proved the fl and flp pilot project was able to teach the illiterate adults to read and write within 6 months. The students' ability was proved as equivalent to elementary education at grade 2 level, which previously required a course of 2 years. The fl and flp pilot project also proved its greater efficiency as compared to the traditional adult education classes. It also attracted the women villagers because it provided them with information related to their own problems. Many rural women

applied for and inquired about enrolment in the next term. Some said they had never wanted to start learning until they saw the advantages of the project.

On this basis of positive experience, the AED expanded the fl and flp project into other regions and aimed at starting 950 classes involving 19,000 adult students by 1977, the following table shows the expansion plan during 7 years.

Year	Number of Educational Regions	Number of Provinces	Number of Classes	Number of Students
1971	1	2	20	427
1972	2	12	102	2,120
1973	6	32	280	5,600
1974	8	44	400	8,000
1975	9	51	600	12,000
1976	10	60	800	16,000
1977	12	71	950	19,000

N.B.: The country is divided into 12 educational regions.

Source: Division of Adult Education, The Ministry of Education.

Clientele:

The clientele for the fl and flp project varied by age, sex, marital status and educational backgrounds. Since it has been operated, it was found approximately two-thirds of the students were males. The high proportion of males was to be expected because they desired to earn certificates leading to jobs, which females did not see the need to work outside the home. Whatever the reasons for the small number of females enrolling the programme should attempt to be more attractive to them so

that they will enrol in larger numbers.

— Experience showed that rural women aged over 30 years took more interest in the project than the younger. However, family life education is a part of the curriculum aiming to

help prepare young girls for married life. So they should be encouraged to come for enrolment in the project.

Since the time the fl and flp project was operated in many educational regions, the dropout rate had been reduced dramatically from 50% in the earlier literacy programme, to 12.6% in the new one. There was still the problem of unqualified teachers so the AED began to provide them in-service training and provide them grants to study adult education option at universities.

The AED was unable to adequately evaluate the fl and flp project nationwide, due to the lack of suitable techniques and other difficulties and also the complex nature of the fl and flp courses. Evaluation would require a vast amount of resources in terms of finance, time and people. Another important factor is that teaching literacy has never been popular among the general public, so the AED did not want to risk incurring high costs for a nationwide evaluation when the annual budget for overall adult education was only a small amount.

The adult educators began to make a real effort to get an effective evaluation method for the fl and flp project when they were promised funds by the Ford Foundation and the World Education. In August 1973, both organisations asked Dr. James J.R. Farmer to spend six months in Thailand. He helped develop an appropriate method of evaluation. Later, in June 1974, the MOE

and the World Education Organisation convened a two-week workshop on the evaluation of the fl and flp in Chiangmai. Twelve experts from Asia, Africa, Latin America, North America and the Near East were invited to take part. They would plan together in designing a suitable evaluation strategy.

After studying the Thai fl and flp project, the International experts commented that it was a broad aimed project because it sought not only to teach literacy (a relatively narrow aim) but also to affect the whole quality of illiterates' lives through education (a much broader aim). The project expected to improve the quality of life of the students (people's consciousness) rather than economic development. From this reason, the project had to be widened in its structure. It had to provide a context of knowledge from the students' experience and social backgrounds and had to be broad aimed in its activities. It also had to provide different approaches due to the various socio-economic factors; for example, isolated villages may reject contraception because of their belief in religion while villagers near to a city may be willing to accept new ideas of birth control, because they are able to judge the relative advantages of having a small family and having social security. So the project had to have flexible approaches in order to persuade the villagers to accept new ideas.

A framework for analyzing outcome:

Although it was difficult to make an evaluation of the fl and flp; when it was broad-based and changes may take place in many different ways and the external situation variables in most broad-aimed projects are also uncontrolled, the International experts proposed a possible framework for evaluation to the Thai

educators. For example, by considering:

1. the acquired knowledge of the students in terms of skills and behaviour (attitudes, interests, beliefs and values) or, what they have learnt; for example, they may have acquired knowledge of the proper soil conditions when inorganic or organic fertilizers should be applied or they may have developed a new interest in continued learning;
2. the ability to utilize acquired knowledge. Have the students increased capacities to deal with everyday life and do they apply it?
3. the results of the acquisition and utilization of knowledge skills and effective behaviour, the students may achieve greater harmony with their environments and gain a new sense of personal efficiency.

Finally, the International experts advised that the Thai fl and flp project should be 'situation specific' because there are significant differences in local educational traditions, learning styles, receptivity to family planning ideas and readiness to learn. Each local area must re-design the teaching methods, curriculum and materials to fit its own situation, particularly with regard to the different cultures and languages. The International experts also suggested the teachers of adults to apply their assumptions about adult education and learning which were expected to be relevant to the Thai fl and flp project. (See Appendices 37, 38).

The International experts were not sure whether the fl and flp project would produce 'a Khit-phen man' so the following questions are quoted in order to illustrate this.

Experts: What is the level of Khit-phen man that Thai adult education expect to develop out of the fl and flp project?

Dr. Kowitz: We expect that the person who comes out of the fl and flp project should achieve the level of ability that will enable him or her to live happily in the community and be able to participate in political and social life as a good citizen.

Commentary: It is true, learning is to improve the quality of life and to help the students to gain happiness. However, an analysis with economic, political, religious and social aspects would be needed to clarify what one means by 'happiness' or 'a good life'. In fact it is difficult to define the level of 'happiness' or 'a good life' because an individual has her/his own ambitions and different needs for gaining happiness. Psychologically, human beings are never satisfied with what they are, they want more and more, so they may never finally achieve what they call happiness. Therefore, the fl and flp may be unable to claim that it helps the students to gain happiness when external factors are also important in determining the level of happiness. So learning should aim to improve life by means of creating self-confidence, then she/he can apply knowledge and skills to make a better living.

Experts: Can a person ever become a complete Khit-phen man?

Dr. Kowitz: Yes, a person can easily become a Khit-phen man. However, a Khit-phen man in one situation or in one community may not be a Khit-phen man in another situation or in other community. If the data and the situation are completely unfamiliar, it may be too much for the man to handle. He will, however, have a systematic way of going about learning more of his new environment.

Commentary:

In fact, it is difficult to set up criteria to measure whether a man can become a completely Khit-phen man. In Thai words, everyone knows how to Khit (think) but she/he may be unable to think in positive response if she/he is facing different unfamiliar situations. However, she/he may become a completely Khit-phen man if she/he continues herself/himself to seek knowledge and develop the ability to think critically.

Experts:

The fl and flp project does not try to influence people to accept certain practices, say family planning, you object to the practice of telling people that they must have small families, but rather encourage your students to explore both the advantages and disadvantages of having big and small families. How can you expect the support of your government and agencies like the Family Planning Association?

Dr. Kowit:

We believe in the judgement and intelligence of the people. We believe in the reality that people will find the way they feel is best for them. The data and consequences, that a man learns, will help him to decide accordingly. We believe that if it is true that having a small family is better, the Khit-phen man will have a small family. Therefore, if these agencies really believe in these theories, they ought to support the fl and flp project.

Commentary:

Teaching rural adults should lead them to see what are the advantages and disadvantages because they will not follow such instructions if they do not see the real situation by themselves. Practical and experimental work are the best methods to awake the students to solve the actual problems. In addition, the students may not believe in teachers who, they

see, are not specialized or skilled in the topic taught. Therefore, the AED needs to request co-operation from other organisations, particularly for teaching family planning and may need health officers to help in teaching. The AED has to prove to other organisations that the fl and flp project helps to reduce the high rate of population growth and is able to develop a Khit-phen man by showing them the outcome of the project. This may persuade the organisations and the government to provide full support for the project.

Experts: Some of your materials do seem to tell the students how to behave.

Dr. Kowitz: The text on the back of the card is not used as an instruction to learn. It is an outline and answer which hopes to get answers from the learners for each particular lesson. The outcome of discussion might be very much like the text on the back of the card. It is written to provide the students with something to read about the problems. The message tries to reinforce the solutions that we hope will result from the discussion. If our prediction is right, the text will reinforce the solutions the class has discussed. But if the prediction is wrong, the text then is just a reading exercise.

Commentary: It is true, the text reveals the answers in different points from the students' response. So the teachers must study regional problems and take them as criteria to judge the answers of the students and they must listen to the students' opinions.

Experts: Does the functional literacy programme provide enough skill for a Khit-phen man to achieve

his/her goal and to implement his/her selected solution?

Dr. Kowitz:

Yes/No.

Yes, most of the rural community problems dealt with in this programme can be solved by the man himself and his group; problems like having animals under the house, problems like being able to feel that he has an important occupation as a farmer, therefore, he is important to the country; problems of whether to eat raw or uncooked fish etc. But there are many problems that will need assistance from other programmes if the participant is to fulfil his goal as a Khit-phen man, he may need a family planning service to achieve his goal if he decides to have a small family. He may have to be able to repair his own water pump if he wants to save money for his children to go to secondary school. These services are provided by various programmes conducted by various ministries including adult education programmes. However, it is difficult to get a Khit-phen man to waste much of his time in these extension programmes if the programmes do not have a flexible curriculum to meet his needs. A Khit-phen man who needs to learn to repair a simple water pump which may take only 10 hours to learn, may not wish to waste 300 hours to learn all kinds of other mechanics which he does not need. So a flexible curriculum can help the rural people to improve the quality of life.

Commentary:

Time of studies and contents of instruction for each course should be in balance because some subjects may need only 30 hours instead of 50 or 200.

Finally, the International experts advised that the fl and flp project should be designed to develop the characteristics of

Khit-phen man as a person who:

- recognizes his own potential in producing changes in his life.
- identifies problems and relates them to their causes.
- is capable of gathering information on alternatives.
- selects the one most capable to his own values in relation to his potential and social environment.
- accepts, at least temporarily, a lesson in curriculum which is a suitable solution while preparing for the solution of his choice.
- is able to justify his decision, at least to himself.
- accepts the consequences of his actions.

Obviously, the Khit-phen man concept has been rejected by some Thai educators. They say this concept is not flexible. It seeks only to develop critical thinking in individuals but it does not provide advantages for the development of the economy or society. In general, rural adults are Khit-phen men and know how to be flexible with new environments, but the lack of information and source of knowledge, the absence of technological advance and shortage of money to experiment with new things stop them thinking further, since they cannot afford the development process. Some educators advised that the major task of educational programmes should concentrate on providing skills and equipment rather than the development of 'Khit-phen'. This will help rural adults to cope with economic crises and later they will be happy if they can overcome economic problems. Nevertheless, the Khit-phen man concept will influence teaching in terms of the development of critical thinking of learners as well as improving their skills and experience.

At present, the AED sets up these conditions for implementing

the functional literacy programme in rural areas: (10)

- that it must be an area where a high per cent of illiteracy is found and there must be a large number of illiterate adults who show high interests and requirements for adult education.
- that areas must have qualified teachers and skilled men who can speak local dialects, know local problems, such as the community development workers who can be resource persons.
- accommodation for the programme is not necessary in a building; it can take place in a villager's house, a temple, village centre, etc.

Fees: (11) the students of functional literacy must pay tuition fees; for registration Baht 10, for receiving certificates Baht 5.

Subject taught is paid by credit; such as,

at level 3 charges Baht 10 per credit
at level 4, 5 charges Baht 15 per credit

80% of money from enrolments is for teaching expenditure, and 20% for general expenditure.

Types of Functional Literacy Course:

Functional is given at level 3 and 4 only after the students have completed elementary education at grade 4 level or have completed general adult education at fundamental level 1-2 as mentioned earlier.

Level 3: curriculum offers 30 credits minimum to complete the course, two types of subjects are indicated:

Subjects	Credit	hours/week
1. <u>Compulsory Subjects</u>		
Thai language 1	2	2
Family Life Planning 1	2	2
Family Life Planning 2	3	3
Family Life Planning 3	3	3
2. <u>Selective Subjects</u>		
Mathematics 1	4	4
Mathematics 2	4	4
Science 1	4	4
English 1	3	3
English 2	3	3
Vocational Subjects	9 (maximum)	

Level 4: must complete 50 credits

Subjects	Credits	hours/week
1. <u>Compulsory Subjects</u>		
Thai language 2	3	3
Thai language 3	4	4
Family Life Planning 4	4	4
Family Life Planning 5	4	4
Family Life Planning 6	5	5
2. <u>Selective Subjects</u>		
Mathematics 1	4	4
Mathematics 2	4	4
Mathematics 3	4	4
Mathematics 4	4	4
Sciences 1	4	4
Sciences 2	3	3
Sciences 3	3	3
English 2	3	3
English 3	4	4
English 4	5	5
Vocational Subjects	15 (maximum)	

Source: Krong-Karn-Patibut-Ngan Chiengmai, (Project of Chiengmai) 1977, p.13.

N.B.: Family Life Planning consists of subjects; social studies, health, population education, housing and other contents associated with social problems. Selective subjects may be taught at the contents or workshop at private companies. The contents of knowledge are flexible to enable adult students to study subjects that they need to gain experience.

III. Functional Literacy linked with Agricultural Development:

Agriculture provides the largest share of the gross domestic product of the country and it could say that the progress of Thailand's industry lies in the products of agriculture because it is a significant source of industrial income from export earning. As a result of this it is necessary that the government should consider the urgent need of rural development, particularly to improve modern farm technology. But in Thailand more than two-thirds of farmers are still illiterate and semi-literate, so agricultural modernization can at present remain only a dream and a remote possibility. Thus, literacy teaching becomes very important to agricultural development.

Besides setting up a new project to produce a large number of agriculturists and to expand agricultural schools into rural areas, the government has supported non-formal education programmes in rural areas of various ministries and voluntary organisations, and also provided grants to the MOE to initiate a new type of functional literacy programme related to agricultural development.

The government co-operated with Unesco to hold the Regional Field Operation Seminar on 'Functional Literacy Linked with

Agricultural Development' (Fl and AD) from 8th-28th October 1973 in Khon Khaen province of the Northeast. The four villages of Ban Ped, Ban Muang, Ban Learng and Ban Non Ton, in the Nong Wai area were selected as field work operations. It was the first field operation seminar held in Asia which attempted to link agricultural development with a functional literacy programme, and aimed at studying the problems of agricultural development, setting up suitable objectives for the Fl and AD, and determining curriculum and training needs of Thai farmers.

Thirty experts from Asian member states were invited to join the seminar. They were ^{from} Bangladesh, Indonesia, Khmer Republic, Laos, Malaysia, Thailand and Republic of Vietnam. There were also representatives from FAO, ILO, SEAMES and Unesco. Thailand's experts were from the universities, the Ministries of Agriculture and Education.

It was expected that the joint seminar would work out an effective functional literacy programme which would equip rural people 'with the necessary literacy skills, attitudes and ideas so that they may get the most benefit from all development programmes.'⁽¹²⁾ It also becomes a good practice for adult educators to realize what should be done in planning next agricultural development to link with functional literacy.

The Unesco representative provided useful ideas that 'to master complex agricultural practices, farmers must be able to read instructions and technical documentations, follow directions, calculate and measure surfaces and values. Functional literacy must transfer teaching into a truly educational process in the full sense of the word, that is, a training of the mind which

enables the individual to develop his capacity for rational and analytical thinking, so being able to make the right choice among many possible alternatives and apply what he has learnt in new situations in which his newly acquired knowledge is relevant. (13)

At first, the International experts needed to know the general background of agriculture in Thailand. They studied a monograph provided by the Ministry of Agriculture (see national policies, priorities and problems of agricultural development in Appendix 39) and also studied a monograph on the national programme of adult education which provided useful background information on the philosophy, curriculum development, teaching methods, production of educational materials and evaluation procedures. They also surveyed the social backgrounds of the four selected villages in order to understand the real situation of village life, particularly to discover a specific problem related to agricultural development. Such information would serve as the basis for determining the educational contents and objectives of the Fl and AD suitable for each village.

Before beginning to try the new curriculum of the Fl and AD programme, the International experts needed to train 11 selected teachers in the special teaching methods and knowledge. Most of them were already functional literacy teachers in the operative areas and were living locally. They were shown methods of teaching adults with particular emphasis on group discussion, also demonstration and using audio visual aids. Explanations were given about the targets of agricultural development, the facts about local environments which were discovered by the

experts, contents of the learning experience units; also integration of communication and vocational skills. The experts demonstrated how to teach with a learning unit. This project would . . . succeed or fail according to the quality of the teachers' performances.

Experimentation of new types of agricultural training and functional literacy:

The international experts divided themselves into three groups in order to make different trials in the new curriculum as following:

Team A used sampling method in selecting its target group which consisted of 23 males and 11 females. Experimentation was done through two groups: the existing functional literacy class composed of young men and young women, and a non-formal group composed of adult farmers. The educational activities for the literacy class were conducted in the afternoon in the premises of the elementary school in Ban Learning. Demonstrations were also conducted to demonstrate the proper way of spraying pest-infested fields. The meeting with farmers took place in the Reading Centre.

The team prepared two learning experiment units for the two groups: (1) proper use of manure and fertilizers; (2) Pest control. The literacy class used teaching method as usually conducted for literacy learning. The team applied a different method adapted to the specific needs, educational level and interests of the farmers to teach ^{the} farmer group.

Team B used the stratified sampling method to select its target group, which consisted of 27 males and 9 females - with ages

ranging between 21-60 years, all married. The team prepared five learning experience units for teaching this group: (1) pests and diseases cause great damage to rice; (2) proper use of insecticide; (3) proper use of fertilizers; (4) advantage of farmers' association; (5) organization of farmers' associations.

The functional literacy class was conducted in the temple, which was more centrally located than the elementary local school and consisted of 24 adult students. The class was held in the evening. This was convenient for the adult students as it was in their free time. The team used an agricultural extension worker to demonstrate on agricultural technique.

Team C interviewed some of the 375 farm families in Ban Non Ton village, and carried out an experiment with the existing literacy class, which consisted of 6 males and 24 females. The team determined the appropriate^{topics} which was based on growing rice in the dry season, and constructed learning experiences around the following topics: more rice more money; water arrangement; seeds; fertilizers.

Those three teams needed to prove that when the Fl and AD programme was organised carefully and the content based on an intensive social survey and an identified problem - situation, the achievement would be great in a comparison with other functional literacy programmes. The teams used visual perception and literacy tests to determine the students' achievement. The evaluation process should be explained clearly; it provides a good picture to understand if functional literacy is linked with agricultural development and whether it will provide advantages for adult students and whether it is worthwhile to invest in a

new type of functional literacy teaching.

Two examples show the difference of students' behaviour and achievements of the literacy class and the farmer class:

I. Learning Unit concerned with Proper Use of Manure and Fertilizers: (see Appendices 40)

The Literacy Class

Pre-test showed 7.7 of mean score and of post-test showed 9.4. This proved that the students gained additional knowledge from the learning unit.

The students' performance was judged good. They showed high interest in concepts they were being exposed to. Their participation in the learning activities was good.

A criticism was that the computational exercise was too complicated for the students whose level of arithmetic skills was still very low.

The teachers succeeded in applying and following the teaching styles. Their training background in methodology was decidedly a positive factor.

The Farmer Class

Farmers were confused in the sequence of educational activities. They answered correctly 73% in pre-test and 100% in post-test. This showed that the farmers understood the message and were able to interpret the meaning and express their attitudes.

It was found that the farmers know a lot of fertilizers but they wanted to make use of the session as a forum for exchanging their experiential knowledge. They were looking for the proper information.

The farmers were eager to present their problems to the agricultural extension agent and participated enthusiastically.

The teacher did not follow the plan of the activity that was prepared by the group. It seemed that he did not understand well the activity he had to carry out. It was evident that the teacher had no real competence for teaching the subject of agricultural practices. It was noticed that the instructor lacked self-confidence.

I should say that observation and supervision of the experts may affect the self-confidence of the teacher when he felt that someone was taking notice of his behaviour.

The Literacy Class

The audio-visual aids were judged good in terms of their relevance, clarity and organisation.

Limiting factors were mainly physical ones such as classroom arrangement, light condition and disturbance by observers.

II. Pest Control Unit:

The students made a mean score at pre-test of 6.5 and post-test 7.1. This proved they had improved but not as much as in the first unit.

Female students were not interested in the subjects and joined in less.

It was found the learning activities were compatible with the students' level of intellectual abilities and technical knowledge.

Critical comment from the observers was that the learning experience could be improved by giving more attention to individual students such as reading and in the use of the spraying equipment. The new arrangement of seats in a circle was an advantage.

However, the teacher's performance was judged at least as good as in the previous unit.

The Farmer Class

The farmers showed very much interest in the charts. The visual aids enabled them to translate their practical knowledge into reasoned knowledge.

Experienced the same problems.

The small margin between the results of the pre-test and the post-test was 12.5% (99.22% - 86.71%). This led the team to think that the learning experience had little interest for the farmers. They appeared to be rather disappointed by the simplicity of the activity and asked more searching questions.

Four or five persons, supposed to be the local opinion leaders, tended to dominate the discussions which should have involved all the members on an equal basis.

The teacher was rather ill-prepared and often found himself in difficulties due to a lack of background information. During teaching he neglected to emphasize the key sentences and to make a smooth progression from one point to another.

This proved that the teacher of farmers should be either someone who is experienced in agricultural extension or a teacher of adult education should join in teaching with an agricultural extension worker.

Team C commented that the teacher in the functional literacy class did not know how to initiate discussion nor how to motivate the

students. He should be helped in these points and be trained in the use of teaching techniques such as demonstration, discussion, problem solving and resource persons.

In conclusion, careful analysis of the tests of the three teams gave the following results:

- the literacy class scored lower than the farmers class, perhaps their educational attainment was lower. This proved that experience and educational background are important factors to improve achievement. (14)
- the visual perception test showed that the students easily identified the message of a picture without background details.
- males scored higher than females in all tests. This might be because their experience in social life is stronger than females, which could add their knowledge.
- the number of years spent in schooling showed no influence on the students' visual perception ability. Visual perception regressed rapidly beginning at age 55. The highest scores were obtained by the age group 18-29. This showed that mental ability is advanced and well developed in younger people. But the age group 45-49 scored higher than the age group 30-44.
- some of the major criticisms were: the activities were too numerous; the pace was too quick; and many concepts were not explained in depth.
- the farmers showed a very strong interest in the functional literacy programme and even those who were not selected to form the class insisted on being included in the activities in order to gain benefit from them.
- the results of the attitude test were even more encouraging in the sense that they showed marked improvement in the student's critical thinking, self-reliance and self-confidence.

Finally, the International experts recommended that as agriculture is the principal occupation of the villagers in Thailand, agricultural improvement should become a priority in economic and social development of rural areas. They advised the agricultural development for farmers should have several aspects

such as advanced farming techniques, irrigation, use of fertilizers and pest control. The proper use of these techniques requires a high level of knowledge and skill on the part of the farmers so it becomes necessary that functional literacy should be applied as a counterpart of agricultural development because it provides the farmers the ability to read, to write, to calculate, to think rationally and to solve problems collectively. So the Fl and AD programme has to include technical knowledge, agriculture and literacy skills.

Experience from the seminar provided useful suggestions for the AED and the Ministry of Agriculture. Nevertheless, the AED did not seriously conduct functional literacy linked with agricultural development project because there was a shortage of experts to handle the agricultural knowledge. This project has been largely carried out by the Ministry of Agriculture with an assistance from the MOI.

Although functional literacy programmes could play an important role in social and economic development, they may be unable to produce solutions of difficulties which are not the result of educational deficiencies. However, it may become a reality, if they are helped and co-operated with by other bodies who are specialized in the agricultural field. If the AED is unable to afford to fund the Fl and AD programme, and if the result might be doubtful, it would be better to leave this task for the Ministry of Agriculture and the MOI who have responsibility for the agricultural development project and elementary education improvement in rural areas. The AED may join them in providing reading materials for functional literacy classes, supplying the

teachers and supporting the adult educators to take part in programme planning. Nevertheless, the AED may incorporate some knowledge and technology related to agriculture into the functional literacy classes as a subsidiary topic.

At present, the AED has used several types of functional literacy teaching adopted from the ideas of the International experts; for example, there are regular classes which are organized at convenient places; there is a home-bound teacher programme; there are also functional literacy programmes, organized through Buddhist monks; and special programmes for hill-tribes.

IV. Home-Bound Teacher Approach:

After having conducted the functional literacy programme for 4 years, the AED found that a large number of illiterate adults were unable to participate regularly, particularly women who were not free in the evening and met the difficulty to journey for attending evening classes. Another problem was the adequate employment of teachers. The programme paid highly for teachers' training and recruitment, but after a year of working in the target village, the pool of illiterate adults was exhausted and the teachers were no longer needed. To try and solve these problems, the AED and the provincial adult education centres designed a sub-project, called 'Walking Teachers Approach' (or Home-Bound Teachers). By this means the services of the fl and flp programmes could be extended to a large number of illiterates and the services should reach every village household, if possible, and the teachers would also be kept in employment.

In 1975, the first sub-project was tried out in educational region 8, in the North and 3 provinces, Chiangmai, Nan and Chiang-rai

were selected as walking areas. Fifty-two home bound teachers were sent to teach 15 groups of adult students. The project was not successful, it was not interesting to housewives and young villagers. The AED did not abolish this project but made a new effort in 1976 in the same provinces and selected 852 adults as students with 22 home bound teachers.⁽¹⁵⁾ It was successful, the results from questionnaires and observations were that the students said they were satisfied with the teaching methods, particularly in pair-matching, report work, and the study tour. Males were more interested in brain-storming, small group discussion and conversation than the females. The latter preferred practical work to other methods, they said they thought the project created social interaction between the villagers and the teachers. They improved their literary skills and their public speaking. They advised the AED to carry on this project, because it would benefit illiterate women who live in remote villages, who would be able to learn literary skills as well as interesting vocational subjects in their homes.

The AED hoped that the project may reach rural people and help to eradicate illiteracy rapidly. The following table shows the increasing numbers of enrolments in the project. In 1975, the total enrolment in five provinces was 1131 adults but increased in 1977 totalling 2717. This confirms that illiterate adults were showing increasing interest in the project.

These figures show that 735 males passed an examination, but a high number failed (699). A high number of females passed the examination than failed, 640 against 200. Thus, in comparison, females were more successful than males. There were a high

Provinces (the North)	Enrolment		Drop out		Graduates	
	M	F	M	F	M	F
Chieng Mai	221	97	5	15	71	37
Lampang	135	105	46	27	88	79
Nan	292	175	52	36	224	121
Chieng-rai	819	506	112	109	225	266
Pichit	183	184	32	40	127	137
Total	1,650	1,067	247	227	735	640

Source: The Adult Education Division, 1978.

number of drop-outs, both male and female. This point needs to be investigated whether it is because of the subjects taught, the time or the teachers. If rural adults notice its failures and disadvantages, they may later refuse to take part in learning activities. The organisers should question the students who had dropped out of classes, to find out why they did not continue studying. They may have disliked the course or may have had personal reasons which were not related to the project. Teaching adults at home is not easy. Parents may not want to learn things in front of their children, and appear in a different role as students. They may be embarrassed and decide to drop out. Time convenience is also important. If the language used is unsuitable it may be a factor discouraging adults from participating in classes. Can the teachers teach and talk to them in their own dialect? Can the teachers make good social relationships and communicate well with the learners? All these are important factors to determine the success or failure of the home bound teachers project.

Actual Work of the Lifelong Education Centre (LEC) in
Providing Adult Education Programmes for Rural Women:

In my visits to some LECs in the North, I was interested in their task, particularly their adult education programmes which are designed to satisfy a target group's needs. The following section describes their work task. The LECs are the most important representative organisations of the AED at provincial level to bring decentralized adult education and to promote lifelong education at local areas as : has already^{been} pointed out in an earlier chapter. From studying the work of all LECs in 12 educational regions, it is found most of the exercises, plans, design aims and types of adult education are entirely the same. This is because the AED requires every LEC to keep strictly to a particular type of programme which provides a common nature that all LECs could share a mutual planning and solution. However, each LEC can apply different methods and curriculums suitable to local interests and circumstances. The model programmes which are copied by every LEC, are as follows:

- general adult education literacy
- functional literacy
- vocational adult school
- interest group
- mobile vocational training
- public education
- rural youth training
- farmer training

It is not difficult to examine the operation of these programmes, when every LEC applies the same models in its own province.

Pichit Lifelong Education Centre will be a case study. It is a centre in the North, close to Chiangmai province. As its task is discussed it will illustrate the work of other centres also, because the official report of each centre was examined and they confirmed that they have really more or less the same modes of working.

Organisation:

Staff of the LEC; the Pichit provincial education officers proposed a project to set up an LEC in 1976 and it was approved in ^{the} latter year. The AED recommended that it should include approximately 24 qualified educators and staff to run the centre. Those persons are:

1. Head of the LEC: pre-requisite education - MA in administration or two years experience as administrator and ability to speak local dialects. He/she must have a responsibility for overall administration also co-ordination with other agencies and eliciting their support in mobilizing public interest. Finally, he/she must organize local committees to support the LEC.

At present, Mr. Kanjana, who completed an M.Ed. degree in adult education from the Silpakorn University has this position.

2. Administration Office (5 persons)

Chief of administration, pre-requisite education B.A. or certificate in business administration, and two or more years experience.

A typist who must be qualified with commercial school experience and hold the certificate of secondary education, grade 10.

Janitors (2 persons) - with grade 4 educational attainments.

3. Resource Unit (6 persons)

The Unit Chief must hold a B.Ed. and have had 2 years experience. His responsibility is overseeing all unit activities including the library and audio visual services. His assistant must have a certificate in business administration. Other staff are librarians and audio-visual technicians.

4. Programme Co-ordination Unit (3 persons)

The Unit Chief must hold a B.Ed. or equivalent, and be able to speak local dialects. His responsibility is to contact and recruit teachers, keep records of learners, teachers and their interest for the learning exchange; to provide facilities and run all adult classes in the centre. His staff consists of one assistant and a typist.

5. Library and Lifelong Centre

It consists of head of library, librarian, programme co-ordinator, audio-visual technician, typist and janitor.

6. Secondary School Lifelong Centre consists of chief librarian, programme co-ordinator.

7. Rural Lifelong Centre will be staffed by villagers and other volunteers. The LEC will provide the assistance of training staff.

The Pichit LEC could not make up the 24 staff required by the AED because of the shortage of qualified adult educators and lacked of financial support at provincial level. At present it is composed of 17 staff; 10 men and 7 women. Their qualifications are:

Sex	M.Ed.	B.Ed.	Vocational Certificates	Lower than secondary education grade 10
Men	1	-	6	3
Women	1	-	6	-
Total	2	-	12	3

Source: The Pichit Lifelong Education Centre, 1978.

Only two persons in charge of an administration section are qualified by holding a higher degree of adult education. The majority of the teachers hold vocational certificates, specialized in a particular subject which is required for teaching interest group in this province.

Costs of investment and effectiveness:

In practice, it is difficult to evaluate the costs of investment in adult education programmes. This is because several agencies run the programmes under their finance and some of the expenditures are not included in annual report. However, it would be best to investigate the costs of investment in adult education in order to examine which programme needs a higher investment than others, and whether it would be worthwhile or not to invest in it. The expenditure on adult education of the LEC is a good example to show the interest of the government in supporting and designating a particular programme. The following table is about a project operated in 1978 at Pichit province, and shows the costs of investment per year.

These statistics show the high costs of investment in a functional literacy programme, short-term vocational training and general adult education, but they require^a lower cost per participant than that of the specialist courses as rural youth training and farmers training. Such extension training needs a lower total cost, but the cost per participant is obviously high. Although information on the effectiveness of these programmes is not available, it can possibly be obtained through an analysis of the number of graduates and costs of investment in each programme. For example, the vocational skill

Programmes Operation	Expenditure (teachers' allowance, salary and equipment)	Graduates (target population)	Cost of investment per head (Baht)
General Adult Education			
Literacy	*** 222,900	600	371.50
Functional Literacy	* 618,300	1,500	412.20
Vocational Adult School	13,200	90	146.60
Interest Group	90,000	3,000 (120 groups)	30.00
Short term vocational training	** 318,985	300 (at centre) 800 (mobile units))))) 289.90
Mobile Library	5,200	Service 3,000 villagers in 20 villages	1.74
Public Education	10,500	35,100 target population	.30
Newspaper Reading Centre	82,125	35 centres (number will expand in each year)	2,343.53 (per centre)
Rural Youth Training	50,000	50	1,000.00
Farmer Training	50,000	40	1,250.00
Mobile Vocational Unit	22,370	840	27.70

Source: Statistic of costs and graduates are gathered from the Pichit LEC and calculated to find out cost investment per head by the writer.

training and interest groups are the most effective programmes, because they need a low investment per head but obtain high output by being able to educate a large number of students using a small budget. Supplementary education such as public education, library, newspaper reading centre; also does not need a high investment, but it is difficult to evaluate its achievement and to count the number of people who use these services. This annual budget tells us that the LEC pays more to support rural people for improving their literacy than others. In fact, it should allocate larger funds to support agricultural education than literacy programme because the country is ^{at} a low level of agricultural development and the rural farmers need to know more about farm technologies than other fields.

Comparing the costs of investment between formal school education and adult education, shows that elementary education in school consumes more time and more expenditure. Students spend 4 years in elementary education with a total investment per head of Baht 2,404 and recurrent cost per pupil in elementary education at grade 7 level was Baht 1,151 per year in 1978 and increased to Baht 1,168 in 1979⁽¹⁶⁾. An adult student takes 1 year to complete level 2 equivalent to elementary education at grade 4 level but needs only Baht 371.50 per head in investment. It is worthwhile to allocate a large annual budget for adult education. It helps to economise on the educational budget and is able to raise the number of qualified men and women in a shorter period, instead of the many years taken in children's schools.

If adult education can produce qualified manpower in a short period, there is a question that will these adult students reach

the same standards as the schooling students?

Many researchers have attempted to find this out; for example, Somshong's research in 1973 'on the degree of literacy of adult students graduated from functional literacy and family life planning programme in KhonKaen province',⁽¹⁷⁾, discovered that the adult students who completed the programme at level 2 had less skill in applying knowledge of calculation than the elementary students at grade 4 level. But they had more or less equivalent ability to elementary students at grade 3 level. She concluded that different environments affected the learning ability of the adult students. They were incapable of applying mathematics because their daily life was seldom concerned with calculation. Most of them were farmers and had a typical rural life in which there was no need for calculation. In contrast, from the evaluation of reading and writing ability in the Thai language, it was found that the adult students reaching the same standard as the elementary students at grade 4 level and of higher ability than those at grade 3 level.

In 1973, Mayuree's research on 'the degree of literacy of adult students at level 2', found the same result as Somshong. She concluded that 'the ability of the adult students at level 2 was lower than elementary students at grade 4 level, but higher than those at grade 3 level.'⁽¹⁸⁾

Chaowanee's research (1973) comparing the learning achievement of 355 graduates of adult classes level 3, and 320 elementary students at grade 7 level in Bangkok by using standardized test from the Test Bureau of Sreenakarinwirot University, discovered that the adult students had a lower achievement in the Thai

language and mathematics than the ^{elementary} students she concluded that achievement might be influenced by two factors; academic aptitudes and classroom environments. (19)

These researches were conducted in different regions, but they found the same results. Nevertheless, it is difficult to say that adult education provides a lower standard than formal education. Several factors influence learning ability of adult students; for example, the time schedule: the adult class needs 1 year to complete level 2 equivalent to elementary education at grade 4 level while the pupils have to take 4 years or more. Intensive learning is given to adult classes but it contains the same knowledge and curriculum as for elementary students. The adult students may dislike learning academic knowledge which is not useful in their daily life. They may be unable to remember as many facts as children do, because the ability to memorize declines with age. So ability tests may be invalid. The tests found that adults could learn better if knowledge related to everyday experience. This result induced the adult education planners to revise the curriculum and make it suitable to adults' abilities and to meet their needs. It must be linked with problem-situation and the students' experiences. It is not necessary to compare the learning effectiveness of adult classes and pupils because each type of class has different nature and different ambitions of the students.

New Approach to Rural Adult Education:

I. Mobile Vocational Unit: 3 mobile units are set up; Mobile Trade Training Schools (MTTS); Mobile Audio- Visual Information Units and Small Mobile Units. These mobiles offer a short, low

cost and flexible training programme in non-agricultural skills for rural people.

The MTTs^{was} initiated in the early 1960s and aimed at providing skill training and improving employment opportunities for out-of-school rural youths. This was to meet the increasing requirements for semi-skilled and skilled workers foreseen in the national development plan. Priority was at first given to designated 'sensitive areas' where anti-government forces were active, and later the programme was spread to other areas and by 1976, 47 MTTs were located in rural towns and provincial centres with 20,120 students and 415 teachers (see table 2§).

Students: adult students must have an educational background of elementary education at least at grade 4 level, but there is a flexible admission at remote villages, the students who have completed only elementary education at grade 2 level are admitted. Men and women are given equal opportunity to enrol for the courses provided. Experience showed that the majority of the students had already some form of employment when they entered the programme.

Location: with the help of the district education officers, the MTTs is located in a building which has electricity available. It offers 300 hour courses or a period of 3 months or to 2 years. Then, the decision to move out is based on a request from local officers, a survey of training needs in other towns and the availability of physical facilities for the operation of the courses. The training is either free of charge or there are tuition fees.

Staff: the full-time staff for a MTTs typically consists of a principal and 7 to 9 instructors, each teaching one speciality. Formal qualifications for instructors are quite high reflecting the MOE's standard. They include graduation from a post-secondary technical institute or vocational teacher's college; normally requiring a total of 15 years experience of formal schooling. Technical institute graduates must also have a year of teacher training, especially designed for the MTTs programme in the Bangkok Technical School. The MTTs teachers receive substantial bonus payment from enrolments over and above the normal levels to attract them away from Bangkok. (20)

Content: each MTTs offers training in a variety of skills chosen from a standard list and taught according to a nationally standardized syllabus such as, dressmaking, tailoring, hairdressing, barbering, embroidery, food preparation, book-keeping, typing, radio-repairing, electric wiring and installation, auto-mechanics, welding and woodwork.

The MTTs serves rural people only at provincial level in order to prepare young school leavers to earn a living with such mentioned training skills.

At remote villages, the Mobile Audio-Visual Information Units are provided by the MOI, aiming to overcome the problem of keeping a widely scattered population informed of what is going on in the world and in the country; to show new films and carry out public relation duties for the provincial governors, and to explain the government's policy.

The LEC has the responsibility of running small mobile units and provides subjects chosen for group interest, and skill training

is mostly concerned with simple structure which can help the trainees to develop themselves and families. Rural people do not need specialized and sophisticated skills to get better employment in business enterprises. They need a wider range of skills and more ingenuity in applying them. Usually, the units remain in a village for 3 months, then move on to other villages.

When the writer visited the Pichit LEC in January 1978, it had some small mobile units to serve remote villages. Each village had a leader to organise group learning. He listed the wanted programme and proposed it to the LEC. Training skills were mostly designed to improve individual capacities and to enable the young villagers to use their leisure time better. From the applications, it was found that males and females were interested in different subjects. Females preferred to learn about feminine skills; for example, no females applied for radio-repairing, metalwork, auto-mechanics or installing electric wires. When the local leader was asked why he did not encourage females to participate in such courses, he explained that everyone was given the right to list her/his name for what training skill she/he wished. Many young girls chose some courses because of friends and refused to join the same training course as males. The writer interviewed some young girls at Klong Kachaen district where the small mobile unit was operating. Most of them said their most urgent need was for skill training in dressmaking; flower-arranging was second; and food preservation was third. They said making clothes was expensive, they could not afford to pay for dressmakers and it was worthwhile to learn this skill, then, they could make clothes for the family and also earn a living using their skill as a part-time job.

The writer noticed that this district was very dry and the land lacked fertilizer, which would be needed in an urgent solution, but the villagers said they did not want to have agricultural training because it was natured to have dry lands. They needed to learn animal rearing, particularly of pigs, ducks and hens as a secondary occupation, but they were facing the problem of animal disease and they needed help. So the LEC should consider these needs. When the villagers could not improve their income from their major occupation of growing crops, it is best to persuade them to make animal rearing a major occupation, and they need to learn the many skills of this field before changing to this new occupation.

The Pichit LEC through its experience in providing small mobile units since 1974, found the range of interests among males and females in different subjects as in the following table.

Figures show a high number of males than females in every course and in every year of operation. It shows the females have been more interested in dressmaking than others. This suggests to the planners at Pichit LEC that they need to discover what is the other special need of rural women. They may need other training skills besides dressmaking, but they may either feel too shy to enter a new type of training, or do not realize what is the real need. The planners may consider what is the local need as a basis for designing a particular course for village women. They must be awakened to a realization of their real needs in skill training, and of the significance of other subjects which would provide them with opportunities to earn a better living. By surveying the areas, it is seen that the Pichit province contains rivers and

Number of Graduates from Small Mobile Units

Year Subject	1974		1975		1976		1977		1978		Total	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
metalwork	40		9								49	-
radio repairing			68		41		20		85	5	214	5
electric wiring and installation	48	2			46		17		94		208	2
small mechanic repairing			83		142		17		169		311	-
dressmaking		78		30						60		178
mechanics	33		9								42	
cookery				19						67		86
tailoring	5	10							67	3	72	13
Total	126	90	169	49	229		54		415	135	896	284

Source: received information and statistics from the Pichit LEC and classified sex enrolment differentials by the writer.

Number of Graduates from Vocational Training Courses at Centre

Year Subjects	1971		1972		1973		1974		1975		1976		1977		Total	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
mechanics	38		61		25		19	1	21		33		67		264	1
metalwork	23		23		18		16		3						83	
electricity	28		36		26		6	1							96	1
radio-repairing	26		14		14		15								69	
tailoring	8	22	76		3	36	1	35	1	33	3	41	67	3	159	174
dressmaking		32		71		82		88		100		107		100		580
cookery		25		31		26		44		12		26		57		221
typing			13	36	10	35	13	21	10	34	5	13	46	88	95	227
hairdressing		32		20						9	1	34			1	95
Total	123	111	223	158	96	179	70	190	35	188	42	221	113	158	767	1,399

Source: the Pichit LEC, 1978.

pools so that the village women could earn a living from fishing and fish-rearing. So the LEC may offer them a fish-rearing course and introduce new techniques of fishing. This course may be attractive to women in remote villages when they see the benefit to earn a living from using new methods of fish-rearing.

The LEC also organized vocational training at the Pichit centre. It was long term training needing 300 hours minimum to complete each course. Here, it was found more females were participants than males as shown in the table on page 209.

The vocational training courses required a minimum educational background of elementary education at grade 4 level, with an age of 15 and over. Figures show the enrolment of females in feminine subjects only; dressmaking, tailoring, cookery, typing and hairdressing. Dressmaking has occupied the highest number of enrolments for 7 years. It was said that the provincial centre showed a high number of female participants because of their free time. Mostly, they were the daughters of self-employed or were housewives. The evidence of the AED and the LECs indicated that women claimed to be using their Mobile Training Skills at home, but apparently not for income earning purposes.

From the experience of the mobile training unit approach, several problems were revealed which led to lack of success of the project; for example, before deciding what type of skill training to offer the village women, there was no serious effort to investigate the local skill market and its likely future needs. Such blind approach reduced benefits from the investment. 'Some of the trainees already had work experience and a part-time job so the training might help them advance in that job, or it might

help them find a better one. Others without a job presumably wanted to find one. Still others aspired to become self-employed, to set up their own small business if they could, and eventually become employers. But the MTTs had no regular provision for placing its trainees in appropriate jobs in the area, nor for offering them more advanced technical training later on when they needed it. There also appeared to be no provision inside or outside the MTTs for rudimentary management training and counselling, help in getting credit or for any other necessary support services for those who wanted to become small entrepreneurs.'(21)

The mobile training unit concentrated more on non-farm skill training; but remote villages are engaged mainly in agriculture, so it would be beneficial if the project included agricultural training in the schedule in order to help woman farmers in their work.

Although the village women were asked to set up group learning and to propose the subjects needed, in practice, the LEC and the AED provided training courses only in relation to their capacities for supplying skilled teachers and vehicles. So the project failed to relate to the realistic needs of the trainees and environments, and most subjects and contents were strongly biased by the urban backgrounds or urban typical non-formal education programme which were not useful to rural backgrounds.

Economists and educational planners criticized that the standardized courses, which were offered to rural people as a whole, did not make a reasonably systematic employment market study. In fact, each community has different needs; individuals

also have different ambitions, needs and interests and the local market needs different skilled manpower: so the LEC should not overlook such backgrounds. It is not necessary to adopt all the standardized syllabus of the AED, for rural people. The basic design of the mobile units should emphasize vocational skills for job-employment of the young women and agricultural training for women in farm-working to raise incomes from new techniques of crop-growing. From observation, the mobile unit at the Pichit province faced the problem of pressure groups who were afraid of losing their own advantages if the villagers could learn new skills; for example, the electricity installing experts in provincial business discouraged the villagers from coming for training courses and publicized the danger of being involved with electricity and machines. They made the villagers fear to receive such skill training; so that they would continue to be employed for mechanical repairing and electric installation. In many cases, the LEC officials need to make counter-propaganda for the programme and so try to overcome the pressure group's actions. Communication and co-operation with the village leaders are important because they can influence the villagers' decisions.

However, the planners of the mobile units claimed that they have been successful, particularly in low costs per trainee and of buildings, because they used borrowed or low cost rented facilities. They could reduce staff costs considerably by hiring local skilled men, and part-time instructors for certain courses. The planners commented that as the mobile training unit approach was so young, it might face several problems and experience would enable them to improve the programme, especially to link the skill training with developmental activities in the areas,

and to increase the amount of training in agricultural development as well as in industrial skills. The length of courses will be varied for different skills to satisfy individual differences.

II. Interest Group Programme: aims at providing a particular subject training based on requests. It can be organized in two ways: 'One is to survey the interests and needs of the people to find out what types of educational activities they want. A group of at least 15 persons with a common interest, will be provided with an appropriate resource person. In this procedure, the organisers will take the initiative of organizing the class and preparing the curriculum.'⁽²²⁾ In the other method, the initiative will come from the people themselves. They make the request and suggest the employment of resource persons. The subject wanted must be based on the problems, needs and interests of the villagers; so that what is studied can provide the knowledge and experience necessary to help improve the individuals and community. Each course is expected not to exceed 30 hours. Interest group programme can be highly beneficial to the people because it is able to fulfil public needs directly and is more easily put into practice. Many people are interested in this so every LEC has planned to increase its annual budgets. Pichit LEC classified the annual budget for this programme as the fourth largest amount of adult education expenditure as shown in earlier table. Experience in the past revealed that interest in dressmaking was the most common for the women; hairdressing was second; and flower-making, cookery, mushroom growing, knitting, mat and net making were less common choices. No woman applied for agricultural training or basic knowledge on marketing although these skills are essential because women are also

working on farms and some are self-employed.

The LEC also provided training skills for local leaders who were selected as representatives of the interest groups. They were instructed in the principles and policy of lifelong education, communication techniques and interest group procedures. It could provide training for 65 representatives in each year.

Village Newspaper Reading Centres:

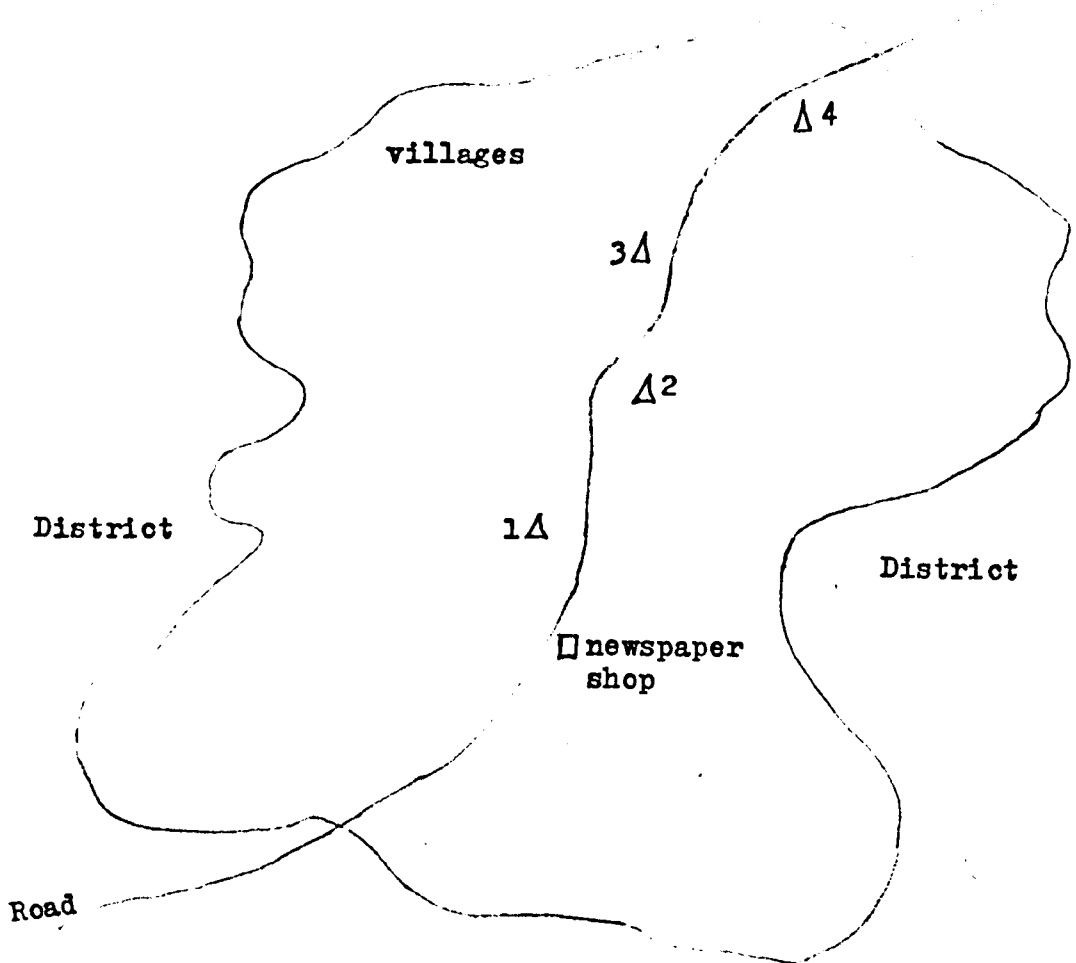
Urban women have more opportunity than the rural women for contact with the mass media. The big city is able to provide full information resources such as newspapers, magazines, T.V., radio, libraries, theatre and government's publication. Isolated villages seem rarely to get good services from the mass media because of the shortage of newspaper agencies and transport problem. Urban women are also more active than rural women because they live in a competitive society which presses them to seek further knowledge throughout their lives, while the absence of pressure leaves the rural women lethargic and uninterested in change. From past literacy surveys and research it was found that less than 20% of rural people had any opportunity for further education. Those who completed elementary education at grade 4 level would rarely have time to further improve their reading skills, and would eventually relapse into illiteracy. A study done by the AED in 1972 showed that 33% of rural people who completed elementary education at grade 4 level had a tendency to become illiterate within a few years after leaving schools. This means that of 6,000 million Baht invested in elementary education each year, about 2,000 million Baht was wasted. (23)

The newspaper reading habit can be seen among officials and

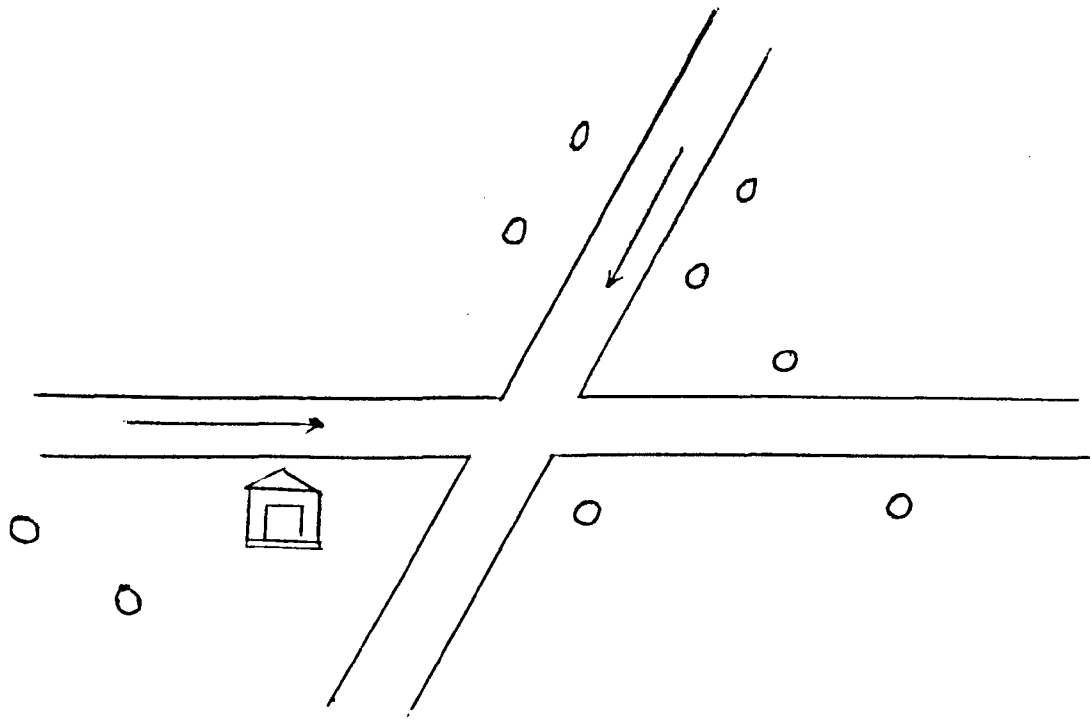
businessmen at rural level, but the increasing degree of village isolation generally has a tendency to decrease the degree of newspaper reading. So success in literacy campaign requires that organisers take into account the importance of developing and providing general reading matter for rural women. If the rural women improve the habit of reading, they would enable themselves to understand the general affairs of the nation and later would cause further changes in their ways of living because of the influence of information resources, particularly from urban cultural life.

The AED started a newspaper reading centre (NRC) project in 1971. It became a self-help project in that the villagers selected its accommodation, contributed money and men to construct a reading room and equipment. A survey found that the NRC was simple in construction and consisted of no more than a large room, with a few chairs, racks for newspapers and some secure cupboard space. It was near a main road, or at the centre of the village which was convenient for the readers to get to, as shown in the pictures on pages 216 and 217.

The village NRC can be used not only as a place where the villagers can come to read newspapers, but also as a centre for the dissemination of information. It becomes the social activity centre for the village where discussion is held about daily life problems and the government's affairs. The villagers like to come here and contribute some money for buying printing materials, so it becomes a small library at village level. The MOE, the AED, the LEC and various ministries also supply simple text books and other printing materials for the centre. There is the centre for Book Donation which forwards the books to the village NRCs;

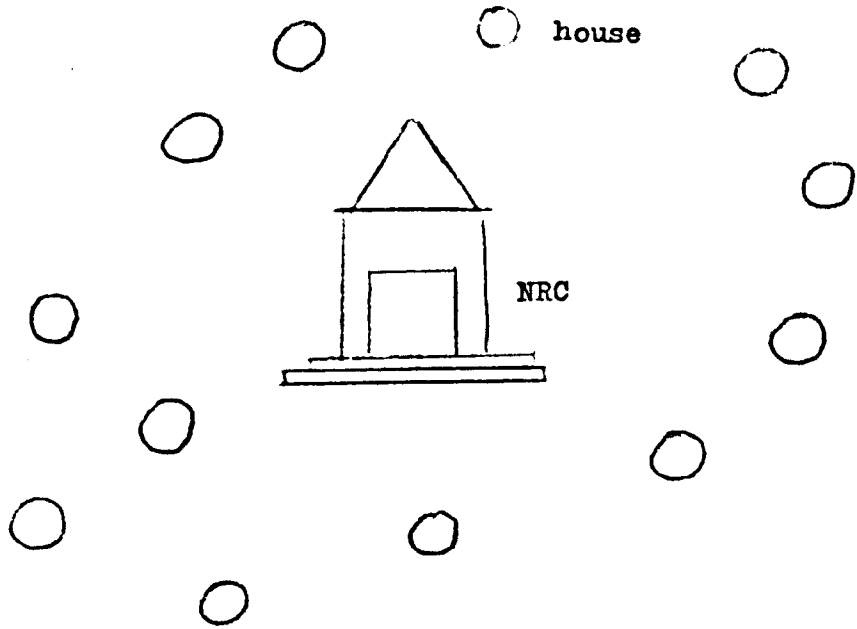


Picture 1: the NRCs should be set up along the same road for convenience of newspaper agencies to deliver the newspapers to several centres at the same time. It saves their time and help to keep down expenses.

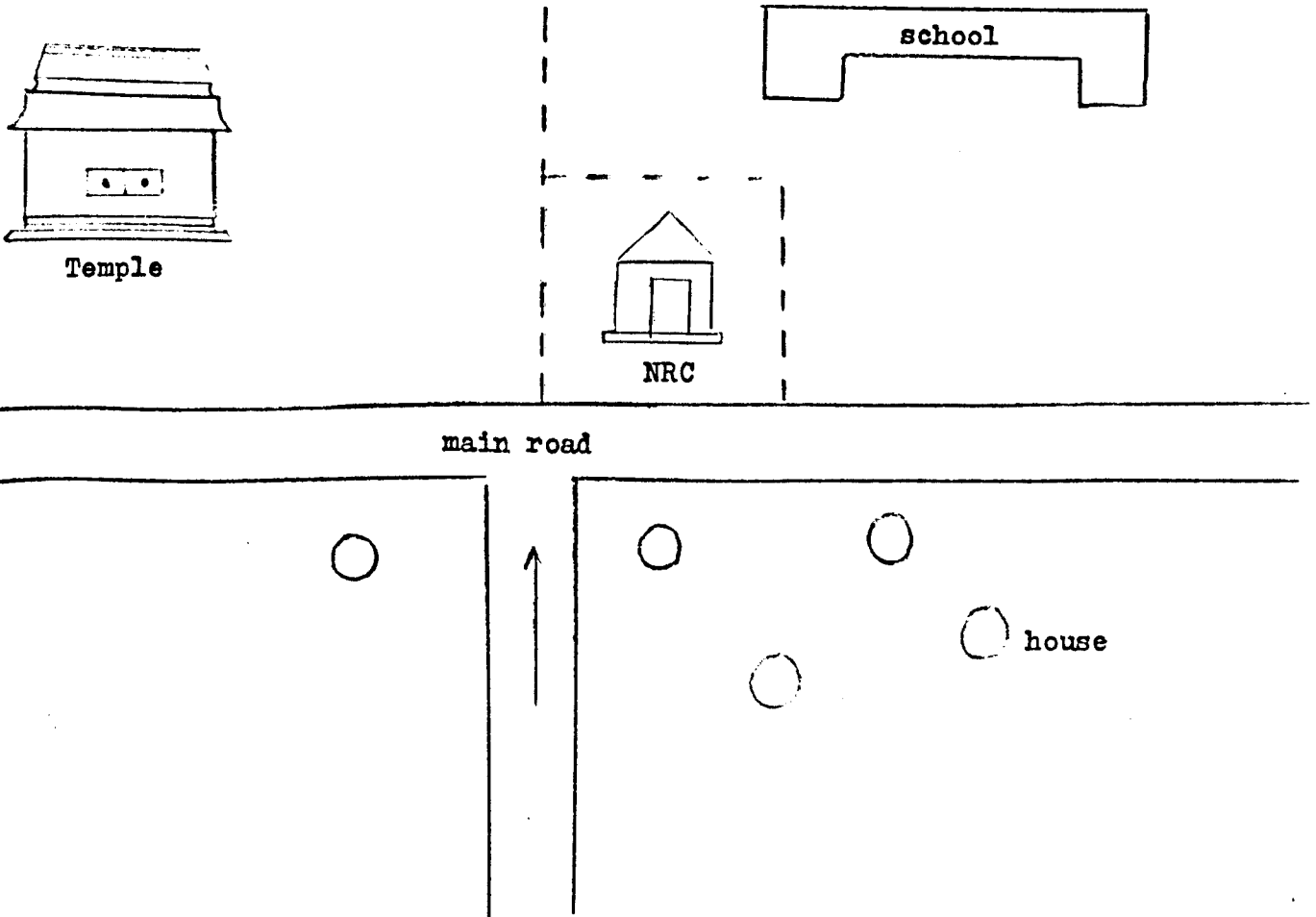


Picture 2: the NRC should set up near junction, where people are passing by.

O = village



Picture 3: The NRC should be surrounded by villagers' houses.



Picture 4: The NRC should not be close to a temple or school; it should be set up near passage way.

in 1975 the number of books donated totalled 3,499,800 from more than one-hundred thousand donors.

The MOE designated the village NRCs as one important tool to eradicate illiteracy. A plan to extend the centres towards rural areas as a whole was put into the Third National Development Plan. The number of centres was increased as in the following table:

Year	Number of Centres	Money (Baht)
1972	85	92,075
1973	2,522	3,026,200
1974	3,131	3,757,000
1975	3,742	4,490,680
1976	6,122	7,457,335

Source: The Adult Education Division, 1976.

The village Newspaper Reading Committee:

The villagers select a group or committee to be responsible for the construction and the maintenance of the NRC.

At provincial level, the committee is composed of a Provincial Officer Head as Chairman, Chief of Provincial Education Officer as assistant, Head of Provincial Supervisor and Supervisor of adult education as secretaries and other 7 members. They consider a proposal project of NRC and enquire for annual budget from the AED. They also contact the newspaper agencies and follow up the project.

The district committee consists of sheriff, district education officer and 7 members to be responsible for social survey and

considering a suitably situated centre and supervise the project.

In practice, the AED pays annual budget through the LEC for buying 2-3 newspapers to be delivered for each NRC everyday and sends supervisors to assist and guide the village committee.

At the Pichit province, there were 70 NRCs in 1977 which could serve 327,600 persons out of 407,667 population in 6 districts.

From experience, the Pichit NRC met the same problems as other provinces which concluded that:

Problems

1. The committee did not take the project seriously. They considered their duty as only to supply 2-3 newspapers for the NRC everyday, which cost about Baht 3. If the newspapers were lost, they never enquired or investigated because of the small value of money.

In practice, the village teachers are asked to bring newspapers for the NRC on the way travelling back home or to schools. They often keep the newspapers for themselves and return them to the NRC a few days later. So the readers receive out-of-date news.

2. Numbers of Readers Decline

The villagers came to read newspapers a few times then disappeared. They were not free in the day time and when free they preferred entertainments such as cock-fighting, gambling and fishing.

More women and young girls came to use the NRC than men. They read daily news, crime, actors-actress's news, gossip column and

Suggestions

The committee should employ persons who can deliver newspapers directly to the NRC, so contact with newspaper agencies near town should be made. If they are unable to deliver newspapers every day, they should have to refund money, and be punished by a fine.

There must be regular supervision in order to investigate the number of readers and newspapers delivered.

Before establishing the NRC, the village committee should meet the villagers and ask them which location is convenient for them to get to.

Reading room should provide good atmosphere. It was found some NRCs had no posters or pictures to attract the villagers. Useful pictures or charts should be put on the wall to call attention. The LEC may ask for assistance from the student teachers to help

family problem column. Many women said they liked to see pictures and cartoon in newspapers. Besides reading newspapers, they grouped together to chat and to feed children. The NRC becomes the meeting place for social groups rather than reading purposes.

An absence of newspapers also makes the villagers bored, when they have to travel long distance but cannot find things to read.

3. Lack of personnel in charge or looking after the NRC

Many NRCs were left dirty, old chairs and ragged newspapers, because there was the shortage of committee and the lack of co-operation among the members of the village committee.

with this during their teaching practice at local elementary school nearby the NRC.

The LEC must co-operate with the village committee to create the sense of responsibility of the villagers. They should be aware that the NRC belongs to them and should help the village committee to look after the newspapers.

When the village committee meets, the LEC should study individual willingness to volunteer for this work. If some representatives have no time, they should not be members of the committee. Selection for a new committee should take place every two years in order to give other villagers practice for this task.

It was noticed that, the NRC received only a few types of newspapers which were of no use in providing information or general knowledge for improving the quality of the villagers. Only a few columns discussed family planning, health, agriculture and other useful topics. It should be suggested that the NRC committees should study what types of newspapers and magazines are useful to the villagers. Then it would be best to list the titles of newspapers and magazines which could be recommended as more educational and would persuade the NRC committees to select more

suitable reading materials to supply the village NRC. The research of the National Education Committee in 1976, on the Role of Mass Media in Education, is available to judge the importance and usefulness of different reading materials which had their qualities described by the research document as follows: (24)

Pra-Cha-Chat is the most important newspaper for providing general knowledge; others are La-La-na and B.R.

A-nu-sarn-oh-so-tho contains higher knowledge on education and culture of different countries. Others are Kul-la-sathree and Khuan-Roen.

Home economics columns are written with high quality of knowledge and found regularly in Pra-Cha-Chat and Kul-la-sathree.

Too much advertisement and novels are found in Sa-kul-tai and Sa-tree-sarn.

Flexible knowledge for example: social science knowledge is in Sa-kul-tai; home economics in Khuan-Roen. Cartoon concerned with human life in Chai-ya-prug.

Nit-tha-ya-sarn-lok-dara contains higher quality entertainments.

Bangkok and Sathree-sarn provide several sorts of knowledge on sports and games.

Extra activities:

All LECs have applied non-formal education towards rural societies, and concentrated on providing five types of activities:

(1) rural youth training; (2) farmer leaders training; (3) training for the leaders of the NRC; (4) seminar on non-formal education and (5) public education. Taking the Pichit LEC as an example, it provided details of training as follows: (25)

1. Rural Youth Training Activity:

To succeed in creating a sense of loyalty to the nation, religion, monarchy and constitution, the AED and the LEC officials recommended the necessity to provide leadership training among young rural people both men and women. They will be able to help

the government to create social security, particularly to defend against communists and to act as local leaders to teach the villagers. The Pichit LEC reserved budget for this project - Baht 50,000 per year - to train 40 young leaders from the age of 15 to 25 years old, within 15 days duration. The subjects taught were agricultural technique, arable farms, crafts, health, politics, leadership, mass media analysis, mathematics and human relationships. This activity also provided a positive step to reduce unemployment among rural youth.

2. Farmer Leaders Training Activity: aimed at providing general knowledge and skills for farmer leaders based on the subjects of co-operatives, crop and animal preservation, agricultural techniques, farm planning and management. A total of 40 farmers leaders were given training courses in a year. Equality in applying for training was also given to both sexes.

From these experiences, the Pichit LEC concluded that the problems which were found in both types of activities were that the trainees found that the new knowledge of agricultural co-operatives and using fertilizers was unfamiliar. They were taught some topics which have been adopted from Western ideas, such as credit union and co-operative farmer groups. The instructors introduced such activities by following Western steps in applying credit union. So the trainees could not understand and apply it to their own groups.

The LEC should introduce a flexible content of knowledge and make it simple and easy to understand. It must be realized that every sort of knowledge should be adapted to suit the trainees' background and be capable in practical terms. Nevertheless, the

LEC said that the two activities were successful in that the trainees contributed the good things into society; for example, making community survey and listing of socio-economic problems of their own villages then, proposing the development project to the LEC. They helped to set up play-ground groups for pre-school age children and volunteered to teach the villagers in small mobile units.

3. Training the leaders of the village NRC: aimed at introducing the method of the NRC establishment, philosophy of adult education, propaganda and advertisement of the NRC, technique to organise the NRC, and how to select the new village committee to organise the NRC. In practice, the LEC will arrange training for the new committee once a year.

4. Seminar on non-formal education: aimed at introducing the policy of non-formal education to the committees of the LEC, including the knowledge of management and organisation, the role of the committee, and to exchange ideas and experience among educators and organisers. In 1978, the Pichit LEC provided a seminar for 44 persons from the directive committee and operative committee and 280 persons from district and village committees.

5. Public education project: The Pichit LEC provided mobile libraries, public lectures which were based on topics of interest to the public, and also brought education films to show the villagers, such as films on family planning, nutrition, sanitation, cultural performances (music, dancing, sports and games), agricultural techniques, government's news and news about the world.

Within one year the Pichit LEC was able to apply several non-

formal education programmes throughout 6 districts. The number of graduates and participants who benefited from each programme in 1977 is shown in the following table.

Programmes	Audiences and Graduates
General adult education literacy	574
Functional literacy - at centres 351 (males = 121, females = 230) - home bound teaching 588 (males = 196, females = 392)	939
Mobile Vocational Skill Training	518
Small Mobile Units	343
Stationery Vocational Training	95
Interest group	540
Extra activities (lecture on topics)	
Civic Education	1,200
Thai History	1,325
Family Planning	1,200
Non-formal Education	500
Supplementary programmes of functional literacy	
Public Education (target population)	8,280
Mobile Library	175
Library in one centre	175
Newspaper Reading Centre	327,600
Total	343,464

Source: The Pichit LEC, 1978.

It is noticed that such programmes above could contribute great benefit in a year by being able to serve 343,464 persons out of total 494,272 population, in this provincial area. The programmes cost in total 1,156,144 Baht, which was reasonable when its effectiveness was evaluated. This result should be an evidence to claim the government's support in increasing the annual budget more for non-formal education for the

LEC at all provincial level than for the organisation of adult education in metropolitan Bangkok.

Problems of Adult Education at Provincial Lifelong Education Centres:

The problems of adult education met by the LECs at provincial level, and those met by the AED at national level, should be explained separately.

In conclusion, the problems of adult education in every LEC of the 12 educational regions were found to be similar. Examples follow:

<u>Problems</u>	<u>Suggestions</u>
1. Time: functional literacy classes were held at the same time of the harvesting so there were many absences from the classes.	Time of learning should be fixed by the students, it should not be arranged at the same time as the harvesting season.
2. The home bound teachers were supplied to teach functional literacy and family life planning at isolated villages and held the group learning in the evening. There was a shortage of electricity or lamps so the classroom was not bright enough for studying.	The AED and the LECs should solve the problems and provide enough lamps for each group.
3. Shortage of supervisors at the LEC affected the evaluation problem. The programme was left to the teachers and some of them enjoyed teaching lecture method and did not know how to improve the programme when there was no supervisor	The LECs should recruit supervisors to work for adult education only. They will not have overload of work if they are provided with specific tasks to do.
4. With vocational training there was the problem of inadequate equipment. Machines in workshop were too old, and classrooms were too small.	It can be solved by requesting assistance from the MOE, voluntary agencies and the World Education Organisation. Workshops should provide enough materials up to date equipment which will be suitable for the trainees.

5. The Interest Groups lacked enough qualified resource persons to teach the subjects needed. Every group wanted to learn at the same time, so it was impossible for supervisors to visit all groups.

Experts and skilled men in the village or province should be invited to act as resource persons. In some cases, the LEC and the AED may contact the universities to provide lecturers or student volunteers to join the project.
6. The NRCs were not receiving reading materials regularly. They lacked the care and upkeep of the villagers and the committees.

Propaganda and explanation are essential to encourage the villagers to be responsible for their own public property. Newspaper agencies should be asked to sign contracts for delivering newspapers regularly.
7. Mobile Vocational Units were short of petrol and vans.

This is the responsibility of the AED to supply enough vehicles and funds for each centre.
8. Resource persons were unqualified.

The LEC should provide in-service training and allow their staff to continue education at advanced level of adult education. At least those persons should have skills in agriculture, curriculum development in adult education, vocational training and health education.
9. Adult education was unable to provide useful knowledge relevant to the daily life of adults in a particular area.

Curriculum must be revised to suit social environment of target population.
10. In 1977, the University of Chiang mai surveyed the needs for adult education in the Northern region. The data showed that 83.50% of the 1,491 sampled needed to have continuing education; 67% needed to learn by radio correspondence; 74% wanted to know about credit unions; and 79% needed to improve reading ability by the NRC.

Adult education may be less beneficial, if rural adults are not encouraged to apply the knowledge taught to practical work. It is known that the rural adults are poor so they may not wish to risk failure. The AED and the LEC should provide loans through credit unions or farmer associations in order to support poor adults in starting a new project.

The research of other institutions can be useful information and data for the LEC to meet different types of adult education and satisfy the needs.

But the LEC of this province did not make much effort in providing the programmes needed to support such demands.

11. It was found that rural women were not interested in vocational training and agricultural knowledge. This may be because of the influence of social values on women's status in rural society and personal choices.

The content of subject discriminated opportunity to learn between men and women such as radio-repairing, mechanics and electric installation.

12. The villagers did not feel confident in adult educators or the teachers of adult classes as extension workers so they did not take the teachers' instruction seriously.

13. It was found the northern people were unaware of social problems which affected their living.

The LEC should make an effort to persuade the rural women to select other subjects besides domestic skills. They should be told of their important roles in socio-economic development. Vocational training enables them to earn from a secondary occupation which will benefit their standard of living.

There should not be sex discrimination in the admission for studying in different courses. Every woman should have the right to apply for what subjects are needed. The officials should stop telling women that some subjects are for men and some for women.

Some contents need agricultural extension workers or community development official to be resource persons. So the LEC and the AED should co-operate with the MOI and the Ministry of Agriculture for assistance.

If the teachers of adult classes are qualified to teach agricultural skills, they should make the adult students trust in their experience and qualification. The adult students will trust their teachers if they see a good result demonstrated by the teachers.

The role of adult education is to awake people to realize the problem-situation in their own village. So it needs public education; films, radio broadcasting, posters and public lectures. In adult classes, learning activities should start from the core problems of the students themselves. These procedures would be able to make the villagers realize their social problems and be able to seek alternative solutions.

14. Budgetting problem: the operating officers complained a difficulty in drawing money from the Provincial Education Office. It was a slow process to have financial support approved and the money received was often less than the real cost of investment planned in a project.

The financial department should be prompt to give a reply by considering urgently the need of each project.

Adult education is under-valued by many educators, so it appears that the annual budget for it is awarded less than other educational sections. The adult educators should convince the financial planners and the National Education Committee of the efficiency of adult education.

Problems of Adult Education Programmes in Thailand:

The major problem faced by adult education is the immense target group, which is estimated as about 80% of the population who are out of school. But it is difficult to make adult education satisfy a large number of target groups, when only 5% of the government educational budget is allocated to adult education. This small allocation is supposed to provide educational services in various fields; for example academic subjects for second chance education; also many other subjects to improve the quality of life, such as family planning, health, hygiene, nutrition, agriculture, marketing, child care, literacy etc; also general interests and cultural subjects such as drama, music, sports, language study, recreational education and general knowledge. Quite obviously, it will be quite impossible for adult education to organize such a variety of subjects or to meet any of their objectives, with the existing allocation of resources.

Another major problem is that the teachers of general adult classes have had no training or guidance in adult teaching methods, and also receive less supervision. Almost all the adult teachers are ordinary teachers in the day-time and merely take adult classes to augment their incomes. The standard of instruction

is not particularly inspiring. Many of the adult teachers have secondary education certificates and are unable to create meaningful activities for their classes. Some teach adult students as if they were children, which causes them to feel humiliated. Many teachers in the adult education programmes are selected from well known or respectable villagers, but they have little knowledge of methods of teaching or about the specific topics. There are also only a few qualified staff to supply the materials, equipment and plan the programme. This problem means that the adult education programmes are only slowly bringing about improvement. The essential requirement for work in adult education is that there should be teachers available either directly for classes or indirectly through correspondence courses. There must be programmes for training of adults' teachers. The training courses should be designed to provide them with the expertise to encourage and guide groups in the village situation. They should be trained in the same methods as they are likely to use in the village group situation. The voluntary organisations and experts in a particular skill should be asked to assist adult students in planning and teaching and this would help to solve the problem of inadequate staff.

A further problem is that most of the courses use a slightly modified formal school curriculum. For adults, this curriculum has absolutely no relevance to their day-to-day lives. Many educators also argue that the curriculum is not designed for preparing adults to meet the rapid changes in politics, society and economics, since it does not cover wide areas of knowledge. A new approach to adult education in rural Thailand can be fully achieved if a special curriculum is constructed to provide adults

with a continuous, sequential and integrated programme of lifelong learning. The content of knowledge should be flexible and fit in with the social environment and enable the students to adapt themselves to new ways of life without rejecting basic social and cultural values.

As it is, attempts are currently being made to alter much of the curriculum of adult education programmes so that it becomes more relevant to the day-to-day life of the participants and helps them solve some of the problems they are facing. However, when this happens existing school teachers will be even less equipped to teach the courses effectively than they are at present because of the lack of in-service training programmes.

Another serious problem is the large number of organisations involved in one type of activity or another but who do not co-ordinate their activities. This not only makes it very difficult for potential students to pick the most applicable course, but also, since many of the programmes are very small, there is an inadequate provision of trained teachers and curriculum materials. Moreover, each organisation has developed a programme without considering the duplication with other provisions. So it appears that many activities overlap. For example, the MOI holds functional literacy classes for training village police and the MOE also holds the same course in the same areas. In this case, the two programmes should be joined in staff, buildings, equipment and activities to achieve economy.

There is the problem that the high unit costs of all vocational training schemes means that the AED is unable to provide opportunities for all who are interested in such training. Another problem is that many short courses of vocational skills training, do not

provide job opportunities for the participants, because there is no career guidance, and no research on marketing demand for labourers. It is necessary that the programme should provide realistic job expectations and useful skills that the learners could apply to their employment immediately.

Normally, adult education programmes are provided according to the suggestions of the village committees which give the details of the villagers' needs through the Provincial Education Office. This office will decide which programme is suitable for which area. In this way the adults can improve particular skills to work with the community. But, in practice, the programme is often determined by the Provincial Education Officer, the AED or the LEC who may often decide to establish a new course in a village, without previous research or collection of data, and with little co-ordination with the village committees. So many programmes fail when they are not supplying the needs of the community. An effective system of adult education requires careful planning so there should be co-ordination of the activities of all agencies operating in the rural areas, to avoid the overlap of programmes, to share some materials and staff, to economise on budgets, and to improve those activities. The AED should accept the idea of the village committees and other committees because they are the most appropriate agencies to observe the needs of the villagers and know better about the rural environments.

Many adults think that education is a waste of time and they feel like school children. This means that adult centres in some areas cannot get enough members for a programme. Even though adults are willing to be trained they do not understand their own needs, so they often select an activity by following their leaders or

their neighbours. As a result many programmes fail to educate the adult students in a way that will be beneficial for their work. So it is the task of adult educators, staff and the persons who are involved with adult education programmes to make them understand the purpose and the task of it. The teachers of adult education should make their classes different from a children's class. They should realize that adults come to a learning centre with the experience of work, ready for different kinds of learning than children are, and are able to contribute greater resources from their experiences to the learning process. They need to know how to solve particular problems in their lives. Adult education activities should be constructed more and more around the problem of individual and society. Therefore, the trend of methodology in adult education should make greater use of the experience of the adult learners by the methods of group discussion, role-playing, field trips, practical work, etc.

However, adult education for rural women could be successful if it considers the basic needs for action. The needs can be the basis for formulating a wider choice of programmes to serve a wider variety of women.

Public Education and Interest Group 1976

Educational Region	Public Education (Audio-Visual)		Interest Group	
	Total of service	Audiences	Groups	Participants
Bangkok Region	311	531,229		
Educational Region 1-12	5,872	4,886,703	903	19,036
1	424	268,536	94	1,713
2	250	136,230	45	976
3	546	333,941	86	1,775
4	450	230,266	54	979
5	347	404,880	68	1,526
6	599	292,236	75	1,397
7	643	628,660	119	2,821
8	723	661,631	83	1,989
9	407	422,601	44	1,085
10	681	537,802	72	1,554
11	433	600,678	101	1,910
12	369	369,242	62	1,311
	6,183	5,417,932	903	19,036

Source: Adult Education Division 1976.

Statistics show the large number of people who participated in public education activities in educational region 7 (Pisanulok province in the North), region 8 (Chiengmai in the North) and region 11 (Nakorn Rachasima province in the Northeast).

Rural people are interested in Public Education, particularly films and slides. It is able to serve a large number of people with low cost per head.

Educational region 7 is also able to organize interest groups with high numbers of participants.

In general, the northern region is very active in providing adult education and many people support the programmes.

Adult Education Enrolments by Vocational Programmes 1976

Educational Region	Stationary	Mobile	Trade Training		Total
	Voc. A.E.	A.E.	Mobile	Voc./Sch.	
Bangkok Region	5,873	599	-		6,472
Total Region 1-12	8,045	6,270	12,155		26,470
Educational Region 1	969	-	296		1,765
2	128	1,081	797		2,006
3	629	181	1,211		2,021
4	175	-	543		1,718
5	292	551	965		1,808
6	942	-	1,413		2,355
7	841	580	1,691		3,112
8	2,073	752	1,240		4,065
9	219	1,077	1,449		2,745
10	515	1,091	1,096		2,702
11	331	614	1,169		2,114
12	1,431	343	285		2,059
Total	13,918	6,869	12,155		32,942

Source: Ministry of Education 1976

Bangkok region produces more graduates than other regions.

Educational region 8 has nearly half the number of Bangkok participants and more than other provincial regions.

Statistics show that adults are more interested in studying vocational adult education at stationary centres than another. Mobile adult education is able to serve rural adults in isolated villages with 6,869 trainees a year.

Village Newspaper Reading Centre Services in 1976

Educational Region	Village Newspaper Reading Centre	
	Number of Centres	Readers
Educational Region 1-12	3,024	19,867,680
1	66	433,620
2	88	578,160
3	421	2,765,970
4	73	479,610
5	98	643,860
6	217	1,425,690
7	208	1,366,560
8	890	5,897,300
9	273	1,793,610
10	348	2,286,360
11	170	1,116,900
12	172	1,130,040
Total	3,024	19,867,680*

Source: Ministry of Education 1976:

The number of readers is counted from the list of readers who came for reading.

Educational region 8 shows the highest number of people who come for reading newspapers at the NRC. This reveals that the rural people in the North are more interested in further reading and seek current news than other regions.

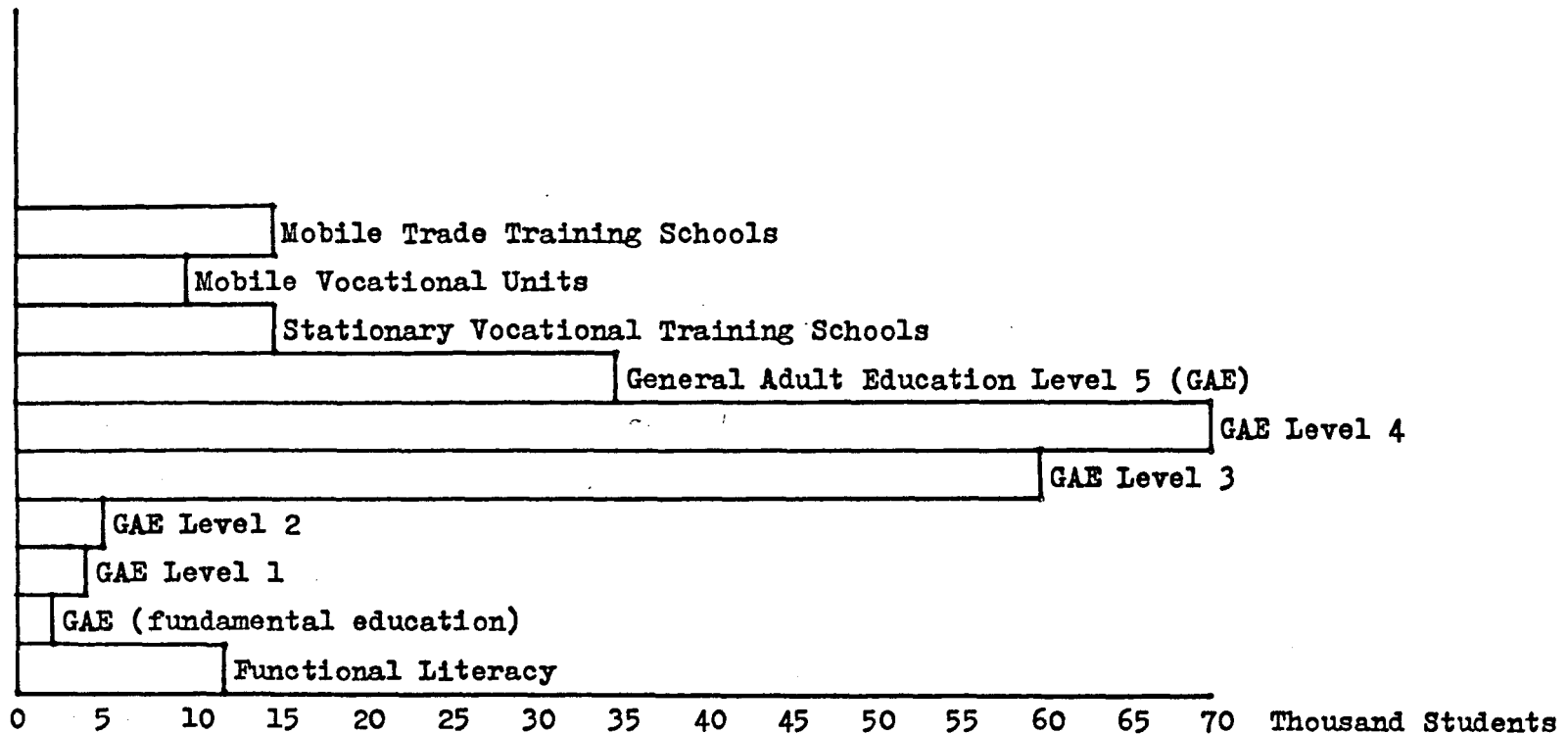
Educational region 8 also has much the highest number of centres. The northern people also contribute more of their own money and materials to set up the NRC than other regions do. Region 3 has the next largest number (in the South, Sonkhla-pattani provinces). However, the number of the NRCs is proportional to size of city, population, socio-economic condition of each region.

Statistics Functional Literacy 1971-1975, Classroom-Learning Type

PROVINCES:	1971					1972					1973					1974					1975										
	Teachers	Total Stdnts.		Grads.		Total	Teachers	Total Stdnts.		Grads.		Total	Teachers	Students		Grads.		Total	Teachers	Stdnts.		Grads.		Total	Teachers	Stdnts.		Grads.		Total	
		M	F	M	F			M	F	M	F			M	F	M	F			M	F	M	F			M	F	M	F		M
Nakorn Sawan	10	154	49	125	40	165	27	315	156	259	132	391	36	472	303	381	204	585	36	454	284	419	265	684	2	22	36	19	26	45	
Lampang	10	87	133	62	105	167	5	67	38	46	23	69	6	88	37	125	64	17	5	54	64	26	28	54	30	366	237	295	200	445	
Mai-Hong Son							14	207	330	141	98	239	23	201	178	191	130	321	25	341	193	314	175	504	20	310	135	293	116	414	
Chieng mai							4	53	27	33	19	52	20	302	213	223	151	374	20	316	184	199	106	305	32	468	327	161	234	395	
Chieng rai							12	149	112	124	87	211	19	287	183	251	152	403	7	85	34	79	29	108	8	81	65	47	47	94	
Lampoon							17	211	167	165	143	308	13	200	178	108	123	231	17	272	169	220	125	345	20	261	193	256	187	443	
Prac							14	201	165	113	78	191	14	234	115	168	83	251	24	321	215	199	153	352	10	145	129	118	105	223	
Nan																			7	108	93	60	59	119							
Pichit																															
Pisanulok																															
Chainat							1	15	9	9	7	16	1	2	22	-	16	16	2	25	32	16	30	46	3	18	43	16	40	56	
Bangkok																			4	38	45	24	41	65	2	13	26	13	26	39	
Ut-tra-ra-dit																									6	111	50	98	46	144	
Pattanee																				12	283	20	233	19	252	20	566	23	422	13	440
Pata-lung							1	18	5	9	3	12	11	190	60	144	48	192	5	82	35	79	33	112	8	169	37	110	34	144	
Song-kla							1	21	-	13	-	13	60	1070	22	93	18	111	12	211	55	203	52	255	24	359	209	260	143	408	
Na-Korn-Sree Tam rad							1	16	8	13	4	17	3	42	18	25	10	35	3	24	22	22	14	36	9	98	93	60	47	107	
Su rad-Thanee							1	19	8	18	8	26	2	24	13	23	11	34	5	66	53	50	48	98	4	42	60	39	58	97	
Chum porn							1	18	2	13	2	15	3	49	21	38	19	57	4	43	65	31	48	79	5	74	45	54	27	81	
Satul																				5	101	24	69	23	112						
Khon Kaen													5	80	40	41	29	70							20	177	277	157	246	393	
Ubol													30	370	250	291	209	500		30	408	279	389	272	661	30	259	392	250	375	625
Ya so thorn																			5	48	111	29	68	98	3	53	24	53	24	77	
Sree-sa-ke																			5	66	47	66	45	111	11	146	117	125	100	225	
Na-Korn-Panom																									3	14	23	13	23	41	
Su-Kho-tai																				1	25	2	13	2	15	3	10	25	10	24	24
Kam-paeng-etch																				3	23	52	22	52	74	3	52	22	52	74	
Tak																				2	29	21	25	13	38	2	29	21	25	13	38
Petcha boon																				5	72	46	58	40	93	5	72	46	58	40	93
Udorn																				5	69	76	62	70	132	5	69	76	62	70	132
Hong-Kai																				10	176	74	136	62	193	10	176	74	136	62	193
Loe																				7	143	39	156	39	175	7	143	39	156	39	175
Sakol-Nakorn																				6	85	119	82	96	173	6	85	119	82	96	173
Chai-ya-pum																				5	110	41	93	34	127	5	110	41	93	34	127
Buree-rum																															

* The programme has expanded rapidly to several provinces within 5 years. It shows less number of female enrolment in the programme than males, almost every year.

Enrolment in Adult Education 1976



A diagram of enrolment shows high number of adult students in continuing education of General Adult Education course at level 3, 4. This interprets that the Thai adults are more interested in second chance education in order to have opportunity to continue high level of education than other fields of skills provided.

Source: The Ministry of Education 1976.

Adult Students in General Adult Education Programmes 1976

Educational Region	Functional Literacy			Fundamental A.E.			Level					Total	Overall Total
	Stationary	Home Bound	Total	Beginner	Final Stage	Total	1	2	3	4	5		
Bangkok Region	33		33				1,891	2,917	13,788	18,616	8,353	45,565	45,598
Educational Region 1-12	10,799	2,581	13,380	420	311	731	1,858	1,840	47,422	53,968	26,412	131,500	145,611
1							128	137	3,498	3,373	2,606	9,742	9,742
2	1,442	544	1,986	345	244	589	287	347	1,200	1,595	936	4,365	6,940
3	873	29	902				107	170	5,370	5,531	2,318	13,496	14,398
4		-					86	36	1,145	1,398	1,043	3,708	3,708
5		-					82	28	1,824	2,317	1,202	5,453	5,453
6	26	-	26				61	61	2,146	2,856	1,779	6,903	6,929
7	1,556	420	1,976	25		25	206	187	4,189	5,596	2,425	12,603	14,604
8	3,428	1,174	4,602	50	67	117	243	304	6,217	5,398	3,186	15,348	20,067
9	1,508	-	1,508				40	117	7,334	8,437	4,016	19,944	21,452*
10	999	414	1,431				48	43	7,419	9,155	2,436	19,099	20,512
11	967	-	967				455	269	4,967	5,568	2,850	14,109	15,076
12		-	-				115	141	2,113	2,744	1,617	6,730	6,730
Total	10,832	2,581	13,413	420	311	731	3,749	4,757	61,210	72,765	34,765	177,065	191,209

* Educational Region 9 is in the Northeast, Udorn-thani province. Provides high number of functional literacy graduates.

CHAPTER V

THE MINISTRY OF THE INTERIOR AND ADULT EDUCATION

The MOI has proved a major importance in influencing development. It set up in 1956 the National Community Development Programme 'aiming at strengthening the effectiveness of government services in the villages, through the improvement of working methods, effective co-ordination, and improvement of motivation, by encouraging the villagers to use local resources in order to fulfil their needs.'⁽¹⁾ It also appointed the National Community Development Board (NCDB) to have the responsibility for formulating a general policy concerning community development and co-ordinating the various ministries in the implementation of plans and policies so the members of the NCDB are usually from those ministries. The Central Community Development Committee (CCDC) was composed of representatives from the ministries concerned, with the Prime Minister as Chairman. It had the responsibility of carrying out the policy, programme and budgeting set forth by the NCDB.

The Community Development Department (CDD) is the most important section of the MOI in carrying out non-formal education programmes in rural areas. Two recommendations were clarified in establishing the CDD in the MOI: '(1) that the MOI is responsible for the administration of provincial, district and local government; (2) that the governors and district officers are, according to the existing administrative law, already charged with administrative responsibility in all aspects of development within their respective jurisdictions.'⁽²⁾

The MOI appointed the Community Development Committee at every level of government in the provinces, districts and villages. It

consisted of the Chief Public Servants and local leaders. They had the responsibility of planning and executing the programme at their respective levels. It is expected that they would bring about the co-ordination of effort necessary to success.

Methodology:

Using studies of community development and adult education, it is necessary to examine the meaning of 'community development and general principles' which will show how to do practical work and how the community development projects apply educational methods successfully in rural development.

Batten says that 'Community development is identified with almost any form of local betterment which is in some way achieved with the willing co-operation of the people.'⁽³⁾

To quote from the Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation's Report on community work and social change, 'community^{work} is essentially concerned with affecting the course of social change through the two processes of analysing social situations and forming relationships with different groups to bring about some desirable change.'⁽⁴⁾

Again the Report describes three processes of community work which can be a good example for Thailand: (1) the democratic process of involving people in thinking, planning, deciding and playing an active part in the development and operation of services that affect their daily life; (2) the values of personal fulfilment in the belonging to a community.⁽⁵⁾ Batten also says the same that 'the people in the traditional small community feel that they belong and it is mainly this sense of belonging

that keeps them observing the community standards of conduct and behaviour. They will imitate others' behaviour, if they want to be accepted as a member of the group, or they will follow the group's activities if they need to be accepted as belonging to the group; (3) it is concerned with the need in community planning to think of actual people in relation to other people, and the satisfaction of their needs as persons, rather than to focus attention upon a series of separate needs and problems.⁽⁶⁾ This suggests to the programme planners that the CD programme will be achieved, if it can satisfy individual needs and also group needs.

Dickenson points out that 'community programmes represent systematic efforts to broaden opportunities to share in the decision making process at the local level. The central elements in such programmes are information and experience in decision-making. The general dissemination of information may make the public aware of problems and issues requiring common action.'⁽⁷⁾ This suggests that it is necessary to encourage local people to join the CD programme and co-operate in making decisions. Learning through community work must be in terms of group work and the content of knowledge must be related to the problems of participants.

The CDD points out that 'community development in Thailand should be designed to create economic and social development for the whole community, with the active participation and initiative of the community.'⁽⁸⁾ It should be directed towards self-help and mutual assistance in the improvement of literacy, agricultural production, road construction, health and sanitation.

The CDD formulated its functions as follows:

1. improving economic security for rural communities. The rural people should be encouraged to increase their incomes in order to feel secure.
2. providing training courses for officials and volunteers who are involved in CD projects, emphasizing community development principles, plans and policies.
3. providing a necessary educational programme which will make rural development successful.
4. encouraging rural people to increase their sense of belonging to the community and a democratic society.
5. carrying out research projects based on community development.
6. co-operating closely with other countries, particularly the CD organisations. Their experiences, ideas and methodologies should be adapted to suit local circumstances in Thailand.
7. acting as a co-operative centre for the several agencies, conducting the community programmes and being on an Executive Committee Level in order to make national plans in community development.

Fixed Area: the CDD will select the area where there is an urgent need for finding socio-economic solutions, then, applying the CD project. Mostly the project aims at creating skilled men and mobilizing them, because the CDD has insufficient staff to work for the project throughout the whole country.

Staff: the CDD attempts to mobilize local resources as far as possible and two types of persons are included in the CD projects:

1. The Village Development Committee, which consists of the village headman, the local school teachers and the respectable men .. The committee serves for 2 years in making a village development project and has to look for money, materials and labourers to help in carrying out the project. But overall planning processes need the mutual responsibility of the Committee and the villagers so the committee has to motivate and

educate the villagers to exercise their own initiative, and their own resources to the fullest extent.

Using local people in making the village CD project is beneficial. They help to bridge the gap which now exists between the few CD officials and the millions of rural people. Because local people know the needs and problems of their villages better than the officials from Bangkok. Many of their proposals and plans will induce the CDD to apply available aids to direct improvement in the community. As a result of this, the CDD has put great emphasis on village leadership development as the first task of the CD project.

2. Fundamental Educational Organisers are stationed at the provincial centres, working under the governors as mobile units for promoting the community development spirit in various villages. Their functions are to assist the CD programmers in their various specialized fields; for example, to advise, to teach village level workers in practical matters combined with the theory of community development, and to train local leaders in the provinces. These people are technical officials and educators.

Every year, the CDD arranges short term training for local leaders, CD officials and those who are involved in the CD project, with the subjects of community development principles and philosophy. Most of the training is discussion, problem-solving, field trips and in-service training.

As well as providing a specific training based on community development work for staff, local leaders and others, the CDD also organizes educational programmes for rural people. They are:

1. leadership development
2. vocational group development
3. youth development - through newly formed youth clubs
4. The Woman Development Project - emphasis on home economics and co-operative groups
5. Voluntary Training Development
6. Cultural Preservation
7. The Use of Leisure Time Projects.
8. Co-operative Project - for farmers
9. In-service Training - for CD workers
10. Research Project
11. Special Projects - emergency requirements

All the programmes provide training opportunities for both sexes.

The writer will discuss the programmes which are provided for rural women in the next section.

The Relationship of Community Development
Methods to Adult Education Methods:

Some community development methods involve systematic learning, and are closely related to adult education methodology. As in the above programmes, the CDD recommends using learning activities such as discussion, social group work, self-help exercises, experimentation, community surveying and problem-solving.

Community development is one way of educating people through informal learning so adult education is involved. For example, adult education helps to design a specific course, provides appropriate experts, information and advice on a number of issues. The CD programme particularly requires persons who have specialized skills in teaching and needs adult education to help in training those persons. Also certain techniques of community development work may not deal with the deep-rooted problems of the villagers. In this case, adult education can act as a partner of the CD programme by making the learning activities flexible in order to find individual problems and help them to succeed in finding solutions. Especially, it may need adult teachers to help in

teaching some activities because the CD workers may be skilled in community work, but lack experience in teaching. Although they may be able to step out of their role and act as teachers, it would be better to have adult teachers as partners in teaching.

Identification of the woman's role:

The CDD provides educational programmes for rural women as they do not know about good sanitation, health and nutrition and so there is bad health and malnutrition among rural children. The women also do not know how to use their leisure time to earn. The CDD commented that if rural women remain backward, they will cause the rural development project to fail. So it emphasized as general objectives of women's education in rural areas:

1. to increase the capacity and skills of housewives and young girls in various subjects such as dressmaking, food and nutrition, cottage industry and agriculture.
2. to educate rural women in realizing of their roles and duties towards the family and society; to enhance their self-confidence and enable them to prevent and solve family problems.
3. to promote family planning so that they will have a better quality of family life and decrease the population growth.⁽⁹⁾

The CDD has applied certain types of educational training programmes to rural women. Major programmes were put into the Five Year Women's Development Plan (1977-81). These were: (1) child development project; (2) family planning project; (3) the Women's Development Project; (4) training community survey for young women leaders.

I. Child Development Project: aims at introducing modern and scientific ways of childcare to rural women, to get the villagers to participate in child development for the prosperity of the community, and to bring the new technology of child development

to parents.

Methods: To initiate the project, the CD officials called a meeting of the villagers and explained to them the purpose and procedure of the project. After a decision had been made by the villagers, they were then asked to select a Child Development Committee, a Village Development Committee and Tambol Council Committee in order to help decide the location of the centre and select the village girls aged from 18 to 25, to be child care workers. They were sent to Bangkok for a 3 month training course. The CDD said that the girls must be able to read and write, live in the same area as the centre, be healthy, and promise to work for the centre at least two years in order to be admitted to the course.

From past experience, the CDD found that people in 7 provinces: Nakornprathom, Saraburi, Nakornrachasima, Udorn, Chaiyapum, Prajuab keeree khun, and Sonkla, were very interested in the project, and co-operated well in such activities. It was successful and obtained a remarkable improvement in the development of children. The CDD received requests for more child care development projects from the people as a whole. So it planned to set up centres in 70 provinces. In 1978, it was able to establish 310 centres in 60 provinces with 700 child care workers. The project helped to reduce unemployment among young rural girls. They could get jobs as child care workers even if they had no experience in this field before. They would be given a short course of training and were then given work.

II. Family Planning Project: aims at introducing the concept of family planning to rural women in order to decrease the rate of population growth.

The project was integrated into all training programmes, introducing the subjects of family planning and population education. Special training, lasting only 3 days, was also organized for selected housewives who would act as leaders of the village women's groups. They were taught the knowledge of population growth, methods of birth control, government and private services on family planning, study tours to local hospitals and health offices.

The project began in 1973. Initially, the CDD worked closely with the Planned Parenthood Association of Thailand (PPAT) since the project was put into the Third National Economic and Social Development Plan. The PPAT sent out mobile health education and family planning units to remote areas, where communication was difficult, so as to help women in remote villages to learn about family planning, and to be able to obtain the services immediately without having to spend time in travelling elsewhere.

As in the past, the CDD found that at the beginning, the housewives in the training course refused to accept new methods of birth control. They were afraid of using contraceptives. But after the government declared that it was not illegal to supply other contraceptives through hospitals, or local health offices, then many housewives changed their attitudes towards birth control. Some acted as advisers encouraging their neighbours to accept new methods of birth control. In 1978, 3,328 housewives attended the project. They were able to persuade 12,521 neighbours to register as members of the project in the same year. The project has proved successful. Many rural women started to practise birth control. The Ministry of Public Health announced as the result of the project, that approximately 80% of all women newly using birth control lived in rural areas, mostly working as

farmers. Over 90% had had 4 years or less of formal schooling, with only 2.5% attending school beyond the tenth grade. Over 50% of the women were under 30 years of age, and two-thirds of them had four or fewer living children. It was found that 80% never practised contraception before. The project had certainly reached rural women from lower socio-economic levels.⁽¹⁰⁾

III. The Women's Development Project: aims at creating the right attitude towards an appropriate livelihood for rural women; to raise their standard of living by encouraging them to spend their leisure time productively, which will earn them more money and to encourage them to help the neighbourhood by forming women's groups in their villages, on the basis of a mutual interest in bringing about changes in their families.

III.1. The Sree-saked Women Development Project:

Recently, the CDD began the Women Development Project in Sree-saked province. It was an interesting project which should be outlined.

Problems:

Sree-saked province is one of the target areas of the CD project. It is in the Northeastern region where people are suffering greatly from socio-economic deprivation. Few of its inhabitants are rich and most of these are Chinese businessmen. The majority of the population are poor native Thai farmers who earn a basic income of only Baht 5,300 per year.⁽¹¹⁾ Most farmers have to earn extra money to support their families. They do this by looking for unskilled or semi-skilled jobs when the harvesting is over. According to the statement in the census of the province, two-thirds of young people left home to seek

work in the city.'⁽¹²⁾ In some villages, many households were entirely elderly. Migration of young farmers affected the rate of productivity which became low because of the absence of labourers. In addition, it has been observed that 'Thai farmers had no sentimental attachment to their land holdings and would readily emigrate if economic prospects were better elsewhere.'⁽¹³⁾ To solve these problems, the government made a CD project in this province; for example, introducing farmers to the use of fertilizers, the setting up of institutional credit or co-operative credit, the building of roads to connect isolated villages, the provision of tractors to cultivate crops and other methods to develop the province. These included providing educational training for farmers, especially self-help programmes and leadership training.

In relation to the development of women's education in Sree-saked province, the CDD emphasized agricultural training through self-help exercises. It surveyed the needs for training programmes of the village women in 1977 and discovered that they needed the knowledge of the Co-operative Women's Agriculture Group Training and the Seri-culture (silk-worm rearing). Then it planned a two year project (August 1977 - August 1979) for training of those fields at Nong-Rua hamlet and Ta-ex hamlet.

Procedure of the Project:

1. Selection of participants

The CD officials travelled to the Nong-Rua and Ta-ex hamlets to survey the women's interests and needs for skill training. They visited homes and insisted that village women should organize group learning. They found that it was difficult to get village women to set up a group for learning, because they were usually

busy with farm work and household duties during the whole day. They would join a social group only for a religious ceremony or for a special occasion such as a wedding, a birthday, a funeral and a new year festival. So the CD officials had to spend much time in joining in religious groups, gossip groups and young women's groups so as to learn and listen to their opinions and other demands for training skills. Meanwhile, the CD officials persuaded them to enrol for a specially needed programme of training. Such enrolment was also based on voluntary initiative because there was a belief that learning activities and types of programmes should be designed by the participants, and not by the decision of the CD officials. This method provided an opportunity for the village women to learn something which would fill their needs and interests. They would be willing to learn when they saw they could benefit.

Next, two groups of village women were set up, one group which consisted of 25 participants, decided to learn about co-operative agriculture; another group, which consisted of 26 participants, decided to practise silk-weaving and silk worm rearing.

Group Discussion: (5 days)

The CD officials explained to 51 participants about the procedures of training that at first they must divide themselves into small groups and select representatives. They should discuss which of their problems needed to be solved.

The small groups had discussion for 5 days which was aiming for the participants to get to know each other, and to understand what they really needed, after having exchanged ideas. They were also instructed in the knowledge of group management, group democracy

and community surveys. During the group discussions, they made a plan for the next practical programme and selected a piece of land to be a model farm.

Community Survey: (10 days)

Discovering the needs and problems of the participants from group discussions was insufficient to decide what was the programme necessary for training skills. The CD officials made a special schedule by allowing the participants to survey a community in order to find out its existing problems and needs. This would make them realize whether the needs they put forward were similar to the community's needs. In some cases, educational programmes had to give support first to the community's needs instead of individual needs. The community urgently needed an increase of skilled labourers to work in agriculture and industry so the participants should learn to understand what was the most significant need and problem, and ^{to} accept what should be handled first.

The project was for 10 days of community survey. The participants went round the village households and investigated the problems and situations by observing, interviewing and conversing with the villagers. Then, they came back to the training centre. They analyzed the data and arranged the problems so that those which were more significant were given the required attention before the minor problems.

The community survey practice provided ^{the} advantage that the participants achieved their circumstantial problems such as cultural changes, communication, low productivity and limited employment opportunities. They also discovered their own culture

and reaching for intellectual improvement.

Practical Work:

After having finished the community survey, the participants concluded that the villagers lacked the knowledge necessary to raise silk worms and to grow the right mulberry trees to feed the new variety of silk worms which can be raised in the home.

Generally, the weaving mills have a preference for buying fine silk thread, but a few women knew how to make good quality silk. So it was necessary to teach the village women about silk worm rearing, and mulberry tree growing. If they could do so, they would be able to raise the price of silk thread and thus earn much money.

Other need of the villagers was found in new crop growing methods. The Sree-saked provincial officers planned to encourage the villagers in growing tobacco, hemp, jute, cotton, mulberry trees and in rearing silk worms. All these activities would provide a major increase in income for the villagers, in addition to their rice yields' income.

To satisfy these needs, the CDD arranged 5 rai of land (2.5 rai = 1 acre : 6.25 rai - 1 hectare), divided into 5 blocks for the plotting of crops.⁽¹⁴⁾ Five participants had the responsibility for one block of land. Meanwhile, the CD officials set up a model garden. An agricultural extension worker was invited to introduce the participants to new methods of growing crops by giving demonstrations. The participants were also encouraged to experiment with new ways to improve the crop productivity. At first, they decided to grow cotton, mulberry trees and some vegetables. Most of their time was devoted to practical learning

in the field, under supervision of key staff. It was expected that they would span their experimentation over 50 days, but the duration of training would be extended if necessary. At present, the project is in the process of growing crops and it should end in August 1979. So the results of the experiments have not yet been analyzed by the CDD. However, the CD officials told that if the outcome is good, the participants would be allowed to carry on with the project. Their new proposals also would be approved and they would be provided with loans for investing in further crop growing. But the CDD did not say in the plan about what to do with the model garden, whether it should be kept as a demonstration garden, or given up. It would be beneficial to the villagers if the model garden was left under the care of some women representatives. The CDD may continue to send experts to visit it regularly and to encourage the villagers to visit it. They will be given instruction and demonstrations how to grow better crops. If the CDD cannot provide staff to demonstrate the crop growing methods in this way, it may provide cassettes on agricultural knowledge for informing visitors.

Learning Course:

Whilst the participants were waiting for the crop to grow, they were instructed in the basic knowledge of marketing, cost-benefit, book-keeping, business management, techniques to mobilize capital and to supply goods, co-operative group techniques, and purchasing and selling. These subjects were taught over a period in February 1978.

Next, the participants were asked to make a marketing survey on the actual price to crop yields. In this process, they gained knowledge about the real price of goods, and how to bargain in

selling crops with a reasonable price. They would also be able to estimate the markets demands for a particular kind of crop in the future.

The silk worm rearing and weaving group also attended the same training course as the agricultural group. They made a community and marketing survey but they practised in weaving and learned about silk worm rearing in a different centre.

The agricultural groups learned and practised about new methods of food preservation during 5 days in April 1978. Generally, the village women know well the traditional methods of preserving food, by mixing salt into food, but they do not know how to retain its quality. Good food preservation provides them with extra income, they can keep it long and take it to sell in the open markets near the villages during periods of short supply of such food.

Selling the Crop:

Although the crop is not ready to be sold, the participants made a plan to sell it through firms or trade it by themselves. They decided not to be dependent upon middlemen as in the past. Experience gained on the training courses will enable them to bargain with the traders and know how to control the price. From training about co-operative businesses, they became eager to undertake co-operative action, when they could share the profit. They could predict the next crop demanded by the market so that they would be able to grow the right crop to supply. The training also taught them to make themselves into a powerful group against the middlemen and become important in helping to advance the status and standard of living of the village women in

Sree-saked province.

The silk worm rearing and weaving group also played an important role in encouraging the village women to use their leisure time in silk weaving. It set up a permanent training centre in the hamlet, and bought equipment for weaving and rearing silk worms. This proved that the village women were willing to participate in the CD projects. They were also willing to contribute money to construct a learning centre provided that the government would give them experts for instructing them. This shows that a programme for out-of-school learning does not need the high cost of building up a new learning centre when it can be set up by the villagers.

The weaving group also set up 'Silk Worm Raisers Clubs' and Weaving Centres which were run by some participants who were experienced and skilled as leaders. They produced Thai silk and exported it to Bangkok and other provinces, profits were shared among trainees. The traders had to directly buy silk-cotton materials from these centres. Some participants have carried out the training project of silk weaving to teach young village girls at remote villages. This work helps the village girls to earn during their free time.

Although the actual programme is not yet completed, some difficulties were encountered which were summed up by the CD officials as follows:-

- because of the low level of education, the participants did not understand the function of group work or the idea of group co-operation.
- the majority of participants wanted to be dependent upon the officials and refused to attempt the project on their own.

- some participants were afraid of failure and losing profit, if the new crops were not in demand by markets.
- the project lacked local resources to support new types of crop growing.

The participants also complained of :-

- confusion as to why they had to do a community survey when they already knew the problems of the villages.
- they did not understand much about business affairs and found marketing very complicated.
- the money was not easy to borrow when they needed to experiment in new crop growing methods individually.
- they did not have enough time to participate in activities of the co-operative group.
- the officials were friendly and had been good advisers but they were in awe of them and found it difficult to discuss their problems.
- they suggested that if possible, other training programme in animal husbandry should be given such as chicken, duck and pig rearing.
- training subjects should be simple and relevant to their backgrounds, and especially should be practical.
- they were not sure that they could sell the products at a good price. From past experience, they had found that the price of silk and cotton was a difficult problem. The more they increased productivity, the more the price decreased. This problem was a result of the influence and constraints of the national economy and there was no control over marketing conditions. Therefore, they disliked experimenting with new types of silk worm rearing and cotton productivity.

In brief, the Sree-saked Women Development Project emphasized self-help action. The village women took part in group learning, did the experimentation in new ways of crop growing and silk weaving. They were encouraged to learn something from their efforts in order to make improvements in the local economy as

well as raising the family incomes. Practical work provided them with more self-confidence, and realized that their responsibility for local economic development rests upon themselves. The Co-operative Women's Group provided privileges for members such as receiving a share of profit, buying goods at a cheaper price, and being allowed to borrow money from the Co-operative.

The CD officials noted some useful results that the project has achieved, even though it has not finished its activities yet. It found that the participants appeared to have influenced neighbouring women to become more active in training and changing skills. They imitated the example of the model garden. Many village women applied for the next programme, and have put their names in a waiting list. The participants also needed to have further training. They said they could gain higher cash income from crop growing, silk weaving, in particular selling silk sarongs.

Finally, it should be suggested that the CDD should not concentrate on only two aspects of the training skills in Sree-saked province. The village women need to know about poultry, as they will gain extra income when farming does not allow them to live up to their normal standard of living. The CDD may also help them to improve crop growing by arranging a national demonstration field, radio discussion groups as farm forum, offering year long agricultural training courses and special programmes for particular target groups. One must realize that the participants should have their own land or be promised a piece of land, to apply their new knowledge to their own cultivation. Otherwise, training agricultural skills will not be worthwhile if the participants

are unable to carry on practical work because of the lack of land.

Schedule of Major Activities Planned for the First Two Years
of Sree-saked Project (August 1977 - August 1979)

Preparatory Phase:

1. selecting two villages, one for operating co-operative group, one for seri-culture (silk worm rearing and weaving).
2. meeting with the village committee in each village.
3. selecting members for the two groups.
4. involvement of other government officials (seminar).
5. training CD workers and volunteers involved in the project.

Implementation Phase:

Phase I - Economic Development
The Agricultural Group

1. location on a communal farm land.
2. growing crops on an individual basis on a communal land.
3. training in modern agriculture.
4. training in action:
 - marketing, accountancy, management, co-operative group management (5 days).
 - surveying the market's demand.
 - planning a co-operative agricultural production project.
 - putting a plan into action (to be scheduled).
 - food preservation.
5. expanding production unit into other two villages.

The seri-culture group (Seri = Freedom)

1. organizing the existing housewives into a functional group for seri-culture.
2. selecting two housewives to be trainers.
3. sending two trainers for advanced training in silk-weaving and other skills with the village CD worker (1 month).
4. Training:
 - modern methods in silk worm raising and silk yarn making and dying.

- silk weaving
 - marketing, accountancy, management, co-operatives
(joining academic training with agricultural group)
5. construction of old worm rearing cages (in the home of each member).
 6. constructing a communal young worm rearing cage.
 7. co-operative production in action.

Phase II : The members of two groups are expected to continue other programme base on Social Development after having completed the primary stage.

1. training in community organisation
 - identifying community problems.
 - analyzing the problems.
 - planning solutions to problems)
(basic services approach)) to be scheduled
 - implementing the plan) by women
 - evaluating the results) themselves
2. specific training in basic services
 - to be integrated into the processes (based on the need) of things such as: water supply, child development, primary health care etc.

Evaluation of the Project (to be scheduled).
Reports to be submitted to UNICEF.

Budget:	The Thai Government	Baht	116,000
	Donation from the people		65,540
	Assistance from other Agencies		347,000
	Total		528,000
			=====

Source: the Co-operation Plan of the Department of Community Development and UNICEF, 1978.

III.2. Chiengmai Women's Development Project
(Small Trade Training)

Problems:

Chiengmai province is the capital city of the North which is the second poorest region in the country. Many districts and villages receive little attention from the central government. Some areas are backward, isolated and under the influence of communists. Recently, serious problems have occurred among the young girls. They were persuaded to migrate to Bangkok for domestic service. They later were forced or sold into prostitution. Official data reported that the majority of prostitutes were girls of poor families of the North. The government and other social welfare bodies have made an effort to develop the capacities of village women in a variety of skills in order to enable them to earn money in appropriate jobs in their home towns.

The CDD also helped to improve the standard of living of the village women in the Northern region, by emphasizing small trade training. The first project began in Chiengmai province. Many reasons to set up the project here are as follows:

1. The village women specialize in making umbrellas, nielloware, lacquerware and porcelain. Such products are of interest as they encourage the development of industrialization. The villagers are also craftsmen and make various articles which are later sold. Some village women sew clothes and embroider, make mattresses, weave stools and shoulder bags for sale. Thus they use a variety of skills in their spare time, in order to earn money. However, these activities are hobbies only. There is no incentive to encourage the village women to expand these hobbies and develop them into a major occupation. Recently, the government and

private agencies have attempted to revitalize the crafts in this region, but have not been particularly successful. The village women feel they cannot afford to take the risk of becoming full-time artisans or craftsmen. They do not know enough about trade and this would be needed if there was a need to make crafts and hand made clothes as their major occupation. To remedy this, the CDD planned to develop the capacities of the village women in business affairs.

2. Last year, the village women in this province learned vocational skills from the CD officials so they can build on this experience with further training.

3. Chiangmai is a tourist city and hand made crafts and clothes are popular, so it will be best to begin small trade training here.

4. The CD Regional Centre 5 in Lampang province is near Chiangmai province so it will supply equipment, staff and other necessities to help the project when requested.

Activities:

The following section will explain the actual activities which took place in small trade training project.

First, the village headmen were called to a meeting. They were persuaded to support the programme and asked to select suitable areas for operations. They selected 4 hamlets in the Sarapi district, 2 hamlets in Chompu district and 2 hamlets in Hua-nam district. The training programme began in 1977, and will last until June 1979. It concentrated on applying 'the productive unit techniques' with particular emphasis on the cloth making

and the food preservation productive units. The following programme is expected to operate from July 1979 and last until June 1981. This will emphasize the handicrafts and the crop productive units. (15)

Admission Process:

Training programme would be successful if it has only a few number of trainees to take part. The CD officials were aware of this significance and decided to have only 20 selected women to join the training programme. They were graduates from the vocational training courses of the CD Regional Centre, and had experience in dressmaking, food preservation, handicrafts, and arable farms.

Productive Unit:

The small trade training project aims at providing the women graduates from the CD Regional Centre with a place for working and for earning a living.

The Productive Unit was located at district level. The graduates became its members. They had the responsibility of producing clothes and preserving food by using local materials and resources. During the production, the experts regularly examined the quality of the materials and gave advice. The CDD provided the members of the Productive Unit with a loan to open 'the Woman's Co-operative Shop' at Chiengmai market. All products were displayed and sold from here. The members shared the net profit and owned the shop thereafter.

At first the members were not experienced in trade, so the CD officials opened training courses for them on such subjects as business management, accountancy, marketing, sales management,

salesmanship, designing patterns and the techniques of producing goods.

The Woman's Co-operative Shop was run by the representatives of the cloth and food preservation productive units. By agreement, the members of the two productive units took turns on duty in charge of selling goods in the shop. They learned skills of self-employment. But at the start, the shop was administered by a professional manager, because the members were not experienced. The manager would remain for only 1½ years. Then the members would select one of themselves to be the manager after they had gained the necessary experience for this.

The CDD provided a condition that during the 4 years of actual operation, the shop will be capitalized by the CDD's budget. Thereafter, the members must look for capital to maintain the shop. The CDD would need to move the capital to experiment in new pilot projects, in other villages. If necessary, the members would be asked to teach or to show other village women small trade skills. This project has just started but it is providing the expected outcome. It is training rural women in how to trade, to invest in business enterprises and to have a permanent way of earning a living. In the long term, it may help to reduce the rate of migration to urban areas. The programme will become a model for other villages and the Women's Co-operative Shop will become one area of women's education. Later, when the shop becomes more organized, it will help rural women to be aware of their significant role in local economy.

The first project will be completed in June 1979. The CDD has just estimated its results in the actual operation and in

personal attitudes that the rural women developed a sense of responsibility through the co-operative enterprise. They knew where to sell their products and understood how to trade, to make the best designs in local goods, and how to look for a market for the goods. The members received the benefit and suggested that the CDD should take this project to isolated villages and throughout the whole country. This would encourage rural women to use their free time in making crafts and clothes and selling them through the Woman's Co-operative Shop.

Those two projects, the Sree-saked and Chiengmai, show that the CDD had made a great effort to improve the capacities of rural women in a variety of skills such as in crafts, dressmaking, food preservation, crop growing, silk worm rearing and small trade of which helped them increase earnings. The women participants designed the learning activities, types of training and exchanged experiences through group work. They also improved their leadership qualities which would become available as human resources to help in carrying out the rural development projects of the CDD in the near future. Finally, the projects helped to increase the women's role in economy, particularly in dealing with trade at local level.

IV. Training Community Survey for Young Women Leaders:

Problems:

The CDD has been facing the serious problem of a shortage of CD officials for isolated areas. This is disadvantageous because it is unable to do a social survey to obtain the facts and ascertain ^{the} needs and problems of the isolated villages. This data is necessary as an outline for approaching the rural development project. So

attempts have been made to solve this problem by mobilizing local people to act as local leaders and assistants of the CD officials in making a community survey. Then in November 1977 a pilot project called 'training community survey' was planned which was the first project to experiment whether the young villagers could act as assistants of the CD officials and village leaders in the making of a community survey, and could be able to design a development project into their own villages, and also to run the youth clubs. The project was sponsored by UNICEF and the Thai government.

Methods:

Three principles were focused upon the actual training:

1. Approaching the problem-solving process in practical terms: the trainees had to draw their information from the real situation of village life. They learned about the society through practical work in their own villages.
2. Sharing experiences: the trainees were arranged in groups in order to exchange ideas and experiences based on qualities of leadership.
3. Trial of the project: the trainees learned to experiment in their projects and use group co-operation and social action. (16)

Selection of Area:

The conditions influencing the selection of villages under this scheme were: (a) the areas must be short of CD officials; (b) the difficulty of transport and communication and (c) the high proportion of young school leavers. Pichit province was found to have many socio-economic problems and urgently needed

the CD project. It is a province in the North which is 342 kilometres from Bangkok, and consists of 4,529,668 square k.m. In 1978, there were 242,402 females and 251,832 males in its population. There were 86,567 pupils and 407,667 were not in school.

The economic base of Pichit province is agriculture, forestry and fishery. 85% of the population are mainly engaged in farming, 0.05% forestry (timber) and 0.01% fishery (prawns, silk-oysters). Two rivers, the Nan and the Yom pass through the villages which carry rich alluvial sediment from the Northern mountains, so this is one of the fertile rice-growing areas. But it suffers from the monsoon winds, especially in April when the average rainfall is 13,205 millimetres. The villagers also have serious problems in the prevalence of animal diseases and cannot succeed in rearing animals as a secondary occupation. Isolated villages grow crops once a year and do nothing after the harvesting season. The villagers are extremely poor, the average family income is Baht 1,200 per year.⁽¹⁷⁾ Although the province is near the capital Bangkok, modernization and new technology in agriculture have not influenced it. It remains a typical undeveloped rural area in contrast with nearby provinces.

Pichit province consists of 6 districts and one sub-district. It includes 562 villages and each village is headed by a traditional leader 'Phu-yai-ban'⁽¹⁸⁾. The CD project is unable to approach all villages because of the poor road connections to other villages. Travelling is done by walking along farm paths. The poor roads help keep certain villages in deep poverty. Some villages have no school so the children may have to walk to a school situated in a nearby village, and it may take one hour.

The shortage of schools in their own villages discourages the young villagers from continuing their secondary education so literacy is very low. Only 19 villages out of 68 have an elementary school. Every village school faces a shortage of teachers because they refuse to work in remote villages. There is the Lifelong Education Centre in the province to provide mobile units and vocational training for interest groups in remote villages. The CDD also has applied the CD projects to help develop this province and one of the interesting training projects is a training community survey for young women leaders of which the actual process is as follows:

Preparation of Staff:

The training community survey project was sponsored by UNICEF, on condition that the CDD employed university graduates to work with the provincial CD officers. Then three women and three men were recruited to act as CD volunteers under a contract of one year of employment. Besides degree qualifications, they must qualify for admission by '(a) minimum age of 20 years; (b) Thai nationality; (c) support the government's policy; (d) good health; (e) morality and (f) be enthusiastic.'⁽¹⁹⁾. They were provided with two months intensive training based on community work, so that later they could reap full advantages from the friendly relations they gradually established with the young villagers.

The CDD told the advantages of providing the training for those volunteers that (1) the CD volunteers will have the sense of belonging to the community and the nation. They will pride in being Thai citizens, and their wish for social development;

(2) the CD volunteers will help to make social and economic improvement when they understand the important role of the National Plan. They will help to transmit knowledge and skills to the villagers and help to cultivate and interchange culture among rural people, hence, it will improve national security;

(3) political aims: the CD volunteers are regarded as government representatives and hope to bring about a closer relationship between the government and the people. From experience in working with the CD project, they will become qualified officials of the CDD.

After having prepared the CD volunteers, the CD officials conducted a two-day seminar in Pichit province to introduce the principles, aims and activities to the people involved. They were executive officials, experts, lecturers from the CDD and the CD volunteers. Research staff from the Mahidol University and from the CDD had the responsibility for assessing the programme from beginning to end.

The Organisational structures of the Project were:

1. Executive Committee consisted of Deputy-director of CDD as project director, provincial officer as an operative director, Provincial CD Officer as an assistant of the operative director.
2. An academic section supplied teaching materials, leaflets and books.
3. Supervision by provincial CD officers, provincial supervisors, district CD officers.
4. Research and evaluation; the Research and Evaluation section in the CDD and the Research and Social Institution of Mahidol University did evaluation of the project.
5. Operative staff; district CD officers, CD volunteers.
6. Consultant Committee consisted of experts from various ministries, UNICEF and private agencies.

Brief Schedule of Training Activities:

Step I (30 days)

The trainees are taught techniques such as how to conduct socio-economic surveys, tabulation data, interviews, analyses and assessment of data and formulation of plans. This step will take 5 days. The lecturer is an expert from the CDD.

The trainees will return home for three weeks to collect data and survey their community. The CDD publishes a guide book showing how to find out about village problems, family households, occupations, sanitation, geographical aspects of the villages and others. They will make a detailed survey, plot every stream, every hamlet, record the numbers of animals, household furniture and population. They also have to make assumptions in order to analyze the needs of the villagers and to pick up a good technique to apply for filling such needs and to be successful in rural development. During the practical work, they will be guided and supervised by the CD volunteers and the district CD officers.

Step II (5 days)

The trainees return to the training centre and present the results of the community survey. In this stage, they will be taught about analysis of data and assessment of problems, in order to decide the order in which they must be solved.

Step III (5 days) : training to write a project.

The trainees are taught how to write a proposal project, including plans and suggestions for improving the socio-economic conditions of their villages. The plans will be examined and criticized.

Step IV (8 months)

The trainees return home. They will set up a working group. The members of the group are young villagers. They will discuss a project with emphasis on agricultural development which will need 8 months for experimentation. The project is discussed at village level by the village committee, and is put forward to the CDD. In practice, the CDD will give Baht 20,000 for every project in order to allow the young villagers to develop it fully. During the trainees experiment, the CD officials will periodically survey the project.

Step V : evaluation of the project (5 days)

The CD volunteers arrange meetings among the trainees at village level for 1-3 days every month during the 8 month trial. The trainees share their experiences with other groups. During actual operation, evaluation will be made of all activities to find out the problems and to seek the best solutions. The final meeting will be arranged in Pichit province for 5 days. The trainees will report on the results of their projects.

Discussion of the actual process:

The brief actual training activities planned to complete a project within 1 year. By the time that the writer did a field survey of adult education programme for rural women, the CDD was practising the step I only. The following section explains its actual process. The CDD expected to continue further steps in December 1978. The writer was unable to follow the project because she had a limitation of time in doing her field survey. She contacted the project organisers but she did not receive further information about the achievement or the failure of the project. However, information obtained from observations and interviews could be

used to assess the worth of the project.

In January 1978, 132 trainees (66 girls and 66 boys) were brought together from 6 districts of Pichit province by the CD volunteers. At the beginning, the training centre was expected to be located on the campus of the provincial office. This was to make it comfortable for all persons in charge, including the officials from Bangkok and the research staff. This was so that the officials need not journey a long distance, and also to show the young villagers some town life. But there was inadequate accommodation for the large number of trainees. So the Abbot of Wat-Po-Pratab-Chang district was asked for permission to use the chapel and temple yard for accommodation and classrooms. The village headman provided support by allowing 20 trainees to stay in his home. The local teachers and the well-to-do families offered accommodation for some boys and girls. The elementary school's headmaster allowed the CD officials to move tables and blackboards for learning activities and camping. The project was entirely successful, because of the full support of local people.

Details of the Programme Timetable: (20)

23 January 1978	1330-1630	Camping and division into groups by colours.
24 January	0900-1200	Orientation lecture on community survey technique.
	1330-1630	Youth activities.
25 January	0900-1200	Lecture on community survey technique (cont.)
	1330-1630	Youth activities
26 January	0900-1200	Group work.
	1330-1630	Youth activities
27 January	0900-1200	Conclusion/closedown.
	1330-1630	Return home.

N.B. every morning 0530-0630 there were exercises and practise of some drill.

every evening 1930-2100 there were recreational activities.

The first day, camping was arranged in order to group the trainees so that they can get to know each other. The following day, there was a 3 hour lecture on 'community survey techniques' which was given by an expert from the CDD who has a doctor of philosophy degree. He said that it was quite difficult to teach young villagers who had different educational levels. Many trainees had completed the fourth grade and some the tenth grade of secondary education. The lecturer used folk tales to illustrate how the villagers had become important people involved in community and national development and to keep the trainees awake. The writer noticed that the trainees were not interested in the subject taught. They were tired from the previous evening's camping activities. Also the classroom was not suitable and the light was not bright enough. The roof of the chapel was constructed of zinc and over heated the classroom. This exhausted the trainees and they were reluctant to learn.

The lecturer instructed the techniques of community survey which were based on research and such techniques as interviewing, questions, surveys, collecting data and analysis. The trainees became confused by the using of so many technical terms. Such knowledge is regarded as theory for research students but not simple enough for these trainees who had a low educational background. The writer noticed that only a few trainees were able to take notes. The girls and boys, who completed elementary education at grade 4 level, could not spell the words correctly. This showed that the elementary education was not of a high enough

standard to maintain literacy for many years after leaving school. The girls said that since they had left school they had only a few opportunities for writing practice. They were not familiar with the lecture method. In the schools of Thailand, the students were told to write down details perhaps sentence by sentence. The lecture method, in fact, could not be used successfully for the elementary or lower secondary school students. If this is the case, the lecturer should use simpler words, speak clearly and slowly.

In the morning, the classes were observed by the supervisor from UNICEF, and by the Research staff. They discussed the failure of the teaching method. They accepted the writer's suggestion of applying group discussion in the training. Group discussion would help the trainees to understand a variety of issues based on the community survey. Then in the evening, 6 groups were set up, 22 members were in each group and they were also people from the same district. The group discussions were conducted under the trees. Each group was guided by the CD volunteer. The trainees were asked how far they understood the topic of the morning's lecture. It was found that the trainees were not clear as to what the lecturer had taught; so the CD volunteers repeated that topic. Many trainees were disappointed as they had expected to be trained in some vocational skills. They did not understand why they had to do the community survey or what they could gain from such activities.

The CD volunteers explained to them how to make the survey, how to raise and ask questions and to interview the villagers, then, they defined the meaning of 'problems' by focusing on the economy,

the family and society. Some trainees were unable to classify socio-economic problems. Some girls said that there was no problem in the village. They asked the CD volunteer 'what does economic problem mean?' This showed that young villagers were ignorant of things beyond their own ways of life. They were not aware of wider social and economic problems, as long as they could have rice and food to eat for the whole year.

The CD volunteers encouraged the group members to raise questions and identify with the village's problems. Many girls and boys obviously felt shy. They dared not express their ideas, although free discussion and an informal atmosphere was set up. It was found that participation depended on sex, age, education, residence and experience. For example, boys seemed more active than girls. The trainees who completed elementary education at grade 7 level were more likely to enjoy talking, raising questions and giving good suggestions, than those who completed their education at only grade 4 level. The older trainees tended to be more aggressive and were noisy during the activities (the youngest was 13 years, the oldest was 19 years). Type of social background also determined amount of participation. The trainees who lived in the villages near Pichit province, had higher leadership abilities and understood socio-economic problems better than the trainees from the remoter villages.

After the discussion had been going on for 2 hours, the groups were asked to list the villages' problems and to practise interviewing each other, but they were dominated by the list of problems and plans given by the CD volunteers. They also preferred following the CD volunteers' instruction to doing work

by themselves. They lacked the self-confidence to initiate a plan and they believed in the ability of the CD volunteers. So these volunteers were the persons most influencing success or failure which was dependent on their ability to lead the trainees.

Result of the group report:

The trainees from 6 groups reported on their own villages problems, and these were all found to be similar, as follows:-

Farming: shortage of mobile capital, landless, backward techniques, animal diseases, middlemen influence, shortage of water supplies for cultivation.

Social problems: shortage of schools and teachers, lack of health centres and sanitation, scarcity of transport, unemployment problem among young school leavers, parents do not support children in having secondary or higher education.

The above problems have already appeared in every village throughout the whole country, and need to be immediately solved by the government. Finally, the trainees were asked to prepare a project when they returned home, and to discuss with the young villagers how to plan a good project to help develop their village community.

Award:

During 5 days of training programme, the trainees were taught about social problems, techniques of community survey in every morning period. They were practised to write a programme for rural development, to interview each other and to lead a group. Mostly, the afternoon period was for group activities and discussion. The activities were repeated from time to time until the last day that the organisers provided questionnaires to

evaluate how far the trainees understood the concept of the community survey. Then, the official closing day was done by the provincial officers. The trainees received blue clothes as an honourable symbol, designed and provided by King Bhumipol through the CDD. It was said this symbol motivated the young villagers to join the CD project and be loyal to the King and the nation. They were proud to wear these clothes because this showed their abilities in being leaders of the young people groups.

Problems:

At the first start, the training community survey project had already met serious problems which needed to be solved before using the further steps as mentioned in the brief schedule; for example,

1. Educational background and different needs of the trainees:

The educational background caused a barrier in participating in group work, discussions and camping. The trainees with less education, lacked self-confidence to provide feedback. In fact, to make the community survey required mature people with a good critical thinking in order to judge the social force and be able to determine the social problems. This task was quite difficult for those trainees who were immature and of a low educational background. The young trainees might find difficulty with interviewing, questioning and investigating the actual situation in the villages. The villagers also might not want to answer in detail because the young people were not officials.

The needs of the trainees and the CDD were conflicting. The CDD needed to train local people to act as assistants to the CD officials. But the trainees needed to gain adequate vocational

skills in order to be able to seek an appropriate job or to improve their agricultural practice so they were not willing to take part in activities when they could not benefit.

2. Volunteers:

The CD volunteers were asked to sign a one year contract so they felt insecure. From listening to their conversations it was learnt they were looking for new jobs, but in the meantime were working for the project. One of the CD officials in charge of recruiting volunteers said that the CDD had few sources of volunteers, because there were only a few applicants who had the university degree which was needed to apply for this work. In fact, there were some local volunteers who had experience in community work, but they did not have the degree UNICEF required. Hence it was impossible to train the volunteers to specialize in community work in a 2 month period. It was found that they were more experienced in organizing camping, entertainment and social activities than in other methods of leadership training such as group work and learning activities.

The CD volunteers complained that they had too small a salary. They received Baht 1,150 a month for a university degree and if they had a vocational certificate, they would be given only Baht 750 a month. This rate has been the same for 10 years. Such an amount of money was inadequate for the CD volunteers to manage on as regards accommodation, transport and maintenance. Some of them said they were in debt and so were unwilling to carry on with the project. Then, they met the UNICEF supervisor and requested an extra allowance for spending on a vehicle. They had to hire a motor-cycle or small bus for travelling through the isolated villages. Their request was justified. When visiting

many villages, vehicles such as jeeps or motor-cycle were of vital importance as also for bringing the writer to survey the adult education programmes in Pichit province. Finally, the UNICEF supervisor planned to order vehicles from Japan, and said that every volunteer would be given a motor-cycle for travelling.

3. Co-operation and communication problems:

The CD volunteers complained of lack of co-operation from the CD officials. They ignored their proposals and did not give them freedom in carrying out the project. The CD volunteers disliked being regarded as government officials. Being under bureaucratic discipline they had to bow to the superior officers. This frequent conflict between the officials and the volunteers was not solved. Once the volunteers grouped together and discussed the suggestion that they would stop working for the programme. They thought that the programme would not be able to work without them.

Information and the schedule of the project had been passed to everyone in charge very slowly, because of the official system. For example, the provincial officers received a message telling them to change the schedule from the CDD in Bangkok and then had to forward it to other staff in the villages, but it did not get there in time. Often the communication system frustrated by the low status officials who had to do things in a rush, because of limited time and an unexpected work load.

Clearly, the provincial officers were reluctant to work together with the district CD officials or with the CD volunteers.

Conversely, they seemed to co-ordinate closely with the staff and the supervisors from Bangkok. The enormous gap between the CD

volunteers and the CD officials in status also exacerbated the problem. The former were regarded as temporary workers. The latter were given high status as government officials who have power to give orders.

Experience has proved that the district CD officials, the CD volunteers and the provincial operative staff were dominated by the superiors from Bangkok. They listened to the superiors' suggestions and accepted their ideas without argument. This is commonly seen in the Thai bureaucratic system. The relationship between the superiors and the subordinates sometimes is an obstacle to development. The lower status official feels inferior to his superior and stands in awe of him. Their relationship is seen in terms of fear and dependence. He feels that in undertaking new tasks he is bound to fail. So he prefers to be dependent upon his superior for job assignments. Moreover, he is afraid to propose new ideas to the superior because it is a risk that if the superior dislikes his suggestion it may affect his job. In the bureaucratic system, individual rewards are obtained by pleasing a ministerial superior. As a result of this the low status officials try to preserve their security by pleasing the superior on a personal basis rather than through an improvement of work. This is one problem which hinders the development of the country.

4. Co-operation at village level:

Parents were not willing to allow their children to leave farms during the harvesting season. If there is not enough labour, then the family income suffers. Other reason was that because of traditional attitudes, the villagers were against allowing

their daughters to go camping with the boys. Some girls said their parents understood that the CDD's policy was to improve the community and the capacity of the young villagers. But the girls were censured as if they were not behaving themselves properly. They were out of step with the old traditions. Once, the CD volunteers said they had difficulty in persuading the villagers to allow their children to hold meetings in town. They begged permission. The parents asked 'how much benefit can our children get from the project?' This showed that the CDD did not introduce the policy and objectives of the project adequately to the villagers. Before starting any programme, propaganda and advertisements must be displayed in order to persuade the villagers to support it.

5. Bias in the selective process:

The data revealed that two-thirds of the trainees were from the village headmen's families. The CD official explained to the writer that the committee agreed that the selected trainees should be the sons and daughters of the leading men in the villages. These boys and girls were probably cleverer, better educated, and more able to understand society than others who came from low income families. The former could use their parents' influence, prestige and power to get support from their friends. Later, they would help to establish a youth club or initiate a programme of development in their community.

This opinion is quite right, the CD project has been successful because of the influence of the village headmen and the village committees. However, opportunities for leadership training should be given to all classes. In fact, the boys and the girls from low income families may be stronger, understand the problems

better and have more awareness for the need of development than those from rich families. They have experienced hardship, and so they might sincerely devote themselves to help their neighbours.

Using evaluation process:

The research staff used questionnaires, interviews and observations to evaluate the programme. It was found that the trainees were unable to answer the questionnaire because of their deficiencies in reading and writing. The research staff then decided to read the questions to them individually, and recorded their answers. It is doubtful whether it is possible to judge the success or failure of the project by questionnaires. Many factors, such as the trainees' backgrounds, atmosphere when answering the questions and their willingness to reply, affect the reality of data which may lead to wrongly interpreting the effectiveness and strength of the project.

Summing up, the training community survey project met many problems. There were unqualified staff doing the learning activities; an absence of good relationships between the superior who designed the project and the subordinates who run it; too little interest from the villagers because of lack of publicity beforehand. These problems need to be solved before the project planners continue practising further steps of training. However, certainly the CDD has made a great effort to contribute towards the development of the poor rural areas. The project provided an opportunity for young village boys and girls to be trained as leaders of groups. They would act as co-ordinators in helping the CD officials to run the CD project and establishing youth clubs in remote villages. They could share their experiences among friends and neighbours and learned how to socialize with

the neighbourhood before moving in to do practical work based on interviewing, observation and surveying. The close working relationship with the CD team members will show them that there is no discrimination between the villagers and the officials. They will become aware of the government's efficiency in bringing development to their villages. The community survey trained them to understand culture, occupations, religions, social activities and villages' problems. So community surveys are adult education by means of practical action, which will help the young to improve their ability to think, to discriminate, to judge, and to organise a tentative programme for her/his future.

Funds for Community Survey Training Project

UNICEF provides Baht 452,860 (£11,321.50)

Budget for training:

Preparation stage

Seminar and training staff paying of food	=	2,000 Baht
Camping: youth camping 36 days	=	66,000

Operation of training

Lecture on community survey 5 days: food	=	16,500
transportation	=	3,960 (30 Baht for each trainee)
teaching materials	=	<u>5,000</u>
Total	=	25,460

Analysis Stage (5 days)

food	=	16,500
transportation	=	3,960
teaching aid	=	<u>5,000</u>
Total	=	25,460

Planning and Making a Project among the trainees (5 days)

food	=	16,500
transportation	=	1,980
teaching aid	=	<u>6,000</u>
Total	=	24,480

Evaluation of the Project (5 days)

food	=	16,500
transportation	=	3,960
teaching aid	=	<u>5,000</u>
Total	=	25,460
Budget for lecturers 200 hours		
Baht 50 per hour	=	10,000
Providing subsidy to a project		
in each village Baht 20,000,		
total 6 villages	=	<u>120,000</u>
Total expenses for training	=	298,860
equipment	=	38,000
vehicles	=	<u>116,000</u>
Total	=	452,860 Baht (£1 = 40 Baht)

The Thai government's Budget:

petrol	=	10,000 Baht
accommodation of staff	=	115,200
transportation of staff	=	5,600 (for 2 community development officials)
salary of 7 staff	=	<u>184,800</u>
Total	=	315,600 Baht
		=====

Source: UNICEF and The Department of Community Development Co-operation in planning the programme 1978.

Vocational Training for Disadvantaged Women and Girls of the Public Welfare Department under the Ministry of the Interior

One of the most persistent and growing problems of the big cities, as in Bangkok and Thonburi, is the increasing influx of rural migrants. They usually arrive homeless and jobless, and these social problems need to be handled by the government. Adult education also has to undertake the huge task of helping to organize these people, and giving them a basic education and sufficient civic awareness, to enable them to live adequately

under urban conditions.⁽²¹⁾ Adult education has to consider what types of rural migrants should be its first client for training because it might not be able to provide training skills for all those who are culturally and socially deprived. These disadvantaged people need to be treated and assisted by a special and responsible body which is able to provide them with educational opportunities together with welfare services. So adult education for these disadvantaged people should be undertaken by the Public Welfare Department (PWD) under the MOI.

The following section aims to examine the adult education programmes conducted by the PWD. It focuses on those designed for problem girls or women prisoners, who migrated from rural areas and faced economic pressures in big cities. They need some kind of skill training to enable them to earn a living by legal means.

History of the PWD

Thailand adopted the ideas and principles of public welfare from England and the United States. The government designated social welfare or public welfare as 'a product of social development. Because it takes root and develops from particular and existing social conditions.'⁽²²⁾

In 1930, the Social Security Act was introduced to provide welfare for the general public. Then in 1932, the Coupd'E tat not only initiated a democratic system in the country, but also acknowledged the basic responsibility of the government for social welfare by including it in the Constitution of 1932. It indicated that the state would promote public health provisions, including maternity and child welfare.⁽²³⁾ The Student Act of 1932 was also formulated in order to cover the problem of juvenile

delinquency, particularly those of predelinquency age. This act laid down the foundation for vocational schools for children who are not going to school or those who are anti-social.⁽²⁴⁾

The development of public welfare in Thailand was highlighted by the establishment of the PWD in September 1939⁽²⁵⁾. It began its social services by emphasizing housing, health, nutrition, recreation, family welfare, unemployment, public assistance and mental hygiene. At present, the PWD is the most important government welfare agency.

The PWD set up a public welfare office in Chiangmai in the North, Songkla in the South, and Nakorn Rajasima in the Northeast. They act as the PWD's representatives and serve the rural public promptly in cases of urgent need. The PWD also stimulates public support for the welfare programmes, in order to tackle social disorganisation, and control social problems. There is co-operation between all private agencies and the ministries.

The social service must consider economic need, individual need, and social need. Economic need is concerned with the physical facilities which any human being must be given in order to survive and grow. Social need includes emotional and spiritual needs, such as the comfort, security, respect and affection. The basic survival needs of individuals are also included in the services, for example, clothes, shelter, food and medicine.

Because of past experience, the PWD provided social service in two respects: firstly, by providing facilities to meet the basic needs of the individuals, the family and the group; secondly, by providing services for the backward community, so

that the kind of environment can be created which is needed by individuals, families and groups. The services for rural and urban areas also differed. In rural areas the services made use of existing resources for the benefit of the population as a whole. In urban areas, the services have focused on directly helping families and individuals to solve their problems, in order to enable them to live under urban conditions.

The PWD has provided educational programmes for underprivileged girls. For example, the Rajavithi Home for girls provides residential care for needy girls ranging in age from 5 to 18 years. The girls are provided with primary education facilities in kindergarten, up to elementary education at grade 4 level. Vocational training is offered in such fields as dressmaking, flower arranging, artificial flower-making, handicrafts, carpet-weaving, beauty culture and cookery, to girls who have finished their elementary education and want to take up these vocations as a career. In 1978, this home had 646 girls.

Pak-kret Home for Crippled Children takes care of physically handicapped children, both boys and girls, aged from 5 to 18. They are provided with compulsory education and vocational training facilities. In 1975, this home had 127 children.

Phiboon Prachasan School provides free education, from kindergarten up to elementary education at grade 7 level, for off-spring of low income families.

The PWD established self-help land settlement in accordance with the government's policy on the utilization of the uncultivated and deserted land resources. This is with the multiple

objectives of increasing agricultural productivity, helping solve the problems of forest resources, shifting cultivation and forest squatting, creating communities, trade, communication, transport and industry, and raising income levels. Self-help land settlement is helping to relieve population density in the cities, by transferring people who are willing to start a new life in agriculture from the city to the settlements. The farmers will develop an increased sense of belonging to the land they are cultivating, and to their community.

The PWD established a training centre with agreement on technical assistance, and co-operation between the Thai government and the Federal Republic of Germany. The centre offers training courses and demonstrates the methods of modern agriculture, to women and men in the self-help land resettlement. For example, the methods of soil preparation and soil conservation; harvesting and the use of fertilizers and other techniques related to the occupations taken up by the trainees. The Ministry of Industry also helps to send home-industrial teachers to train those people, in such fields as metalwork, pottery, silk worm raising and silk production. It is expected that by providing such training skills, the settlers will eventually contribute to the progress of social and economic development of the country.

The PWD also provides vocational training for women and men who have been confined for a long time in mental hospitals in such subjects as welding, carpentry, printing, masonry, agriculture and animal husbandry. Most vocational training has been for agriculture. There are 30 rais of land reserved for this purpose in which 600 coconut trees, 10,000 jack-fruit trees and 500 mango trees have been planted. In the year 1975, the gross

income gained from this programme, was Baht 5,311. The net profit is usually shared between the residents (70%), the institution (25%) and the supervisors (5%). After having finished training, the trainees will be provided with employment in small businesses.

The PWD has been providing institutional care for the destitute under the provision of the Act of Beggary Control 1941. There are 4 homes for the female and male destitute, which offer vocational training courses principally for industrial skilled labour, agricultural skills and home industry skills. The training will help the destitute to be able to earn a living by selling their products through the institutions.

The PWD also support the setting up of youth centres for the constructive use of leisure time, through recreational programmes. There are 3 youth centres in the central part, providing indoor and outdoor games, cookery courses, handicrafts, Thai classical dancing, study tours, swimming and library services. There are about 250-300 members participating daily in each centre. The PWD could not support youth centres in rural provinces because of the lack of staff, but it encourages the provincial public welfare offices to promote youth centres in the rural areas.

Vocational Training Programmes for Problem Girls:

Out of the many programmes provided for disadvantaged women's groups, vocational training for problem girls is one of interest. The following section examines how far the PWD has used adult education to raise the standard of living of these girls; and investigates the real problems of the girls which cause them to become prostitutes. At present, prostitution has become a serious

social problem which urgently needs to be solved. Information on prostitution in Thailand has been rarely published and it was difficult to find a government report on this matter. Therefore, the following outline will be based on available documents of the PWD and from the writer's observations.

General Background:

Little is recorded regarding the history of commercialized prostitution as it exists in present-day Thailand. 'Apparently, the first legislation to regulate it was the Control and Prevention of Venereal Disease Act of 1909.'⁽²⁶⁾ It was the first effort of the Thai government, to control prostitution through a licensing and regulation of houses and prostitutes. It also tried to control the spread of venereal disease.

After the first Act was announced, the government did not make much effort to eradicate prostitution. It could be practised on licenced premises until the Act of 1960 announced its suppression of the Exploitation of the prostitution of others.

Section 6 of the Act said that 'no female shall engage in sexual relations for money'. A girl who works as a prostitute must be arrested, and the penalty for a conviction for soliciting, is a fine up to Baht 2,000, or imprisonment not exceeding 6 months.

Section 2 laid down that the PWD has the duty to set up treatment centres for venereal disease and vocational centres for imprisoned prostitutes.

Section 9 said that 'no person shall establish or operate a prostitution business; if they do, they shall be punished with a fine not exceeding Baht 4,000 or imprisonment not exceeding

one year, or both. (27)

Although the law has condemned prostitution as a kind of crime, the problem of prostitution has not declined. The government insisted that the PWD and the Department of Police should increase their efforts and make a plan for the suppression of prostitution and the rehabilitation of the prostitutes.

In fact, the problem of prostitution is a complex one which cannot be suppressed by legislation and police action alone. The root problem of being in prostitution is socio-economic pressure, which needs to be attacked by the authorities if they want to succeed in reducing prostitution.

It is very interesting to study some factors which motivate girls from poor families to become prostitutes. For example, Professor Gibbon argues that a prostitute is someone who is mentally defective, has a primitive outlook, is uncivilized, is wild, is quite untrained and aggressive. (28) This argument may refer to uneducated girls from backward areas; their low educational attainment affects their awkward manner. There is a question as to why they are wild. It may be assumed that a girl who has suffered from being compelled to prostitute herself, feels inferior and thinks that the world despises her, so these pressures may affect her behaviour. She becomes aggressive and attacks others. When she becomes wild, she may easily commit crimes and may become a drug taker. In considering this point, education becomes a vital element to enlighten the girls, and to help them understand the actual situation of society, and to try to avoid prostitution by taking up a satisfactory career.

Engles (1973) and Babel (1971) point out that there is a strong psychological factor involved in becoming a prostitute. But Ralph argues that economic factors may be important enough to be classed as precipitating factors in prostitution.⁽²⁹⁾

In Thailand, the socio-economic characteristics of prostitutes in the three Penal Institutions were studied intensively. Evidence revealed that both economical and environmental change are important factors. It is assumed that because there is no social security service in Thailand, it is perhaps reasonable to see prostitution as the only way to avoid starvation. Smart says 'the economic explanation of prostitution in an affluent society, is in terms of the relatively limited opportunities for women to earn a living.'⁽³⁰⁾ This is true. The rural girls found themselves unqualified and unable to get a good job. When they are facing poverty and hunger, they are forced to become prostitutes.

Statistics of the three Institutions for Socially Handicapped Women revealed that the girls became prostitutes because of economic problems and environmental changes (culture, entertainment and types of jobs such as bar girls and masseuses.) The following table shows 3 factors influencing prostitution.

Year	Number	Economic Problem	Environments Change	Physical and mental handicap
1973	974	62.2	31.8	6.0
1974	658	62.2	35.1	2.7
1975	967	54.7	44.3	1.0
1976	725	55.6	41.9	2.5
1977	1,841	42.1	56.8	1.1

Source: Report of the three Penal Institutions to the Department of Public Welfare, 1978.

For 5 years the economic problem has been the most important pressure on the girls to become prostitutes. This problem is also linked to areas of development. In Thailand, the Northeast and the North are regarded as underdeveloped areas, so there is a high percentage of prostitutes originating from both regions as shown in the following table.

Year	the North	the Northeast	the South	the Central	Loa
1973	29.2	43.2	5.2	22.3	.1
1974	30.1	40.6	3.5	24.9	.9
1975	37.7	38.6	5.5	17.9	.3
1976	35.9	36.8	5.8	21.4	.1
1977	39.3	34.0	7.3	19.2	.2

Source: Report of the three Penal Institutions to the Public Welfare Department, 1978.

To some extent, rural girls from low income families use their sexual attractiveness for earning when they are unqualified for other jobs. Some of the girls who were interviewed said their parents had been in debt, so they felt obliged to relieve their debt. They believed in religious maxims such as Tham-Di, Dai-Di, Tham Chua, Dai Chua; which means do good, receive good, do evil, receive evil. In their upbringing they are taught that if they do good for their parents, they will receive a reward, if not in this life, then in the after life. Some girls explained that they migrated to Bangkok to search for good fortune, but life in Bangkok was difficult and the cost of living is high, so finally, they decided to become prostitutes, and found they could earn much more money than women in more respectable jobs.

If the PWD wants to suppress prostitution, the first step must

be helping the low income family by means of social welfare and vocational training.

Statistics show that in 1977 the environmental changes influenced a large number of prostitutes; for example, their lack of familiarity with the city way of life, the spread of the mass media, and the expansion of entertainment outlets such as bars, night clubs, restaurants, massage and discos. The young Thais were not aware of the changes in the new environment. They made use of the luxury offered to enjoy themselves as much as possible, which they wanted as their way of life. They were really compulsive spenders and were not creative or productive. The young girls spent a lot on cosmetics, clothes, entertainment and following western styles of fashions and cultures, in order to make themselves modern and westernized. When they could not afford to have a luxurious life or could not manage their social environmental problems, they probably decided to earn a living by using their sexual attractiveness and became prostitutes.

The Thai films and drama programmes used to show stories about rural girls who achieved wealth by using their beauty to attract rich men in Bangkok. Many educators criticized and pointed out that such stories encouraged uneducated rural girls to imagine that if they migrated to Bangkok, they would make their fortune. But in reality, this did not happen. They were deceived, seduced and oppressed by masters or gangs of delinquents. The government treated this situation as an urgent social problem that must be solved. The mass media were directed to cease producing dramatic programmes which gave rural girls wrong ideas about the world, and the government also requested the press to help in suppressing

prostitution.

There are several additional problems associated with prostitution. For example, the majority of prostitutes are uneducated, and do not know how to practise birth control, so there is a secondary problem of many pregnancies and illegitimate children. Some have their children adopted or sell them to foreigners, which is bad for Thailand's reputation abroad. As it has become a very urgent social problem, the PWD needs to deal with it by means of social welfare and education.

The campaign to suppress prostitution was started by various organisations. The NCWT set up two centres for vocational training in the Lampang province of the North; one offers vocational training for those who decide to give up prostitution; the other attempts to prevent rural girls from becoming prostitutes, by providing training skills for job replacement in the community. The AED and other ministries produce radio programmes depicting the suffering of rural girls in Bangkok, and reveal the tricks of the gangs. The PWD and the District Government Offices have put up posters and given public addresses to warn young girls of the tricks and deceptions practised to lure them into prostitution. Several newspapers focused public attention on this problem. Pamphlets^{were also} supplied to girls^{in order to} give information about agencies which can help them if they are in trouble.

The PWD started the campaign to reduce prostitution by providing vocational training for problem girls, so they could have some skill for making a living in socially accepted ways. Three institutions were established to run the campaign. They are:

1. Pak-kred Home for Socially Handicapped Women, which is situated in the Pak-kred district of Nonthaburi province, with a capacity to provide services for 500 inmates. But in 1977, there were 821 women accommodated therein.
2. Narisawad Home for Socially Handicapped Women, which is situated at Tambol Jaw Haw, Nakorn Rajchasma province, with a capacity to provide service for 300 inmates. But in 1977, there were 440 women accommodated therein.
3. Kredtrakarn Home for Socially Handicapped Women is situated at Koh Kred in the Pak-kred district of Nonthaburi province, with a capacity to provide service for 500 inmates. But in 1977, there were 580 women therein.

Two kinds of inmates in three institutions are:

1. The former prostitutes who are convicted and turned over to the PWD.
2. The prostitutes who volunteer to seek help from the PWD.

Selection Process for Vocational Training Courses

Although the three Institutions permitted the inmates to make their own choices of the training courses, they took the women's intellectual ability and aptitudes into consideration when allowing this. General adult education to level 1 was recommended as a compulsory course for illiterate inmates, and level 2 for those who had an educational attainment lower than elementary education at grade 4.

Statistics revealed that the inmates had educational attainments of different levels, and the majority had completed only the fourth grade of elementary education. The percentage of inmates who had no schooling at all also tended to be high. From 1976 to 1977, numbers of highly educated women have appeared in prostitution. The following table shows their educational backgrounds:

Year	Number	No education	grade 1-3	grade 4	grade 5-6	grade 7	grade 8-9	grade 10	Over
1973	974	31.8	23.4	43.0	.7	1.0	.1	-	-
1974	658	34.0	14.7	48.8	1.1	1.2	-	.2	-
1975	964	37.0	10.3	34.2	17.0	1.1	.2	.2	-
1976	725	35.2	18.1	43.2	1.2	1.4	.5	.4	-
1977	1,841	35.7	16.0	44.7	1.2	1.2	.8	.3	.1

Source: Occupation Assistance Division, Public Welfare Department, 1978.

The inmates' educational attainments influenced the programme planners in providing training courses with a less complex structure, and simple skill-training at manual or semi-skilled level. The following outline describes several courses offered by the Institutions.

1. Literacy Classes aim at improving the ability to read and write and providing an opportunity for the inmates who wish to complete elementary education equivalent to the fourth grade. The classes use the same syllabus, curriculum and evaluation as general adult education at levels 1 and 2 of the evening adult classes of the AED. But the subjects taught, such as mathematics, history, geography, the Thai language and science, may not be useful to the inmates. In fact, the Institutions should make literacy classes functional by integrating home economics and other skill-training into the literacy curriculum. What must be realized is that the inmates have great difficulty in earning their living, so they need skill-training more than literary skill.

From observation at the Pakkred Institution, the literacy classes

were overcrowded, each class had more than 50 students. Each teacher taught every subject in each class. Four teachers explained that they used only lecturing and individual tutoring methods. The classes took 6 months to reach standard required so the teachers had insufficient time to organize other activities. The students were required to remember all the facts and information from the text-books in order to pass an examination which was given by the Standardized Test of the AED. These examination papers ask only for facts so the students do not learn critical thinking.

The writer noticed that the students were not interested in studying. Some were chatting, some sleeping and in general not paying attention to the lesson. When they were asked about their interests, some said that they wanted to learn skills rather than literacy.

The inmates who passed the literacy at level 2 were allowed to enrol in vocational training courses, according to their own choices, but those who attained only level 1 were not able to select their training courses until their aptitudes and abilities were tested. In fact, the Institutions required them to continue literacy classes up to level 2, if they were staying for sufficient time.

The Institutions should not restrict the opportunities for learning. Many jobs such as barbering, weaving, crafts, book-binding and cookery do not require literary skills. The inmates have a limited time, only 6 months or a year in the Penal Institutions, so they urgently need vocational training before being released. Some inmates may have a particular choice for

earning a living, and so need to learn a particular skill for their new career. So skill-training should be offered to all.

2. Printing Press Training Course:

This course is offered to the inmates who had educational attainments at grade 4 level, and can read and write both the Thai language and the English language. At the time this class was being observed, there were 42 students divided into two groups. One was taught the basic theory of setting up the types, and the other was trained in the actual printing. The students would be given jobs by the Press Companies, and also the Press at the Pakkred Institution after having completed the course.

3. Book-binding training:

The Pakkred Institution publishes several books and magazines for business companies, so it needs workers in the book-binding section. Mentally handicapped and disabled inmates are taught this skill. They receive pay for their labour according to the quality of the work done. The writer noticed that the inmates enjoyed doing this work. They said 'it is not hard work but quite good pay'.

4. Child care training centre:

Some inmates had children or gave birth during their term of imprisonment. The children were kept during the day time at the children's centre, while their mothers were learning skills. So the centre needed staff to look after them. So the inmates who were interested in child care, were trained in baby care, child psychology, health, nutrition, and cleanliness. Nurses were acting as the teachers. Apparently, only a few inmates had applied for this course.

5. Sewing Class:

This was the most popular course. The majority of the inmates enrolled for it because it would enable them to open a small dressmaking shop. Two teachers were employed, both of them had certificates from the Girls' Vocational School. One dealt with practical work with 32 students; the other taught the theory of sewing with 38 students. The teachers were asked whether or not they should have uneducated girls in their classes. They commented that it was difficult to teach illiterate girls, because sewing needed knowledge of figures, how to measure, cut and design the pattern; and also learn the theory of sewing. So they preferred teaching literate girls. They also said that illiterate trainees delayed the class and wasted the time of other more advanced trainees.

It was a condition for entering the sewing class that the trainees must attain a literacy level 1. If they spent 6 months in the literacy class, they would be able to spend the second 6 months in the sewing class.

The Institute usually received cotton, materials and other necessities for making dresses from department stores or voluntary bodies. All dresses were sold. The net profit was shared; 20% of it for the trainees. This training course enabled the inmates to earn during their imprisonment.

6. Laundry: (Ironing and washing clothes by hands)

Every inmate must work and learn something. Laundry is one of the simple skills offered to the disabled inmates. During the period of observation in March 1978, forty inmates were trained in cleaning and ironing different kinds of clothes and materials.

Their trainer was an experienced and skilled woman who had an educational attainment of the tenth grade. She said, 'there is a syllabus on laundry, and the students have to know what kinds of materials and what sorts of washing powder and soap need to be used with different water. Most trainees will return home to their respective rural areas, where they usually have to face the problem of shortage of water supply. Learning washing techniques will help them to save water. The disabled inmates can earn money in their home towns, or in a big city, by taking clothes from well-to-do families, to clean and iron in their own homes, for which they get paid monthly.' Apparently, this job is quite popular among uneducated girls in the city.

The Institution received clothes from nearby families and charged them Baht 75 per month. Income was shared among the trainees; 70% for them, and the rest for expenses.

7. Weaving Course:

This encourages the inmates to take up weaving cotton and silk as a career, and to utilize local resources to produce cloth and so be able to earn. They do not need to look for employment on release and may open a small business in cotton or silk products.

The Narisawad Institution in Nakorn Rajchasi province studied how to market local materials. This province is famous for its silk products, so the Institution opened a shop to display and sell cotton and silk cloth made by the inmates. It also has the biggest building for silk weaving and provides jobs for the inmates, and buys materials from them after they have left the Institution. It is hoped that by these activities it will

help to decrease the number of prostitutes, and also keep the village girls working in their local community.

8. Hairdressing:

Only the Institution in Nonthaburi has its own barber training centre. It provides a standardized training course which teaches not only barbering skills but also good manners, cleanliness and the prevention of contagious diseases.

The centre offers a hairdressing service to the public so as to obtain models for the trainees. Usually the clients are handicapped students from the School for the Deaf and Blind, or children of low income families. The trainees take a job in the hairdressing trade. It is said that men prefer having their hair cut by women, because they are neat, clean and do the work better than male barbers. At the time of this observation, there was a male teacher with 20 trainees. He explained the method of training and said 'the greatest difficulty is getting the trainees to design a specific style suitable to the client's face'. The trainees said that they enjoyed the freedom to learn, and did not have to worry about homework or assessment as in literacy classes, and they hoped to own their own hairdressers shop in the near future.

9. Embroidery and Training to be a Cook:

The Institution had a workshop which was divided into two sections; one was a cookery class and the other an embroidery class. The cookery class taught the preparation of Thai foods and gave details of recipes. The embroidery class practised needlework, e.g. how to put one's initials on a handkerchief, how to design embroidery and embroidering a scarf. These training programmes

would enable the inmates to make a living in domestic service.

10. Library:

The three Institutions required libraries as reading centres. They had tried to set up a small reading room. But it was found that the inmates did not wish to read further. The officials complained that the inmates did not use the centre for reading but for taking sheets of paper with which to make cigarettes. It was difficult to look after the centre when there was a shortage of staff. However, the centre could appoint selected and adequately qualified inmates to act as librarians. They could list the borrowers' names, and charge them, if the books are damaged. It must be realized that the reading books should be simple and easy to understand for those who have a low level of educational attainment. From observation, it seemed the inmates were interested in newspapers, cartoon books and pictures on posters and leaflets.

Evaluation:

The PWD laid down that the literacy classes must have a test every 4 months, and the vocational classes every 6 months. The Institutions must report the results to the PWD as soon as possible.

In fact, the Institutions use a standardized test of the AED for the literacy classes. The examination papers of the Evening Vocational School for Adults, or of various vocational training departments of the ministries concerned; or of private agencies such as the YWCA or the NCWT are used for testing the ability of vocational training classes. The Director of the Occupation Assistance Division said that the reason for having outsiders'

examination papers was to compare whether or not the inmates reached the same levels of attainment as the students of those institutions. This would show that the standard of the educational programmes of the three Institutions was sufficiently high, and the public would understand that their inmates have benefited from being in the Institutions. This should draw the attention of the problem girls outside the Institutions, and induce them to give up prostitution and apply for vocational training.'

The following courses are usually provided for the inmates:

literacy class levels 1&2	nutrition
dressmaking	child care
tailoring	weaving
handicrafts	making carpets
home economics	laundry
barbering (hairdressing)	type-setting
agriculture	printing
animal husbandry	cutting paper
cookery	book-binding
assistant officials	

After the three Institutions started offering vocational training courses to the problem girls, dressmaking, handicrafts and weaving proved popular subjects for the girls could use these skills for running their own businesses afterwards. Unfortunately the Institutions did not keep a record of the number of graduates from each class so it is difficult to judge the success rate of these educational programmes. However, information obtained from observation and interviews could be used to assess the worth of the programmes and show that they have been entirely successful. Many problem girls could earn a living from such skills and give up prostitution. So it can be assumed that adult education is very useful and helping the country to eradicate prostitution as well as helping the girls to earn a living in respectable jobs.

The PWD provided loans for inmates who needed financial support when starting small business ventures, of approximately Baht 2,000 without interest charge. It was found that many inmates borrowed money for buying sewing machines, in order to open a small dressmaking shop.

The PWD took the responsibility of following up the released girls through its social workers. They found out whether the girls started a new career or returned to prostitution. Their records showed that most of the girls returned to their home towns and set up in new jobs. The PWD also directed that the district officers and the district police to look after the girls in order to prevent them returning to prostitution.

It is clear that the PWD has gone a great way towards eradicating prostitution. The PWD brought this about by incorporating vocational training courses in public welfare projects in order to improve the situation of disadvantaged women. It helped them to become re-established with their families on returning home or alternatively to find proper living quarters and employment. This reduced the gap between socially well adjusted women and socially handicapped women. However, it is advisable when providing training courses for the inmates that consideration should be given as to the skills needed in their home districts and what sort of products are needed for selling. Specific knowledge like this will guide the PWD in the designing and selection of training courses in order to equip the girls as well as possible for getting appropriate jobs. In addition, the PWD should co-operate with private businesses, or should set up a co-operative business to buy the materials produced by the

released girls. It also benefits the country, if the girls can use local resources when producing local goods.

Conclusion:

The MOI has made an effort to raise the standard of living of rural women through the CD and the Public Welfare projects. The projects were carried out in two major areas of action. One deals with educating individuals so that they understand their problems and needs through counselling, guidance, psychological action, vocational training, discussions and group work. These methods were put into action by the PWD and its targets were problem girls and disabled women. The CDD dealt with the development of communities, particularly in rural areas. This was pursued through leadership training and self-help projects.

The CD officials used community survey techniques consisting of exploration, investigation and collecting data on the needs and problems of the villagers as a first step in getting to know as much as possible about the areas. The facts obtained guided them in designing the most suitable programmes, and also helped the adult educators to provide assistance to the CDD with equipment, mutual planning and experts.

Experience has shown that rural women selected the programmes which were based on practical skills rather than theoretical ones. Most women expressed preferences for domestic subjects in the responses to the survey. Since they were widely demanded, they should be provided, even if, they are not the main subjects needed for helping the community to develop. But rural women may be willing to accept new types of learning if they see the

advantages. It is important to show them how much they may benefit from the new programme approach. Forming groups as a first step is the best technique as individuals are very much influenced by the groups they belong to. If some members of the group accept the policy of the CD project then this will influence the others to think in the same way.

The CD officials can use a festival time to investigate the need for educational programmes for rural women. Information presented as entertainment is mere attraction, and more people will take notice. When people's attention is attracted in this way, then the CD officials may ask them to vote for programme and afterwards go on to develop it to meet the needs they have expressed.

The success of various projects of the CDD and the PWD relies on co-operation between staff and external departments. At staff level, superior officers should express sympathy, understanding and listen to subordinates' opinions, and provide them with a feeling of security in their jobs. In the past, problems of co-operation among staff occurred because of feelings of inferiority. Because of over-sensitivity about their inferior position, subordinates found it difficult to initiate programmes or offer suggestions to their superior officers. They felt in a dilemma. If too much in awe of their superiors, they could not work to satisfy the villagers. The superior officers must understand this problem and work out having good communication and making good relationships with their subordinates. In a decentralized system, the lower officers must have freedom to plan and organize programmes and the superior must not act as a dictator, otherwise the projects will not

succeed.

In order to avoid duplication, conflict, waste of effort and resources, there must be co-operation with external departments when many organisations are running the same types of the CD projects in the same areas.

Finally, it can be said that adult education has successfully tackled the problems of the disadvantaged and socially handicapped women from the rural areas. It is possible for them to learn things which are useful to their lives. There are courses for marketing, agriculture, weaving, home economics, vocational skills, co-operative businesses, small-businesses, and community surveys. Adult education has played a great role in economic improvement and community development. It brings the village women together and gets them to participate more in business and agricultural affairs. The writer would like to express the value of adult education by quoting the statement from the Commonwealth Seminar: "It contributes to national development directly by reducing unnecessary waste of human and material resources, and thereby increasing prosperity, and through its activities, a greater proportion of the population can be encouraged and enabled to participate in the national education programme. The individual is primarily attracted to adult education because it offers alternative and additional channels to a higher social status or an increased income."(31)

CHAPTER VI

THE ROLE OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF WOMEN OF THAILAND
IN NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

This chapter investigates the role of the National Council of Women of Thailand (NCWT) in providing non-formal education for rural women. It is one of the voluntary bodies which devotes its efforts wholly to the education of women.

General Background:

After the 1932 revolution, there has been a gradually growing number of women's associations for educational and social purposes. At present, there are many professional women's groups such as the Nurses Association, Women Doctors' Association, Women Lawyers' Association, University Women Graduates' Association and Home Economic Association. There are also associations for social services such as, Family Welfare Service Agencies, Girl Guide Association of Thailand, Young Women's Christian Association Day Care Centre, Pierra's Foundation (for helping illegitimate and orphan children and also for helping prostitutes), Women Volunteer Corps, Thai Women's Association, Thai Muslim Women's Association, Women's Association for Pacific and Southeast Asia (whose headquarters are in Bangkok) and the Cultural Promotion Association for Women (to promote women's status and culture). These associations are voluntary bodies which provide a wide variety of services, including an educational service for disadvantaged women, for young people, the disabled and the poor.

In 1955, many Women's Associations proposed that Thailand should have a national council of women to act centrally for women, and to be a representative of those Associations as a whole. In

1956, the NCWT became a representative and legal organisation. It is now under the Royal Patronage of Her Majesty Queen Sirikit.

It is not easy for women leaders to take up social work, for example in voluntary service, and also to take the mother's and housewife's role. Thai people think in general that voluntary work causes broken homes because mothers do not have as much time to look after their children as before. Thai men are not pleased if their wives become involved in social welfare work. So women leaders have to stand firm against the unfair criticisms of those who disapprove of their leaving the households in order to take up social work. As they realize that social development needs to be carried out by women as well as men, so they should not fail to take part in development activities. In a survey, sixteen women leaders from Bangkok, Chiangmai, Nakorn, Rachasima, Pichit, Nakorn Pathom and Rachaburi provinces and who all have had experience in voluntary work, were interviewed. They said that it is necessary to encourage educated women to devote themselves to organizing educational programmes for disadvantaged women. Privileged women should help the underprivileged. They should especially support the government's policy of extending non-formal education into rural areas.

Women leaders of the Women's Association are most commonly from middle and upper class families and are usually respected leaders of society, business women and university lecturers. They are able to use their wider experiences and advanced education for helping informal education programmes for the disadvantaged and many have started such classes. For example, women from the Thammasart University organize Sunday classes for adults, who have not gone on to secondary education. They teach subjects

such as Labour Law, foundation of law, basic economics, and languages.

The leading women from Chulalongkorn University organize several educational courses for the general public. These are languages (Thai, Japanese, Italian, French, English and German), drama, philosophy, politics, computers, book-keeping, communications and basic law.

The leading women in Chiangmai province organize vocational training for young women at a women's centre on subjects such as handicrafts, music, dancing and dressmaking.

In personal interviews, the women organisers were asked whether they understood the meaning of adult education and in what respects it should benefit rural women. It was found that many of them knew quite a lot about adult education in evening classes for illiterate adults. Of sixteen women questioned, eleven understood that adult education is for those who need elementary or secondary education certificates. They pointed out that women should be given training in various skills which could then be used immediately to enable them to earn. Seven of the sixteen women also pointed out that continuing education is needed for young rural girls. But some of them commented that rural girls may not need further education once they have reached marriage age, and they also commented that it is difficult to convince the rural women that no-one is too old to learn. Finally, they suggested to other educational planners that subjects which should be taught to rural women are civic affairs, handicrafts, child care, health, family planning and agriculture.

General Aims:

Having outlined the general opinions of the leaders of the Women's Associations on the desirable aims of non-formal education for women, the following section goes on to examine the contribution of the NCWT.

The NCWT declares that its objectives are as follows:

1. to promote social security and well-being as well as better understanding among human beings especially females.
2. to act as a consultative and advisory body to its 90 affiliated member Associations (27 Associations in Bangkok, 63 Associations in rural provinces), and to encourage efforts in self-help.

In practice, the NCWT's affiliated member Associations in the rural provinces administer their own programmes and have adopted some projects of the NCWT if they could be useful to local people. Such projects would be supervised or guided by the NCWT Board.

The NCWT provides opportunities for its members to meet and exchange ideas and experiences concerning social problems, by conducting conferences, seminars or local workshops. In carrying on their work, the stronger and more experienced members will help the younger and less experienced ones.

3. to exchange ideas and information among international Women's Associations.

The NCWT applied to be one of the members of the International Women's Associations (IWA) in 1960. In March 1977, it played a major role in organising an international seminar for women's associations on the theme of "The Role of Women's Organisations in the Promotion of Handicrafts in Asian countries". The seminar

was aimed at encouraging these women's associations to become more involved in the promotion of the handicraft industry in Asian countries, because at present, handicraft industries are one of the best ways for women to earn a living.

Memberships:

The persons who are included in the NCWT's members are:

1. Ordinary members: These are women's associations or organisations which have been legally established for a minimum of one year. It is required that they should conform to the NCWT's policy.
2. Association members: These include qualified women who apply for membership and are unanimously approved by the NCWT Board of Directors.
3. Honorary members: These include distinguished women who are invited to join the projects.

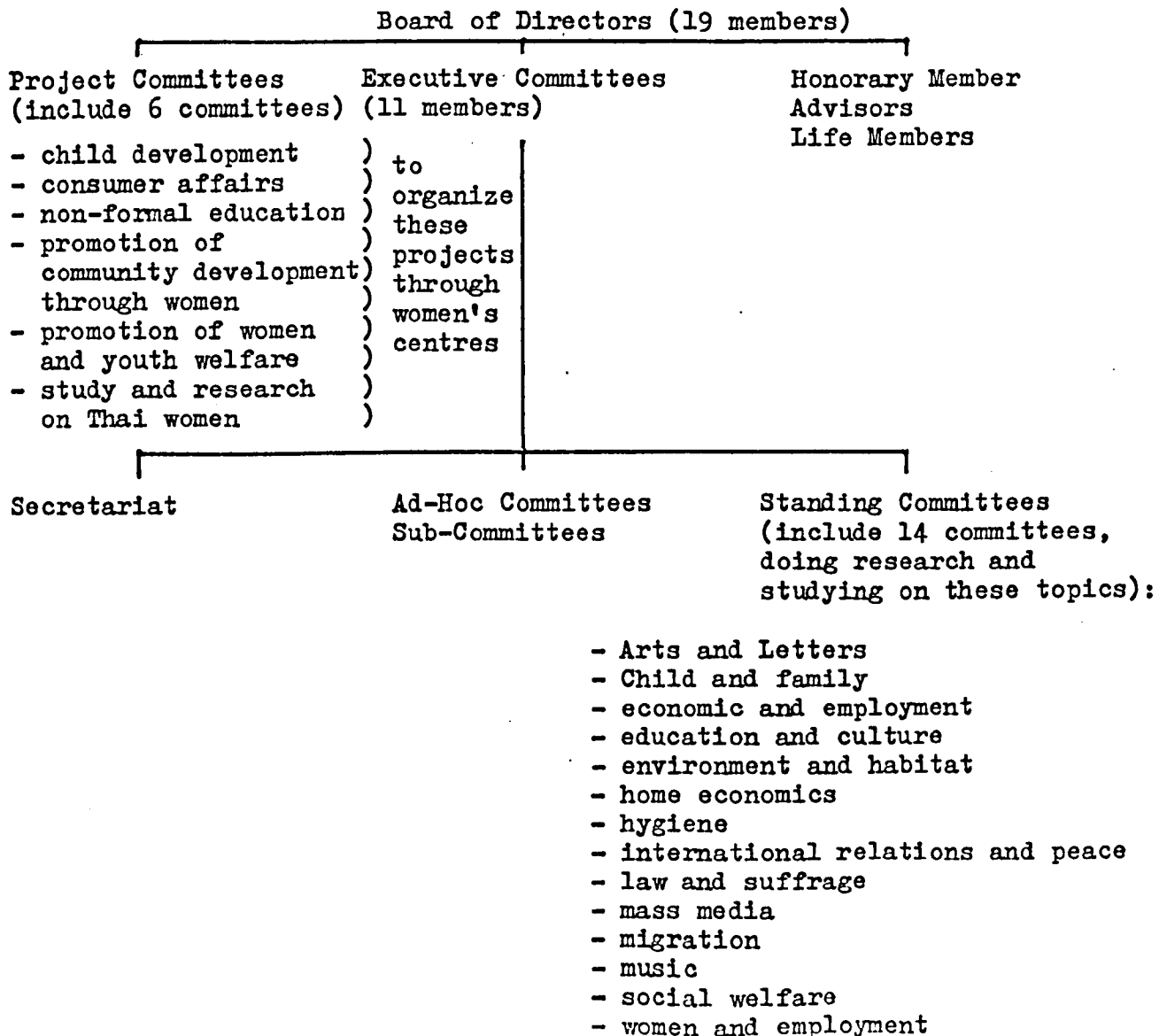
Administration of the NCWT:

1. The Board of Directors: 19 members are elected by the members to be in charge for 2 years. They are responsible for the execution of policy and the conducting of affairs in conformity with the NCWT's objectives. The Board has the authority to appoint people from any of the 90 affiliated member associations to be on the Executive Committee, the Standing Committees, the Project Committee and the Special Committee.
2. The Executive Committees consist of eleven members; six are from the Board and the others are women with suitable qualifications, e.g. university lecturers and experienced business

women. They are responsible for the execution of the policy laid down by the Board. The administrative and routine works of the NCWT are partly the concern of this committee; e.g. correspondence, arranging panel discussions, lectures, social and business meetings, public and member relations, international relations, publishing news and journals.

3. The Standing Committees have the duty of carrying out studies, research, giving advice based on research, reporting on their activities and making proposals to the Executive Committee for submission to the Board. The 14 Standing Committees are shown in the diagram.

The National Council of Women of Thailand
Organisation Chart 1977-79



Source of Funds:

The NCWT has the responsibility of obtaining sufficient funds to cover all projects and administrative expenses. As it is a voluntary body, funds are received from:

1. the government which provides money for pilot projects which are relevant to community development.
2. charitable societies which contribute sums of money when requested; for example, from the honorary members, upper class women and the University Women's Association.
3. UNESCO and the National Council of Women in Australia which provide grants on condition that the NCWT must emphasize leadership training.
4. The MOI and the Department of Religion which sponsor a child care programme.
5. The Department of Labour Force which sponsors seminar arrangements at provincial level.
6. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Unesco which sponsor all expenditure whenever there is an international seminar for Women's Associations in Bangkok.
7. The Government which also provides some allowances for Thai women leaders who are selected to act as presidents of other executive committees of the ICW.

The works which are carried out:

As shown in the diagram six projects are carried out by the NCWT and its affiliated member associations. They will be discussed individually.

1. Promotion of Community Development through women's projects:

1.1 Community Centre Approach:

In 1960, the NCWT launched a pilot project to set up a community club at Trok Chan in Bangkok. It started after a survey on the needs of a thousand families in this area which resulted in the finding that many women were interested in forming a community club. The NCWT supplied a leader to run the club. Here,

housewives and young girls came to practise handicrafts including weaving. They earned extra money during their free time. At present, the project is still being carried on.

The NCWT also insisted that its affiliated members should encourage rural women to co-operate in setting up community clubs at district or provincial levels. These clubs would become permanent training centres for women. But the NCWT itself began the first project in the rural province of Chachoengsao. The learning centre for village women was called 'a model community club'. It was successful, so the NCWT put more effort into setting up another centre in the Nongto district in the Roe-ed province in the Northeast. The government supported this project with Baht 100,000. The main subjects the centre offered were: nutrition, health, home-industry, handicrafts and child care. Unfortunately, the NCWT and its affiliated members have no long-term project in either centre. If the rural women are able to take over the projects themselves, then projects can be initiated in other provincial areas. At present, many villages are using community centre projects. The NCWT has planned to extend such model community centres to all remote villages.

1.2 Leadership training:

The goals of the NCWT are to encourage women in all parts of the country to actively participate in the development of the nation and the improvement of the quality of their lives. So it is necessary to train rural women as leaders. It is hoped that trained leaders will be able to influence favourably people with the same social background as their own. They may be able to persuade people to see the need for social change and to

participate in the CD projects. They also help the NCWT in carrying out projects in remote villages which are short of qualified staff. Leadership training is extremely important in the NCWT's CD project.

There are two training plans:

1.2.1 Training for women leaders:

Every two years a series of seminar and training courses are arranged to instruct the women who are in charge of provincial women's associations. It is hoped that this instruction will make the trainees aware of their potential abilities, will develop a sense of responsibility and increase their involvement in the development projects. In 1978, 386 women leaders from 69 provinces attended this training.

1.2.2 The Women's Voluntary Corps for rural community development and leadership training projects:

The NCWT wants to produce a large number of leaders to carry out the CD project. So it requires that the 90 affiliated members select qualified girls to work as volunteers, and send them to the Bangkok training centre for long term skill training. Some of them are trained by business companies and some by the ministries concerned with the needed skills. On returning home, they act as group leaders and teach other village girls.

The most active affiliated member providing leadership training for young girls is the Girl Guide Association of Thailand (GGAT).

It provides three categories of training which are:

1. the girl scout, aged 7-11; a home help training course is provided for them.
2. volunteer groups, aged 11-15; the girls are offered a practical course in leadership qualities and welfare work.

3. senior volunteers, age 16-24; long-term training is given. They act as volunteers to carry out activities and to organize out-of-school learning programmes in rural communities.

The GGAT adapts the training method of the NCWT to train volunteers. It asks local leaders and women leaders of the provincial women's associations to select village girls between the ages of 16 and 24, who have completed elementary education at grade 7 level. They are given an 8-month skill training course in the Bangkok centre.

On returning home, they are asked to produce a report listing the various skills needed by the women in their villages, and plans for training these skills, and to submit it to the Chief Commissioner for approval.

The training for leadership has always taken place in Bangkok, with the specific aim of persuading rural girls to volunteer for this. But in fact, it would be better if it was carried out in their local environments, so as to give the trainees practical experience of real social problems.

Camping: the GGAT also provides training in leadership for young girls. Camping is one of the practical activities which has proved the most successful in the development of leadership qualities in the girls. Three types of camping have been organized. They are:

1. Student camping (summer camping): the GGAT particularly aims to encourage young students in using their leisure time to promote social welfare, to develop self-expression, to understand Thai culture, and to join social groups. Camping brings students from the whole country together during summer holidays. The

camps usually take place in provincial areas such as Surin, Songkla, Chiangmai and Bangkok. These provinces are in four regions which provide different backgrounds and experience for the students. They experience working in groups, and exchange cultures and knowledge. Camping can be a good method of learning and of training potential leaders among the young girls. They learn to understand the way of life and problems of their neighbourhood while staying in the villages. In 1977, over 40,000 students took part in camping. During the camp, lessons are given in general knowledge, health, the arts, drawing, games, music and cooking.

2. Volunteers-camping: (senior volunteers). The volunteers, who have already experienced camping, organize camping for girls and students from low income families during the school holidays. Camping provides opportunities for poor children to make friends and to learn other cultures. They are provided with good meals, comfort, and entertainment so that they enjoy themselves and feel that they are of value and realize that they also have an important role to play as citizens of their country.

3. Camps for Social Welfare Volunteers and non-members: (at organisers level). These camps are to enable social welfare volunteers and non-members to meet informally. They can feel free to discuss various problems and also to exchange ideas and experiences.

Obtaining results from the leadership training programmes:

Providing leadership training is a praiseworthy undertaking on the part of the GGAT and the NCWT. The trainees are not only gaining vocational skills, but also understanding and experience

of community work and so they can become local leaders and organize the CD project in their home villages. They are carrying on many activities, for example;

1. Child care centres were conducted by graduate volunteers in the Songkla province (the South), Chaiyapum, Sarakam provinces (in the Northeast) and Ang-tong province (in the Central part). They trained young village girls in good child care and in looking after pre-school children while their parents were working. In 1977, over 2,000 children received care in these centres.

Miss La-eid from the Nanoi district in the Nan province (North) ran a child care centre. She pointed out that 'the centre took over the housewives' responsibility while they were working in home or in fields. The children were given experiences to develop their physical and mental abilities to prepare them for kindergarten or for elementary school.'

2. Weaving centres: the graduate volunteers conducted weaving centres in Nong Kai and Pattanee provinces, and the GGAT requested some assistance from the Department of Textiles to demonstrate weaving and dyeing at both centres. It was found that learning weaving was popular among rural girls. They can earn money with this sort of skill. For example, at Puud village in the South, a weaving group was set up by the graduate volunteer, and the girls worked in groups weaving silk and cotton. The materials were sold to other provinces. This work helped the village girls to raise their standard of living.

Miss Tiparat is one of the graduate volunteers who returned home to Ta-sawang district in Surin province (in the Northeast) and managed a weaving centre and also taught home crafts to the

village girls. Her weaving centre became a weaving school. The trainees were of sufficiently high standard to be employed in Textile Companies. She said that 'she preferred teaching middle-aged housewives rather than teenage girls, because the girls tended to leave home after being trained. She wanted the village women to earn a living by producing local textiles to sell to other provinces and abroad. She remarked that the village women would earn a high income because Thai silk has become popular in foreign countries.'

Miss Nias Mao of the Tanyong district in Pattani province (in the South) arranged for a group of teenagers to be trained in home economics for 3 months. Her aim was to prepare young girls to be good housewives and good citizens.

Miss Uwai, of Pring-sa-district arranged group learning. The trainees were young and were taught about home nursing, nutrition, food preservation and cloth-making. She also taught them about the welfare services and visited housewives with them so they should learn about family planning.

3. Youth clubs are set up in many districts with the co-operation of graduate volunteers, local leaders and leaders of the provincial women's associations.

4. Arable garden: the graduate volunteers at Nadee district in the Surin province, showed the villagers how to prepare land for growing tomatoes, strawberries and beans in order to double the normal crop yield in a year. They also trained the students of the Patad-u-Aala School to grow vegetables in gardens which were provided by the school. Every student took responsibility for her own arable garden. They shared the profit after having sold the

crops in the market. This practice is commonly seen in rural schools today. It is designed to help the students from poor families earn money through their own efforts.

1.3 Training course for Nuns:

Nuns have played a much smaller part in social development than monks have. Usually, they spend their time learning religious scripture and preparing food for monks. In general, people respect monks more than nuns. The nuns are regarded as old ladies who seek peace at the end of their lives. People used to say that the young nuns devote themselves to religion because they are broken-hearted and want to avoid society. The GGAT planned to encourage nuns to play a part in social development by offering them home economics courses. Before being trained, they were told they must become volunteers afterwards and teach young girls from low income families. The temple could be used as a training centre under the sponsorship of the GGAT.

Motivation: Many voluntary members are granted study tours abroad and join International Girl Guide Camps. For example in 1976, the volunteers from Chiangmai province and some school teachers from Bangkok were helped to participate in camping in Hong Kong. The Asian Foundation provided grants for the voluntary committees to study abroad and to join a conference in San Francisco. One volunteer, who was a teacher at the Teacher Training College, was given a grant to join the seminar with the Girl Guide's Association in Japan.

The Leadership training and community centre projects benefit the NCWT and the GGAT by making use of local people, and it is a good idea to encourage rural women to become involved in a

community development project. The discovery of new leaders and volunteers reduce the costs of investment in staff, experts and teachers' recruitment and also help to solve the problems of shortage of personnel.

However, selective discrimination has occurred. It was found that the daughters of local headmen and wealthy families were given priority in selection for leadership training. In fact, it should be realized that the attitudes and understanding of volunteers and leaders towards community development and voluntary work significantly influence success or otherwise in the projects. So those who show qualities of sympathy, a progressive outlook, understanding of rural communities and self-confidence should be selected to join the training programme. Equality of opportunity for all who apply for leadership training should be ensured. Nevertheless, overall efforts to increase the participation of rural women in community development should be praised. The NCWT and its affiliated members have played a significant part in promoting community development in rural areas. So their work should be supported by the government and private agencies.

II. Study and Research on the Thai Women Project:

The objectives of this project are to collect information on the roles, tasks and status of Thai women, and to disseminate various aspects of knowledge about Thai women. The plan of work is to make studies and research on any of these following three subjects:

1. problems in everyday life of Thai women in the family and society;
2. roles and status of Thai women in the country's development;
3. the women's attitudes towards the country's development.

III. Consumer Affairs Project: was operated in 1973 for the benefit of member organisations and the public. The work of the project included: (1) giving information and training to interested persons on consumer education; (2) educating low income families to resist sub-standard goods; (3) disseminating information about articles which improve their health and well being; and (4) preparing food with high protein content. The plan of work for 1977-79 increased the emphasis on nutrition for the healthy development of infant and pre-school groups in rural areas. The NCWT also sends experts to lecture and talk in schools on good nutrition.

IV. Promotion of Women and Youth Welfare Project:

The NCWT is aware of the major problems which endanger the security and welfare of women and teenagers in our present society. The Committee tries to deal with the problems of juvenile delinquency and crime. The work to be undertaken is (1) a counselling service for women and youths; (2) a survey of the conditions of work and problems of women and youths; (3) dissemination of knowledge and promotion of better understanding about the status of women.

The NCWT encourages its members to set up counselling units in their provinces, and to advise rural women on occupational skills, self-defence, dangers in society, how to behave properly and respectably as a Thai girl.

V. Child Development Project:

The NCWT is aware of the existing problems with new-born babies and pre-school children, so day-care centres are widely established both in urban and rural areas. It also encourages its members

and other interested people to set up centres and provide training courses on child care for village girls and women labourers in industrial locations.

VI. Non-formal Education Project: (NEP)

Reason: the NCWT realized the urgent need for non-formal education because schools and vocational institutions were insufficient in number for the fast growing population. Although the government has concentrated attention on extending formal education through the country, many poor people could not take these educational opportunities fully. They had to leave schools early to earn a living, but they lacked sufficient basic knowledge and skills to enable them to get adequate jobs and to improve the quality of their working and family life. The NCWT needed to help them in acquiring the skills which will enable them to have wider and better choices. In May 1975, a non-formal education project was planned. The NCWT's committee appointed Professor Duangduen Bisalputra (of the Faculty of Education, Chulalongkorn University and Chairman of the Executive Committee) as Chairman of the project.

The Executive Committee of the project consisted of 30 representatives from different women's associations, educational institutions, and from government departments whose work was relevant.

Concept of non-formal education: the NCWT gave the meaning of non-formal education as experience and activities provided outside schools, which are a part of the supplementary knowledge of the school syllabus, and also general knowledge provided to satisfy individuals. The subjects and activities help students to gain

success in their careers, as well as self-development, and to be good citizens. It is a flexible system. For example, time, content of knowledge, activities and teachers can be appropriately adjusted to individual ability.

The work plans for 1977-1979 can be described briefly as follows:

Aims: considering the theoretical aims of non-formal education helps us to view how the work could be in practice. Examples of the aims are:

1. to stimulate the love of knowledge and to build in women the habit of learning, so that education will be conceived as a continuous process relevant to all age groups, and instrumental in changing social, economic and political conditions.
2. to impart meaningful and useful types of continuing education to women from different levels of academic attainment and different age groups, both in urban and rural areas.
3. to develop women's quality of life and welfare so that they can bring peace to the home and community.
4. to encourage women to take part in the economic, social and cultural development of the country and especially to keep up to date with modern developments and to think critically and successfully solve their problems.

These aims are inspired by the philosophy of adult education which was outlined earlier. It shows that the NCWT accepted that non-formal education will help women to improve the quality of life and the ability to think critically.

The Students: the Executive Committee indicated that admission qualifications for the students should be as follows:

1. qualified or skilled women who appear to show potential leadership ability.
2. disadvantaged women who are unable to continue their schooling because of their problems. They will be given opportunities to learn skills to enable them to work and earn.

Courses: The non-formal education project (NEP) committee designed various 8 week courses of practical work in the following subjects:

Courses (Related to Feminine Occupations)	Hours
Study of Thai communication skills (public speaking)	30
Thai culture	50
Fish and shrimp cultivation	26
Dressmaking	50
Cookery and Nutrition	50
Flower arrangement	50
Cotton and Silk Flower Making and cloth painting	50
Interior Decoration	36
Handicrafts	30
Agriculture; vegetable and plant growing	50
Pottery making	50
Home industry	50
Mother and Child care	50
Training personnel for Day-care Centres	50
Family Living	36
Parenthood Education	36
Conservation	26
Community Development	36
Education and Vocational Guidance	36
Science in the Home	30
Radio Repairing	30
Basic Law for Women	30

Source: the NCWT, 1978.

The choice of subjects is a wide one. They benefit those who have experience relevant to the courses offered. But from 2 years experience in offering those subjects, the NEP Committee found that the range of interests of both urban and rural women were as shown below:

Range	Courses	Graduates
1	Dressmaking	595
2	Flower-making	335
3	Cookery and Nutrition	274
4	Fish and Shrimp Culture	115
5	Arts and Handicrafts	101
6	Agriculture	20
7	Radio-repairing	20
8	Thai language	14
9	Knitting	13
	Total	1,487

Source: the NCWT, Bangkok, 1978.

Twenty subjects were offered, but only 9 were popular. Both in urban and rural areas, the women were more interested in the dressmaking course than any of the others. Only the women in Bangkok wanted to enrol for the Thai language course. The interest shown in agricultural, radio repairing and knitting courses was relatively low. But, agricultural knowledge would be useful to rural women as the majority of them are working on farms. If they are unwilling to enrol for agricultural training, the NEP committee should persuade and encourage them. Two subjects attracting a higher proportion in rural areas of the older women than the young ones were handicrafts and cookery. Among urban women, a small proportion of applicants were interested in women's law, cultural development and conservation. These subjects were not of interest to rural women. The NEP committee was unable to run the class which had few applicants because of the limits of money and staff. Nevertheless, the Committee should intensify

its efforts in advertising the project and get Thai women to become more aware of their role in economic and cultural development, and the importance of seeking both vocational and cultural knowledge.

The NEP expects to produce a minimum of one thousand trained women a year in rural areas. The training courses in rural areas are free of charge, but in Bangkok, tuition fees have to be paid.

Certificates: an examination is arranged after 8 weeks of training. The test includes theory and practical work. The successful trainees are awarded certificates to show they have reached the required level, but these certificates are not accepted as having the same value as the government's educational institutions' standards; but it confirms that the students have enough skill to work.

Methods: non-formal education is carried out in rural areas in two ways as follows:

1. Through women's centres where there are full-time and part-time officers in charge of organising and planning the programmes. Most of these officers are qualified women who have a B.Sc. degree or a vocational certification. They have the responsibility for designing a vocational training programme for women in their own regions. They usually send officers to visit the villagers and collect information about their needs and interests, in order to be able to supply the appropriate programme. Some skill will be taught at the centre, and others will be taught at village level in a target group.

2. In relation to volunteers, the NEP committee has planned to encourage local people to exchange skills and knowledge. So training for skills has been arranged through volunteers' work. For example, experienced or skilled men and women may propose a project of out-of-school learning to the Committee and request funds. Also a person who is interested in organizing a learning group in a particular subject, but is short of money, may draw up an outline of the project, make a list of applicants' names, suggest an experienced tutor, explain what is the advantage of the project and what period of training will be needed, and Professor Bisalaputra will consider that proposal. In an interview, she explained that 'every project should be considered. It is worth paying Baht 2,000 for a project. Though some volunteers propose subjects which are not on the syllabus, and which are not needed, it is good to encourage local people to help each other by exchanging knowledge. If the initial project is successful, the NEP Committee will support the next project'. This method was found to be supported by many local experienced and skilled men and women. The NEP committee has clearly inspired enthusiasm in local people to become involved in non-formal education. Individuals or groups can seek to learn by asking skilled men in their own villages to act as instructors. If they do not have enough money to pay the instructors, they will be helped by the NEP committee. So the backward girls, at least, are given an educational opportunity to improve their knowledge and skills.

Fact Finding:

1. Student Backgrounds: within 2 years of providing non-formal education programmes, the NEP Committee found that the majority of trainees in rural areas were women with a limited education,

most at grade 4 level, and only a few who had reached grade 12 level. In the urban areas, women of higher educational levels and social status were more likely to join classes and the majority reached grade 12 level and B.Sc. It was found that few housewives participated in the programmes. In Bangkok, teachers and government officers constituted the major group in enrolments but in rural areas, most of the trainees were from farming families.

2. Age: all girls enrolling in Bangkok were over fifteen years old, but in rural areas some were as young as ten. In Bangkok the oldest trainees 63 years old, but in rural areas the oldest was 27. The average age of the majority of the trainees was from 30 to 39. At every age level the trainees in Bangkok were more interested in continuing their education than the trainees from rural areas. In rural areas, the trainees were all unmarried and at the Bangkok centre more unmarried women enrolled in the classes than housewives.

Motives and Satisfactions:

Those who were attending the training programmes, gave many reasons for enrolling, for example:

- dressmaking is only one of my choices for a future occupation.
(girls in group-learning, Pichit province)
- I came to the dressmaking because of friends
(young girl age 19)
- I have a sewing machine but I did not know how to sew so I applied to the dressmaking class.
(Kamnan's daughter)
- I have no experience in making clothes. When I am free I shall join the class, at least I shall not have to pay much money to the tailor, and I shall also have a good dress to wear.
(young girl age 17 who put her name on the list)

- I came to improve my skills and to become qualified in teaching the Arts of Handicrafts.
(teacher of secondary school)
- I am uneducated and unable to get a job in a business company, so I plan to open a food shop, and learning cooking will give me experience.
(housewife in cookery class)
- I wanted to gain self-confidence in public speaking.
(secondary student of the Thai language class)
- I needed something to study in my free time, it became my hobby.
(student of fish and prawn culture class)
- I wanted to please my husband and children.
(housewife in cookery class)
- Being a woman, it is necessary to know cookery.
(young girls in cookery class)
- I have a project to open a 'prawn rearing farm' so I need some skill.
(student age 37 of fish and prawn culture class)
- Fish-prawn rearing can become one of my occupations.
(teacher in fish and prawn culture class)
- I wanted to improve my skill of flower-making and handicrafts to teach the young girls around my house and I can earn extra money in my leisure time.
(teacher of elementary school)
- Flower-making can lead to exports, especially silk flower-making.
(women in small business and enrolled in flower-making class)
- After my usual work, I want to relax. The knitting class makes me enjoy myself and I can participate in social activities with my class mates. I meet so many people.
(accountant in knitting class)

From the above statements, it can be seen that the main reasons for going to non-formal education courses are work, hobbies, to increase existing areas of skill and knowledge, self-development, family interests and social activities. Rural women put greater emphasis on improving their skills, with an aim to gaining extra income than urban women, who laid more emphasis on self-

development and recreation. An interest in cultural pursuits and public services is seldom found in rural women, but is quite often found in the better educated women in Bangkok.

Typical Comments: the trainees who attended the non-formal education programmes commented that :

- too big a class, the teachers spent too much time with backward students. It made us waste time, we were left to ourselves.
- each class should have a balance of teacher and students.
- inadequate equipment, especially, sewing machines and cookers.
- the tutor emphasized the theoretical side too much.
- the NEP Committee should provide advice about how to export local products and handicraft materials.
- Saturday and Sunday classes should be regularly available to provide an opportunity for housewives when they are free.
- a study-tour should occasionally be arranged, especially for the class of fish and prawn culture.
- the teaching accommodation is near a main road, and the teachers have soft voices, so it is difficult to hear them clearly.
- training in other skills besides dressmaking should be arranged in remote villages. Rural women do not know what kind of training they really need so they may need to be persuaded to enrol for other training skills.
- long-term vocational training and further education should be provided. This may benefit those who want to take up such skills as their major occupation.
- the centre should open a course on frog and eel rearing because these are in demand by the markets.
- descriptions of the subject courses taught should be supplied through information leaflets.
- the centre should open a class on Western food, especially making cakes and ice-cream.

These comments may have useful ideas for the NEP committee to improve the programmes. It seems that the demand for vocational training is so high among young rural women that the committee should concentrate on providing it for them. However, the older women and housewives should be encouraged to come to refresh their knowledge. If they are not interested in the courses which are provided, it may be necessary to provide others. Subjects concerning recreational activities, social clubs, child development and family management may be required by them.

Mass Media/Public Education:

The NEP Committee publishes monthly educational periodicals to provide general information for the public and those who attend the courses. Guide books, pamphlets and leaflets are written by the trainers or educational experts who teach on the courses. The committee also composes manuals with questions and answers for the trainers to use as guides in giving short courses to rural women. Facts, visual aids, applications and teaching methods are all included in the books. The contents deal mainly with the topics of nutrition, health, drugs, agriculture, cooking and child psychology. The committee also produces self-instruction handbooks and simplified texts for those who are unable to participate in the classes.

Three handbooks are usually published each year. The topics included in them are:

1. projects on out-of-school learning and reports of activities.
2. articles on Fish and Prawn Culture.
3. how to use the Thai language.
4. cotton-flower making and handicrafts.

5. family development, including sub-topics of the problem of adolescents, family planning, knowledge of the world, the women's revolution, characteristics of development, housewives and adaptation on new society and child care.
6. home decoration and design
7. cookery and food preservation
8. dressmaking
9. arable garden - gardening, vegetable growing
10. conservation - how to preserve the natural surroundings
11. science and daily life
12. basic law - Thai women's rights
13. guidance and counselling for parents

The NEP committee uses the mass media in spreading information and useful knowledge to educate women at home on different subjects. Broadcasting of educational programmes has occasionally taken place at two radio stations since the project has been in operation. These are the Yan Kroa Radio Station 790 and the Radio Thailand Station. The programmes include the subjects of health, nutrition, child care and how to use one's leisure time profitably. The programmes are widely broadcast in order to suit the audiences' backgrounds, and they include the following subjects which are repeated from time to time.

- listening to classical music
- how to profit from leisure time
- conservation
- building up self-confidence in children
- creating democracy
- reaching 'development'
- children's problems
- food - nutrition and beauty

- food poisons and DDT
- health and exercise
- out-of-school learning guide
- women's revolution
- women's role in community
- fish and prawn culture

The NEP Committee is given a limited amount of air time, so only two programmes can be broadcast in a week, each lasting half an hour. However, it is still a worthwhile effort to provide non-formal education on the radio. Women can switch on the stations and learn while working at home. The Committee is also given air-time on Television and uses it for training in vocational skills, projects of out-of-school learning, and the promotion of women and children's interests and ideas on continuing education.

Conclusion:

During the period 1976-77, the NEP Committee organized various kinds of training courses for urban and rural women. Almost 1,500 persons completed courses. Some from all four regions were given grants for the projects. The Health Officers, CD officials, Education Officers, Community School Headmasters, Technical School Teachers, Village Headmen, local volunteers and graduate volunteers all co-operated fully in many programmes. The project has so far been self-supporting. The Committee arranged funds to cover free courses for rural women, by asking those who attended the courses in the Bangkok centre, to contribute money towards this. Also there were some volunteer graduates who helped to carry out the project. With such help, the project has been able to run smoothly. It can be said that the Committee has been successful in promoting women's welfare, although the project was

more recent than other non-formal education provisions. Rural women were helped to earn a living in their leisure time, and also to improve their families' quality of life.

CHAPTER VII

RADIO PROGRAMMES IN ADULT EDUCATION

Although the writer has focused the main topics of adult education programmes for rural women only of the three bodies as mentioned in Chapter IV, V and VI, it is worthwhile to include mass media programmes of other bodies in this research because they are playing an important role in the education of adults and also providing educational opportunities for rural women.

New Concepts of Mass Media in Education:

Recently new concepts of using the mass media to help solve educational problems have been viewed from several angles; for example, Coombs⁽¹⁾ suggests that mass media can be one tool to help solve educational problems but he feels very sorry for those who do not realize the potential of media in a systematic reform of the world's educational activities, and use them as disseminated out-dated and ineffective educational practices. He feels that if media education projects are systematic and large scale, if they are at the core of educational reform, then, they can reach clients who are not yet provided with dynamic teaching of up-to-date subject matter. He further suggests that media education should not concentrate on a two-way communication process, but should act as efficient messengers for imparting to learners a professionally designed curriculum.

Freire's view⁽²⁾ is that problem-solving methods can help solve educational problems. This can come about only if educators and educatees enter, as equals, into a process of dialogue. Problems are to be posed, analyzed and discussed. From this process, then,

concientizacao or consciousness is raised. So Freire stresses the importance of media in solving educational problems through a visual aids approach which can improve the knowledge of the learners and can create critical awareness in the learners.

H.R. Cassierer stresses the indirect educational function of media 'it is not only news and documentaries, but also fiction and drama, games and songs, that convey an image of the world that shapes the minds of youths and adults alike.'⁽³⁾

Cowlon⁽⁴⁾ says that media can change habits, create desires and influence behaviour. He assumes that suppose the media can effect such changes, they may be used for the solution of national development objectives such as to improve agriculture, family planning, health and literacy.

Ohliger⁽⁵⁾ points out that mass media have made public what has prevailed relatively unnoticed in continuing education previously ... that is mediocrity in teaching.

It is evident that from the recommendations above that mass media are available to be integrated into adult education methods in order to help solve inequality of education among rural and urban people. They help adult education to reach remote areas where educational opportunities are rare. The adult educators may use media in adult education through, for example, listening group as Japan organized the women's class⁽⁶⁾; credit courses combined with correspondence and telephone conferences (Chicago Public School); face-to-face discussion groups (Chicago TV Junior College); tele-clubs for training leaders (Togo, Belgium)⁽⁷⁾; liberal adult education in educational radio and TV programmes for adults⁽⁸⁾; vocational and technical correspondence courses

by radio or TV broadcasting; and functional literacy radio correspondence courses. However, the programme planners should know how to apply educational media and methods suitable for social groups and for individual interests, and these are the most effective for getting the message across.

The Role of Mass Media in Thailand:

The adult educators recommended that the mass media should play a part in adult education activities in rural Thailand as follows:

1. mass media should be able to provide general education for adults in their free time, and also enable them to gain certificates; they should provide learning skills, knowledge and attitudes that are useful to them. Mass media should help people to realize that education is not a fixed or short-time activity but something that must take place throughout their lives.
2. mass media should help develop critical reasoning, creative thinking and a problem-solving approach in today's activities.
3. mass media should encourage real dialogue between the people and officials so that democracy becomes a reality.
4. mass media should improve the attitudes of the general population towards development, and make them aware that their involvement and participation in development activities are an essential precondition for success.

This is very important to rural development, if mass media can help to increase the self-confidence of rural people so that they are able to express opinions and participate in community development affairs without the feeling of inferiority as they are uneducated or backward.

5. mass media should help in the continuous in-service training of all rural development and adult education field staff so that they are kept in touch with up-to-date development in their subjects, and also help them to closely co-ordinate the activities of different agencies.

If adult educators are able to use mass media to achieve success in several developmental aspects as recommended above, Thailand will achieve educational reform, particularly in the areas of individual ability and community development.

One of the major aims of adult education is to provide educational opportunity for disadvantaged adults in rural Thailand, so mass media are useful to bring knowledge and information to wider audiences. Radio is clearly seen as the best of the mass media which offers the possibility of reaching many people with the widespread sale of low cost transistor sets. It is also able to spread messages of development to both literate and illiterate people. It can carry the ideas and knowledge from the small number of available experts to all parts of the country cheaply and immediately. The adult educators in Thailand also recognize the important role of radio in adult education so they put much emphasis on making various steps to make radio instruction for adults more effective. Thus, the writer intends to focus the following discussion on educational radio programmes and rural women's interest in radio programmes in order to examine how far radio is playing a part in the provision of adult education.

Women's Interest in Radio Programmes:

Rural women can educate themselves through radio programmes. Also it is not difficult for them to gain information and knowledge from

radio programmes when the radios are in so many homes. Obviously, the rural families will want a radio set even if they cannot afford it, they will try to get one and pay the salesman in monthly instalments. Having a radio set confers prestige. For example at the North, in Chiengmai, 1,267 out of 1,441 families own radio sets (84.96%)⁽¹⁰⁾. The National Statistics Bureau in 1974 revealed that 4,743,668 (70.8%) of households out of a total of 6,688,501 had radios⁽¹¹⁾. The families usually have radio turned on the whole day, even if they are working in farms, dealing with household work or selling goods in open market. Recently, the AED did research on the degree of interest in mass media and discovered that 381 women in different occupations such as farming, caring for animals, gardening, housewives and self-employment, used their leisure time in listening to radio programmes all day. In common, rural women will group together and listen to drama, folk music and other entertainment programmes while they are feeding children. After the programmes have finished, they often discuss them and talk about the content of songs and criticize the language used (usually, folk songs are composed of slang words and the villagers prefer them to classical songs).

Some households turn radios up quite loud so their neighbours who do not have radios are invited to listen to the programmes. In a survey of the North, Chiengmai and Pichit provinces found that group listeners were young women and housewives. They preferred listening to folk drama and folk music to other programmes, broadcast from 9.00 a.m. to 2.00 p.m. and 7.00 p.m. to 12.00 p.m. So if they are encouraged to listen to educational programmes and know how to judge what is a suitable programme that benefits them, they would not only enlighten themselves but also would help other

women to widen knowledge through discussion or chatting on such topics. Through informal discussion experience, the group listeners would improve their ability to express opinions in public and in groups, and to solve their own problems.

So far, for any type of educational radio programme, it is essential to know the potential audiences, and the individual audience differentials. If the programme needs to help solve rural women's problems, then, it is prior necessity to conduct a comprehensive survey to determine the most frequent problems encountered. The survey should try to ascertain women's abilities, the intellectual levels of each age group, needs, interests, and local circumstances.

Educational radio programmes may be a broad range for general women's audiences. These might be general knowledge of cultural and historical topics, drama, folk plays, news and public affairs.

When considering rural social circumstances in Thailand, it could be assumed that rural women should listen to the programmes based on topics as health, hygiene, child care, marketing, household management, guidance for careers, agricultural technology, news about co-operatives, study co-operatives, handicrafts, family planning, politics, current affairs and foundation of society. However, some of these topics may not attract them when they have no motive for wanting to learn, to gain new knowledge and if they foresee no benefit. The adult educators have to make an encouragement and propaganda of the programmes, telling how useful they are. One can be done by introducing the topics above in terms of entertainment programmes with an educational content.

Further, the educational radio programmes should be able to reach

rural women who lack the self-confidence to ask for help outside their own homes. For example, they feel shy to ask for family planning services or they do not know where to look for services. The programmes may inform them of social as well as educational services so the adult educators should pay attention to information service as one programme of educational broadcasting.

Educational radio programmes may provide the specific topics for rural women in relation to regional backgrounds. For example, the rural women in the Northeast are facing malnutrition, migration, low income problems and inequality in education so the topics to help solve such problems should predominate in broadcasting for these target audiences. In interviews^{with} women in Nakorn Rachasima province, many women expressed their interest in nutrition programmes, particularly on the topic of children's food. Others expressed their interest in family planning topics broadcast by the Ministry of Health.

Official data of the AED discovered that 381 women in the Northeast, Ubol province interested in educational radio programmes on such topics as poultry raising, hog raising, cattle raising, mushroom growing, seri-culture (silk worm rearing), tapioca and sweet potato farming.

In concerning law and politics, these women showed great interest in sub-topics of law of self-defence, parents and children, democracy in Thai style, democratic government and law of succession.

Topics related to health, nutrition and population study were also of high interest to these women. They also expressed the need to know about family planning, physical health and hygiene.

Such interests and demands for knowledge can be useful as suggestions to script writers for producing educational radio programmes to satisfy particular group audiences at different regions. In fact, previous research and appropriate data can be a good outline to develop the right approach for a particular section of the audiences.

Getting a better job is undoubtedly one of the most powerful motivational forces for learning, especially for those young women between 15 and 25 years old who may need to add to their knowledge while they are looking for jobs. If they have already worked, they may want some knowledge to refresh themselves or to improve their skills. So more flexible vocational knowledge must be broadcast. The topic on career guidance also needs to be produced.

There are different choices of radio programmes at different ages; for example, young women of age 15-18 in the class of leadership training in Pichit province said that they liked drama, entertainment, music and general knowledge, but they disliked politics, history and language programmes. Women at age 45 and over in the Mae Rim district of Chiangmai said they liked home economics and educational programmes broadcast by the NCWT. The survey found that older rural women listened more to current news, government information and agricultural programmes, than the younger ones.

Many enquiries indicate clearly that rural women need new and more varied educational services. So educational media must provide flexible information designed for particular women target groups. Such information should enable them to change their

attitudes towards development, and increase their self-confidence for participating in community action, and enable them to solve some of the most serious problems of agriculture, marketing, health, hygiene and family planning.

Using Media in Adult Education Classes:

Mass media are available to be used in different types in adult classes; for example, functional literacy classes and general adult education use visual media as t.v., films, film strips, posters and printed materials for assisting adult students in their studies, especially, to enable them to work on their own at home.

Radio Correspondence Project:

In rural Thailand, there is still a need for formal education among the older women of 25 and over. But they have no opportunity to attend schooling because of work and responsibility in households, and the home is far from the centre. Also age consciousness prevents mature students from continuing education. To solve this problem, the AED organized distance education which is a radio correspondence programme for adults in remote areas. The first pilot project of the radio correspondence (R/C) was begun at Ubol Adult Education Regional Centre, and it was expected that during 1979, all four adult education regional centres would be able to run this project.

The AED aims for the future of Thailand R/C that it will be shaped into two programmes:

1. Functional Literacy (F/L) is a programme specifically designed for illiterate or semi-literate adults who might have already

completed compulsory education but have relapsed into illiteracy. Curriculum is the same as the Home Bound Teacher (walking teacher F/L). The students should spend their time listening to 72 hours radio programmes, 56 hours of group activities and 72 hours of meeting with organisers. Radio programmes will be broadcast 3 days per week on Monday, Wednesday and Friday. The enrolment is free of charge. The organisers will meet their groups once a week for supervising the activities and grading exercises. Each group should consist of 3 to 15 members. The broadcasting of the programmes will be done by using radio stations affiliated with Radio Thailand of the Department of Public Relations and some radio stations of other agencies, and 250 classes will be allocated radio-cassette recorders.

2. Interest Groups: courses will be designed for any group of women and men in rural areas who wish to learn a specific topic. The AED recommends that the courses offered will only be basic knowledge related to the groups' daily life. Outline of the courses are summarized such as:

Vocational: agriculture, industrial, home economics, business and others.

Social Science: law, administration, co-operatives, economics, population studies, health.

Recreation: physical fitness and gymnastics, games and sports, music etc.

Individuals who desire to join the listening group must contact the R/C school through the organisers for enrolment with paying tuition fees for instructional materials, examination fees as stipulated in the regulations. Broadcasting for interest groups is done twice a week for a period of 30 minutes. Discussion is the main activity after having listened to radio programme.

The R/C programme may make rural women realise that there is no one too old for studies. They could seek knowledge and educational certificates through educational media. They could study at home and meet women in their age group, then, practise discussion on several problems in relation to village situations. However, there are some drawbacks to the R/C. For example, it may be difficult that as students, rural women have to work in isolation. They have to wait for a week or more before receiving the questions, materials and exercises coming back through the mail, ^{which} can be frustrating. The most important thing about rural women is that they are usually busy working. Work begins in the morning and continues through the whole day and this gives them little time to participate in listening groups. So the educational planners must try to find the time convenient for the listening groups.

Since adult education in Thailand aims to improve the ability to think critically and to make individuals participate in the community development project, so educational media may help adult education to achieve such aims, by creating communication flows between different segments of society, or promoting two-way communication between administrators, or between teachers and students, or stimulating dialogues between the mass of the population and government officials. The organisers may design educational radio programmes using two-way communication methods, in order to involve the audiences by question-and-answer sessions, interviews, phone-in programmes and discussion programmes on particular topics.

Listening group also encourages rural women to participate in social activities. After having listened to a radio programme, the group discusses social problems and initiates some activities

which are advantageous to themselves and their community. But listening group may meet some problems; for example, the inability to analyze problems, and the relative absence of commitment to the importance of the problems of rural women may effect the rate of participation in listening groups. They are typically shy, lacking general knowledge, reluctant to participate in community affairs, and dare not express opinions in public. These factors are obstacles in developing the ability to participate in the community. Educational media should try to overcome these problems, through motivation and reinforcement. At first, rural women must change their attitudes towards women's role in community development. Second, they must be told they have a right to discuss government affairs and social problems. Third, they should be shown what benefits they could gain from listening group participation.

However, the achievement of educational media programmes relies on the ability of the producers as to how far they interpret media messages and make them relevant to target audiences. It is clear that using media for adult education activities is more complicated than using them in formal schools. The latter have a defined syllabus to fix the media patterns. Nevertheless, it should be suggested that educational media for rural women may emphasize the following ideas:

1. the programme should be concerned with problem-solving. By showing the problems of family, society, economy and offering tangible results they prove that women audiences can benefit if they follow such instruction;
2. educational media should tell the women audiences where to

ask for suggestions and services on guidance for careers, family improvement and agricultural knowledge;

3. keeping local customs; educational media should provide some knowledge of cultural and religious education in order to guide rural women how to preserve culture;

4. enjoyment; rural life is unenjoyable because of the absence of entertainment resources so educational media should provide some pleasure. For example, programmes for Sanuk (entertainment) such as games, music, folk songs, sports and local dance. However, entertainment programmes must include knowledge relevant to local culture and to encourage critical judgement.

5. certificates: to encourage rural women to seek knowledge so some educational media programmes should provide certificates for audiences who are qualified.

Radio Broadcasting Stations for Out-of-School Programmes:

Broadcasting in Thailand is governed by the Radio Communication Act 1955 and by the Radio Broadcasting Act 1965. But in practice, little control is exercised and some regulations seem to be ignored. In 1978, there were 204 radio stations in the whole country; 182 stations in the capital, Bangkok, and 22 stations in the provinces. Most stations are commercial and have little interest in educational broadcasting. The two most important radio stations are the Radio Thailand of the Public Relation Department, run by the government, and the Military Radio Station of the Armed Services.

Recently, the Thai government put forward a plan on educational media programmes. The stations should broadcast 6 days a week on

such topics as agriculture, vocational knowledge, civic education and general education. The following radio stations are the most concerned in broadcasting out-of-school education programmes.

The Ministry of Education (set up radio station in 1954)

I. The Centre of Educational Innovation and Technology (CEIT) is a responsible body for running educational radio programmes to serve students in schools, and to serve the public with general education and adult education. General knowledge is related to such topics as career opportunities, health care, law for the layman, domestic care, art appreciation and civic education. It is recommended that subjects on economics, natural resources, literature, customs and languages should also be broadcast. The programmes on T.V. usually emphasize vocational guidance, science and daily life, recreation, health and hygiene. In 1977, the CEIT produced a total of 446 educational programmes for T.V. broadcasting: from 6 T.V. stations in Bangkok and 3 T.V. stations in three regions. It estimates that a total of 51 hours of adult education are broadcast on radio each week, but on T.V. 20 minutes per week.⁽¹²⁾ The radio programmes for adults are concerned with functional literacy, general adult education, parents programmes, question and answer programmes, discussion group programmes, and extension worker programmes. It also produces T.V. programmes to supplement the general adult education programmes and to display at mobile audio-visual units.

II. The Adult Educators at the AED also produce special educational programmes for rural target audiences and receive close co-operation from the MOI, the Ministry of Agriculture and the Ministry of Health. For example, one thirty minute programme per week

broadcasts at 1430 hours on Paw Kaw Saw 8 Radio, the Agricultural Radio Station, and the Radio Thailand. Subjects included are agriculture, simple economy and health care, presented in dramatised forms. The AED also produces one 15 minute programme per month, broadcast at 1830 hours by TTV Radio. Subjects mentioned frequently are literacy, (encouragement to join literacy classes) and family planning, but in essence this programme is general knowledge.

In provincial areas, some regional supervisors make individual arrangements with local radio stations to broadcast in-service programmes for teachers, which cover topics of teaching methods and subject matter. Examples are one from 0630 hours to 0700 hours on Friday, on Ubol regional radio station, on Sunday at 1130-1200 noon, and Monday 1115-1145 hours dealing with agriculture, health, legal and marketing problems. They also produce music programmes integrated with educational knowledge. Kurusapa (the Teachers' Association) provides a grant of 30 Baht per programme for those who write scripts. The AED also encourages the regional supervisors to produce more scripts based on local problems. Because the supervisors are native people which is as important as technical and professional sophistication when broadcasting to rural adult audiences.

The Public Relations Department, Radio Thailand (PRD) is the biggest radio station in Thailand and produces a large number of non-formal radio education programmes, aiming at rural audiences. Each programme is broadcast for 30 minutes daily, and seven days a week. The programmes are transmitted from Bangkok. Facilities exist for relaying to 23 PRD stations up-country. Recorded tapes of some programmes are also sent to these stations. The programmes

fall into three categories:

1. The programmes for women provide some advice on health, family planning, child care and nutrition with a large element of general knowledge.
2. General knowledge programmes include such topics as history, cultural stories, science and rural matters.
3. Quiz programmes deal with asking and answering questions based on general knowledge programmes.

Although the PRD indicated that its programmes aim at rural audiences, agricultural content is not included in the schedule. The PRD is the government radio station, but it has not conducted any survey of target audiences since it organised non-formal radio programmes. Production planning is usually done on a day-to-day basis which is also seen at the AED. The programmes will be planned and produced only a few days before transmission. Its work was criticized by the International experts that 'the lack of audience research makes any accurate assessment of the effectiveness of PRD radio difficult. The lack of advance programme planning shows up in unvarying stereotyped productions. The non-use of drama, discussion, and the small use of interviews, and the limited amount of material said to originate from outside Bangkok, seems to indicate an inadequacy of producer-training and resource facilities."⁽¹³⁾

Hill Tribes Radio Station in Chiangmai (PRD station) broadcasts special programmes for hill tribes and other minority ethnic and linguistic groups in the Northern region. The programmes for women are family planning, health, child care, linguistics, cultural education and civic education.

The Ministry of Agricultural Extension Service: provides general agricultural knowledge for farmers. The topics emphasized are new varieties of seeds, fertilizer application, cultivation and growing routines. The Ministry, through the PRD station, broadcasts a permanent schedule on useful topics, such as, voices of the farmers discussing farm problems, farm articles, farm news, farm marketing news, agricultural notices inter-dispersed with folk music and drama.

The Ministry provides useful knowledge direct to farmer groups so that they will be encouraged to switch on radios for listening to such topics. To get more audiences, the Ministry should supply schedules of radio programmes to farmers, in order to persuade them to follow the programmes. Normally, the Ministry is given air time of one hour and thirty minutes to broadcast each day.

The Ministry of Health provides radio programmes for promoting health education on such topics as nutrition, hygiene, medicine, public health and family planning. The Ministry usually scripts the programmes and offers them to other radio stations for transmission.

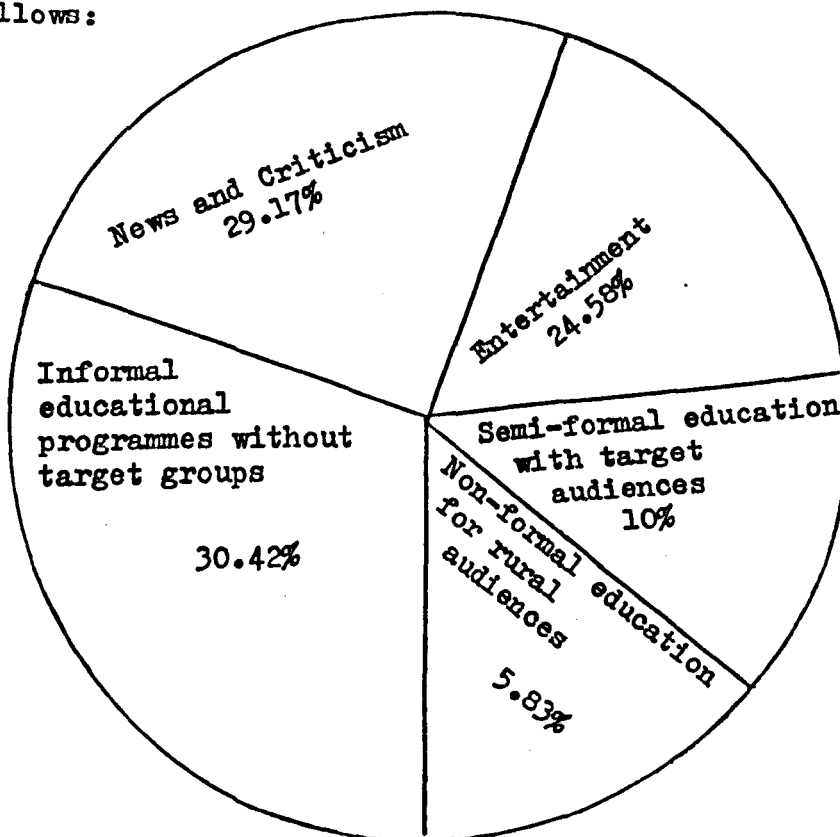
Universities: most universities in Thailand have their own radio stations. They broadcast programmes concerned with humanities and social sciences. Educated people are usually the target audiences. For example:

1. Chulalongkorn Radio Station produces programmes mostly related to academic subjects taught in university and broadcasts in terms of discussion. The university lecturers are the script writers. The station plays a small part in providing out-of-school education

for the public. Up to 80% of transmissions are commercial and entertainment.

2. The Agricultural University 'Kasetsart' controls three radio stations in Bangkok, Songkla and Chiengmai. They broadcast up to 17 hours a day, but 15 hours are devoted to advertisements and entertainments. Educational content is not broadcast in separate programmes but is integrated into other programmes, such as a short slot (1-1½ minutes) for agricultural knowledge. However, the station in Bangkok still devotes a 30-minute programme each day to broadcasting general agricultural information which is related to seasonal problems. The station also opens a visiting programme for farmer groups and considers the farmers' letters to be outline of next programme.

3. Thammasart University Radio Station: has made an effort to produce radio programmes for non-formal education for rural target audiences. Proportions of the broadcast programmes are as follows:



The station indicates as its major aim, to provide informal education for the public, particularly urban audiences (see time schedule for broadcasting). It is clear that this station provides more knowledge programmes than other university radio stations.

Jitapawan Buddhist College runs a radio station in Bangkok.

Its programmes are mostly concerned with Buddhist education in the broadest sense. It receives financial support from donations and advertisements. The programmes are broadcast three times a day and include straight sermons, requests for, and acknowledgements of, donations, news about the monastery, and advice on agriculture. The college also runs 14 mobile audio-visual vans to provide educational programmes for rural people with the assistance of monks. They also help other organisations in setting up radio-listening groups.

The King's Radio Station and the Police Radio broadcast programmes to support the Village Scouts activities. These are concerned with general village improvement and morale, as well as anti-insurgent activities and anti-communist propaganda.

In conclusion, several radio stations do have educational programmes on general and also specific subjects relating to the needs of rural target audiences. Many stations concentrate on broadcasting the same educational programmes for rural women only on such topics as family planning, child care, health, nutrition, agricultural knowledge and vocational guidance. However, no station devotes more than a limited amount of air time to educational programmes which makes it difficult to transmit special information to satisfy a particular women's group. In

addition, Thailand has suffered from having too many radio stations so that people have a choice of at least twenty. If the educational programmes are not good in quality, attractive and challenging, the audiences will switch off or turn easily to other stations, so it is necessary that the station should introduce their services to possible audiences by providing basic details of programming through announcements or other government radio stations, printing leaflets and schedules in newspapers.

Using the mass media for education is only one part of new methods in adult education, but this could greatly contribute to the good of society, especially if the programmes are produced relevant to a solution of current problems and encourage economic development, social harmony, political freedom and educational opportunities. Finally, using mass media may help to achieve educational objectives by:

- emphasizing themes and messages which are given a high national priority, seek involvement and participation, and cater for analyzed needs and desires of rural women.
- spreading as widely as possible programmes produced regionally, designed to help solve specific regional development problems.
- the experimental use of mobile audio-visual units in association with extension work.
- improving communication lines between different social and administrative sectors, by providing a means for dialogue.
- providing as full a range of print support materials as is consistent with the resources available.
- providing a loan service for audio-visual equipment and materials to allow for individual work by motivated teachers. (14).

The amount of Leisure Time available for
Listening to Radio in Different Occupations

Occupations	Time					
	morning %	lunch time %	afternoon %	evening %	at night %	all day %
Farmers	5.60	5.60	1.30	4.30	25.20	25.30
Gardeners	.30	.70	.10	.50	.50	1.10
Planters	.10	.80	-	.30	.40	.90
Livestock	.10	.10	-	-	.20	.80
Unskilled workers	.50	.40	.10	.40	1.50	.90
Self-employment	1.40	1.60	.50	.60	1.90	3.80
Home-industry	-	.40	-	-	.40	.40
Government officials	.70	.30	.20	1.20	1.70	.80
Unemployed	.70	.30	.20	.40	.90	1.30

Source: the AED, the Ministry of Education, 1978.

The AED investigated free time available for listening to the radio in relation to occupational categories. 1,000 people answered the questionnaire (381 females and 619 males) in the Northeast, Ubol provincial area. It shows that different occupational categories have very different amounts of free time available for listening to radio programmes. Farmers have more free time than other groups. Many groups are able to listen to broadcasts the whole day, except for unskilled workers and government officials who have more free time at night. The figures given above can be used by the radio producers to fix times for broadcasting particular programmes for each occupational category. Official data also shows that males spend longer time in listening to radio programmes than females.

The Preferences Types of Radio Programmes
in Different Occupations

Occupations	Entertainment %	Current News %	Specific topics of knowledge and information %	Others %
Farmers	15.50	43.10	5.80	2.90
Gardeners	0.80	1.70	0.10	0.60
Planters	1.10	1.20	0.10	0.10
Self-employed	3.00	5.30	1.50	-
Livestock	0.30	0.60	0.10	0.20
Unskilled workers	1.10	2.30	0.40	-
Home-industry	0.70	0.50	-	-
Government officials	0.30	4.00	0.60	-
Unemployed	1.20	1.60	0.90	0.10

Source: the AED, the Ministry of Education, 1978.

Figures show that in all occupation categories (1,000 people sampled) people are more interested in current news as first, than in any other programmes; entertainment ranks second, and specific topics of knowledge and information which are based on a particular topic such as law, health and agriculture, ranks third. Official data also reveals that people's educational attainment is associated with different interests in listening to radio programmes. Persons with educational background from elementary education grade 4 to university level, are more interested in programmes of general education and specific knowledge than entertainments. This result shows that educational radio programmes must consider both the educational backgrounds and occupational categories of the audiences.

Numbers of Men and Women listening to Different Radio Stations

Radio Stations Sexes	Radio Thailand	Police Radio Station	Military (Arm Force) Radio	Kasertsart University	Ko-Ro-Po-Klang Interior	National Security Radio	Air Force Radio	Others
Males	45.20	0.10	5.40	-	0.30	0.10	1.30	7.90
Females	24.10	0.30	4.70	0.10	0.30	-	2.50	5.40
Total	69.30	0.40	10.10	0.10	0.60	-	3.80	13.30

Source: the AED, the Ministry of Education, 1978.

Figures show that 381 females and 619 males prefer to listen most often to radio programmes broadcast by the Radio Thailand of the Public Relation Department and the Military Radio Station next most often. Females also listen to agricultural programmes of the Kasertsart University Radio Station, but males are not interested in these at all. Official data also report that males own more radio sets (55.10%) than females (34.30%).

Program Schedule for audience research

"News & Educational Service"

Thammasat University Radio Station

A.M.

Bangkok 2 Tel. 2229874

980 KHZ/306.12m

Time \ Day	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
18.00-18.05	Sign on & Program Schedule Announcement				
18.05-19.00	Bits of Everything & Thai Folk Song				
19.00-19.20	News from Radio Thailand				
19.20-20.00	Thai Popular Song & Bits of Everything				
20.00-20.35	News from Radio Thailand				
20.35-21.00	Talks about Thai	English Club	Let's Speak French	Easy German	Enjoy Japanese
21.00-21.20	Health Topics	Law for everyone	Women's Hours	Hobby Corner	Window for the world
21.20-21.40	Feature	Radio Study	Man and Achievement	Radio Study	Magazine Program
21.40-21.55	Thai Melodies	Pop Music Album	Thai Melodies	Pop Music Album	
21.55-22.00	Program Schedule Announcement & Sign off				

Noticeably: the station provides less program on women's aspects; mostly they are general knowledge.

CHAPTER VIII

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

The main conclusions to be drawn from this thesis are as follows:

The findings show that the average marriage age of women is 21 years old. Uneducated rural girls tend to marry early at the age of 15 and over. Retirement age is 55 years for women, and 65 for men. The average lifetime for Thai women is 64 years, and 56 for men. This shows that women can be involved in the productive sector for a longer period than men in their lives. In general, Thai women are equal to men in family responsibilities, but not in community development affairs which are regarded as solely the responsibility of men. Rural women prefer having 4 or 5 children for them to be labourers for the family and to help to earn wages. So the rural family is obviously an extended family.

Recently, Thailand has faced a high rate of population growth. Many ministries have conducted birth control programmes to persuade rural women to accept new treatment of birth control, but they met some problems. For example, rural women are too religious and Buddhism is traditionally opposed to birth control. So new alternative methods were used to help reduce the high birth rate such as, providing educational programmes based on topic of family planning, extending and altering work categories in industrialization and intensive agriculture in order to prepare adequate jobs for population growth. The findings show that the government declared the role of adult education as to help reduce population growth. There is also the belief that if women raise their educational level and enjoy working they will delay marrying so would start having children later, so lowering the overall birth rate.

Increasing population means a rise in the number of people in the labour force and also in the demand for schooling among the under 15s, but the government is unable to extend factories to accept all the people available in the labour force or to extend schooling for all children under 15 because of the limitation of facilities. Thailand is a new semi-industrial society so job opportunities in factories are few. Some trades accept female apprentices only if there are no male applicants. Women are thought to be unsuitable for apprenticeship training as only small numbers have had vocational training and they lack physical strength to do hard work. The absence of job opportunities in rural areas created the problem of migration. The findings show that more rural women than men migrated to other provinces. They were looking for jobs and educational opportunities.

Manniche suggests to get out of unemployment and migration problems that 'rural development should be a mixed policy aiming at improving agricultural techniques and establishing small scale industries, to process the products of farming, and to supply the farmers with consumer goods and with various means of production. In this way more employment will be created. The standard of living in the countryside should improve somewhat and it would be less attractive to go to the cities in search of a future.'⁽¹⁾

The Problem of Inequality in Education:

The research found sex discrimination in education. Males were more educated than females. When the Compulsory Education Act 1921 was announced, it was hoped that there would no longer be sex discrimination. That was the theory but in practice, it still exists. Several factors support sex discrimination. These are

religious influence, social opinions on women's roles, parents' attitude towards girls' education, opportunity for work of women and the limitation of school establishment at rural level.

Statistics confirm such inequality. For example, in 1970 enrolments of boys were 71.99% but of girls only 28.01%. Inequality in education produced a higher number of illiterate women. The 1970 census revealed that 25.2% of the female population from ten years up were illiterate but only 11.1% of the male population.

The United Nations comments on inequality in the education of girls which is also seen in Thai society as (1) the result of financial limitation which leads the authorities to concentrate on providing facilities for boys; (2) the persistence of traditional attitudes in certain areas where parents are unwilling to allow their daughters to attend school, because it would invoke their appearance in public, or because they fear they might be exposed to bad influences. (2)

The research also found that the majority of rural women completed education only at grade 4 of elementary education. The highest rate of illiteracy is found in the oldest age groups. This suggests that it is necessary to increase educational opportunities for rural women. Education should be given for women's rights and equal opportunity.

Inequality between regions:

For many decades, the development of the country has focused on the modernization of urban areas, particularly on industrialization. While notable progress has been made in the city of Bangkok and a few nearby provinces, the great majority of those living in rural areas have benefited relatively little. Especially, education

was part of the imbalance. The children of urban elites and rich families had priority in the best schools. In theory, the government schools are for the poor, but in practice, those privileged children benefit most. The children of poor families have to leave schools at compulsory level or look for a private school to enrol.

Coombs argues that in developing countries, among which is Thailand 'primary schools, instead of serving as the great equalizers of opportunity they were meant to be, have become great discriminators. In the poorest rural areas, they have at best, equipped only a small minority of the new generation, for the venture into a more modern life. The great majority of young persons seem destined to perpetuate the familiar cycle of ignorance and poverty.'⁽³⁾

Even among rural people, inequality in education is seen. For example, the non-farm people (traders, government officers and teachers' families) are privileged in education. This inequality widely occurs within formal education institutions. So it causes the problem of school leavers among the poor and the rural young people until it involves the vast majority of the whole population at age group of 15 years to 20 years. For all practical purposes, they are beyond the reach of formal education and must be served by adult education.

However, the government should try to bridge the gap between urban and rural people by improving some aspects of modernity in rural areas such as, schools, health care, electricity, roads and new marketing. Such infrastructures must create modernization in the villages. For example, credit groups, local irrigation projects, animal husbandry programmes, day care programmes for children,

nutrition programmes, promotion of sanitation, provision of vocational training and promotion of any number of specific cash crops. The educational programme must be organized for rural people in order to make them live better in modern society.

Interest in subjects:

The findings show that the educational structure discriminates between boys and girls in the area of educational opportunity; e.g. curriculum (some suitable for girls, some suitable for boys), the admission process and learning activities. Males are more interested than females in politics, economy, sciences, sports, adventure, novel and war, but females prefer romantic story, music and sentimental movies, and advertisements. Such interest may determine the choice of study as the research found that females enrolled more than males for education, nursing, social sciences, humanities, arts and languages. The choice of study may also be related to occupational opportunities available to women, because there is a barrier to women's doing the type of work and society also shapes the career development of women.

Ability to maintain literacy:

The standard of literacy of rural people tended to decline within 3 years after leaving school. This means that in the future they would be able to make little or no use in their lives of printed words. The decline of literacy ability is due to the lack of information resources in rural areas and the absence of communication by written words between the villagers.

Coombs points out the poverty of present rural learning environments and the lack of many of the diverse modernizing influences from which people of all ages acquire most of their lifelong education. (4)

This affects the ability to read and write of rural people.

Illiteracy problems must be solved as soon as possible, as the Thai government needs achievement in rural development. It is impossible for industrial work and agricultural techniques to be done with people who cannot read instructions. Regarding this problem, mass media education is important.

Need:

The Russell Report presses for a comprehensive service of adult education 'that caters for all the people, including those hitherto untouched by adult education according to their need, and not simply according to their capacity to join in whatever activities are provided for the public at large (para. 187).'⁽⁵⁾

Adult education has to consider 'need' as a major point in organising the programmes. According to the Unesco Asian Regional Seminar in Teheran 1976, the needs are begun in many ways as:

1. needs provoked by the changing functions and performances demanded by the national developmental targets;
2. needs stemming out of the necessity of men to master his environment (nutrition, health, hygiene, water, natural and disaster).
3. needs reflecting the most relevant aspirations of human beings (realization of self, freedom, dignity, creative expression, rights and duties and striving for progress).

The seminar also pointed out that the needs are dynamic and require to be reviewed over time and adjusted to the pace of development.⁽⁶⁾ If adult educators have to consider the need as the first criterion, it is suggested that they should study the objectives of the National Development Plan of Thailand as the

First stage because it indicates the needs of socio-economic improvement of the country, its society, and it also reflects the ultimate needs of an individual. The needs provide the basis for the right formulation of adult education objectives and programmes.

Knowles suggests that the programme planners should consider the needs and goals of individuals, of institutions and of society, before operating adult education programmes.⁽⁷⁾ Obviously the desire for educational training varies from individual to individual: for example, rural women may require wealth, so they need skill training in order to earn wages. But some individual women may require skill training only to improve family conditions. Therefore, the primary task of adult education is to help the individual to satisfy her needs and achieve her goals.

When thinking of rural women, there is the question whether the programme planners should make adult education to satisfy the needs for income growth of individual women, or for the access to knowledge and culture as the first objective. Wealth may not bring village women happiness if they still face sanitation and malnutrition problems. Adult education may consider a better life for the village women to be the first objective in the programmes, by giving them knowledge of health care, nutrition and family planning.

It is already known that rural women in Thailand are specialized in self-employment and small-business activities. They show great ability in taking care of their own businesses. So knowledge

of such topics as book-keeping, marketing, tax system, business management and co-operatives, will help rural women who deal with small scale commerce and rural industry.

The programme planners may look at Maslow's suggestion on human needs to develop adult education programmes for rural women, such as, 'the physiological and survival needs, safety need, love, affection and belonging need, esteem needs and need for self-actualization.'⁽⁸⁾ These concepts imply that the adult educators' mission is to help individuals learn what is required for gratification of the needs at whatever level she is struggling, for example, if she is hungry, they must help her learn what will get food. If she wants to have more security in her work, they should give her skill training course relevant to her experience.

The programme planners should try to draw all the needs into a master plan. The plan must be flexible to allow for a variety of human requirements, social conditions, group needs and individual needs. Every woman should have the chance to satisfy needs of improving economic status and social roles. The planners should start with several steps to design adult education programmes for women; for example, diagnosis of development of the area, special characteristics of rural women, realistic needs and interests; making clear the objectives and definition of learning suitable to women groups. However, it should be suggested that the major task of adult education for rural women should emphasize development of personal maturity, self-confidence, ability to solve problems, creativity and understanding social systems.

Interest:

Woodruff and Birren say that 'some of the differences in interest

between younger and older adults today reflect differences in life-style orientation derived from the values and practices of the era in which each grew up.'⁽⁹⁾ It is true in rural Thai society, where the interests of rural women are similar to those of their parents and friends. Women's choice of study in adult education is usually influenced by social values, parents' attitudes and friends. To change the attitudes of rural women to accept the value of adult education, the planners should try to influence and persuade their parents, neighbours and friends. Nevertheless, the planners should also try to make individual women realize their own interests, needs and make their own choices from the adult education programme.

Knox points out that most of adults' needs, motives, interests and attitudes are formed by interaction with others and continue to be modified by such interaction. As the result of such interaction, attitudes predispose people in the choice of activities, companions and locations.⁽¹⁰⁾ So programme planners can use an understanding of developmental shifts in adult attitudes, interests and needs to design adult education programmes suitable to adult experiences.

Work is one area of interest among rural women. The interest in occupation may be influenced by various factors such as, wage earning, job promotion, attractive occupational models and some reinforcement which is related to personal attitudes. The programme planners may organize part-time and full-time vocational training courses in order to let women explore occupational opportunities and increase the likelihood that the job choice will be satisfactory.

Fact Finding of Needs:

An investigation of rural women's needs for adult education found that they were associated with age, occupations and social values. The women farmers at the age of 25 and over needed to know about animal husbandry, cultivation and home economics. The younger age group from 15 to 25 showed less interest in domestic skill subjects but needed continuing education, particularly at secondary education level 7 and also needed vocational education. Non-farm women showed their interests in small trade training in order to prepare themselves for a secondary occupation. Housewives who were 30 and over, needed to know about child care, nutrition and family management. Women who were 46 and over, needed to know about birth, consumer education, food poisoning, migration and death. Among overall vocational subjects, dressmaking was the most popular. Only young age group under 18 showed interests in social activities, self-development and leadership training. It was also found that rural women preferred using free time for short-term training in cultivation, use of fertilizers and insecticides. If they had more free time, they would like to enrol in cookery and dress-making courses.

From the investigation of rural women's needs for adult education programmes, it may be concluded that work and educational backgrounds affect the decision for continuing education. The interest in family improvement also encourages women to seek knowledge. There was a minority of interests in and needs for political and cultural knowledge, literature, law, languages, arts, conservation, recreation and social activities. It may be the prior needs for economic gain and better living of rural women which determine their choices of subjects.

Findings of Adult Education Programmes:

It was found that the three organisations set up the aims of adult education as being to change or alter rural women's attitudes, to raise aspiration and self-confidence, and to encourage individuals to initiate self-help improvement. The organisations also indicated a special aim to promote modernisation in rural societies which assumes that quality of life in traditional villages will improve as the villagers increase their income and are able to adapt and accept the services of a modern outside world.

Generally, adult education may not have only a particular aim to develop individuals, or to promote economy for rural development. It may widen its aims to cover a variety of aspects of development. For example: (1) to raise the educational level of deprived members of society; (2) to promote political and civic consciousness; (3) to help to increase the enjoyment of living; (4) to build coherent nations out of diverse people; (5) to promote economic and social development.⁽¹¹⁾ From past experience adult education in Thailand puts less emphasis on promoting political and civic consciousness. This may be because of the previous political situation under military rule, which limited the freedom to be involved in politics of the Thai people. However, adult educators should make an effort to integrate political education into other subjects. Thai women should know about government and political affairs. Particularly, the rural women should have civic and political consciousness in order to increase participation in government's affairs and also to be able to avoid oppression from a dictatorship.

The research found that the three organisations concentrated to provide adult education programmes for more disadvantaged women

than professional women. Several programmes were conducted in the North and the Northeast, for example:

1. Literacy programmes:

Functional literacy classes and Fl and flp programmes were the best method to provide general knowledge on such topics as health education, family planning, nutrition and vocational skills which were really needed by rural women. The programmes were successful to change women's attitudes towards education and increase their community participation. Some women showed a desire to have other training skills and further education. Women aged 30 and over showed a high interest in these programmes, so the planners should have this age group as a target of the plan.

2. Vocational Training and Mobile Units:

The AED provided vocational skill training for rural women through mobile units and lifelong education centres. Subjects mostly concerned with home economics, mechanics, small scale trade training, crafts and installation of electricity, were offered. The training was not useful to rural women because there was too little attention given to the marketability of the skills. It concentrated on self-development rather than giving rural women the skills to earn wages.

The CDD provided vocational training for rural women on specific subjects such as home economics, marketing, co-operative agricultural groups, business co-operatives, weaving, family planning, and leadership training. It encouraged rural women to improve small business activities and play a part in community development. It also concentrated on training rural women to specialize in credit union and marketing as shown in the Sree saked

and Chiangmai projects. Such training encouraged rural women to get agriculture moving. They might get a good price for their crop yields through co-operative agricultural groups and through profit sharing. The income rise attracts them to experiment more and more with new crop growing. Later such benefits would convince other neighbours to gain new skills through training programmes. It is hoped that in the near future rural women will be able to improve themselves in all other respects, for example, skills in business affairs, and raising family income which will make a better life. The most important is that they take a larger voice in their own local affairs to help improve the quality of their villages.

The PWD provided vocational training for women from low income families and for women prisoners. It was found that the majority of women prisoners were from rural backgrounds. They committed crimes because of economic problems. So adult education has to play an important role together with welfare services. It serves disadvantaged women and helps them to escape from hunger and poverty. It also helps to reduce social problems, particularly prostitution and crime.

3. Interest Groups:

The AED encouraged rural women to learn throughout their life spans so they were asked to form interest groups for learning. The findings show that rural women were interested in subjects such as dressmaking, hairdressing, flower-arrangement and food preservation. In fact, they should need more in agricultural training than others. But they overlooked this subject which is necessary for improving income and national product. This is

necessary for the programme planners to make intensive efforts to persuade rural women to enrol in agricultural training programme. At first, it may be done through training women farmer leaders, then, they should persuade their neighbours to attend this programme.

4. Leadership Training Programme:

The AED emphasized training farmers and youth leaders for vocational skill improvement. The CDD provided leadership training to encourage rural women to participate in rural development projects. They took action as group leaders to organise youth clubs and training programmes. Both organisations gave equal opportunity to both sexes for being trained, but the selective process discriminated against women. So most of the leadership training programmes of both organisations had more men than women.

The NCWT is the only organisation which provided leadership training for women only. Being leaders, they operated group learning, encouraged the village women to seek knowledge, and carried out the skill training programmes in remote villages. They also acted as analysts and leaders of the women's opinions and helped in the expression of village needs. Finally, they could bring constructive changes to rural women.

The findings show that the NCWT provided several vocational training subjects meeting women's demands and interests through consideration of women's written proposals. The highest rate of participation was shown in dressmaking classes, flower-arranging was second and cookery was third. It also found that rural women were not interested in such subjects as politics, culture, law,

the Thai language, recreation and sports. The minimum age of the trainees was ten. This suggests to the programme planners not to limit the age of students. Learning can begin at any age. As the AED indicated that the adult students should be at least 18 years old, in fact, age should not be a barrier preventing women from seeking knowledge. It was already known that rural women left schools early, at the age of 9 or 10, so they might need re-education when they could get such opportunity on adult education classes.

Evaluation:

Although it was said that in interest groups it was important to encourage rural women to say what they wanted to learn, most of the programmes provided were based on relatively narrow view of rural development, seen through the eyes of one or another group of specialists and local leaders. Certain subjects were offered to rural women. The organisations did not pay much attention to surveying the needs and demands of rural women for adult education. They usually considered general social and local backgrounds as criteria to design the programmes, but not individual interests. They also offered similar types of training, especially a series of small programmes for health, nutrition, home economics, family planning, leadership training, dressmaking and flower-arranging. Often such programmes were organized in the same places, but without co-operation among them. This caused a serious problem of duplication and so wastage of time, energy and budget.

The research found that the organisations were aware of the difficulty in meeting economic, manpower and social requirements when there were small budgets available. It was impossible for them to organise adult education to meet the vast demand of the

out-of-school population.

The research also found that there was sex discrimination in enrolments. Separated training programmes were designed for males only, such as radio repairing, installation of electricity, mechanics and agricultural training. The beliefs in sex-roles in education and occupations reflected the choice of study of women. Some women complained that they could not find useful subjects and they did not want to try new subjects that they were not interested in. Many also did not want to attend the same training classes with men.

It seemed the three organisations attempted to attract rural women with home economics and small business training. It may be the shortage of their finance and equipment to run training courses. However, it is suggested that for rural women's education, agricultural subjects should be accounted as one of the most important branches of knowledge to equip them.

Motives and Participation:

An investigation of the motives for enrolling in adult education programmes found that rural women joined the programmes for motives of family and economic improvement, and also self-development. Age also determined the motives. For example, young age groups had motives to seek continuing education and vocational training. The middle aged and elderly had motives for family improvement and self-development rather than others. In surveys and interviews, it was found that rural women did not state their motives in recreational, cultural and political education. This is not to deny that they joined adult education programmes because a knowledge of the subject will help them in earning.

The motives can show what women want to learn and also suggest to the programme planners in estimating the demand and interests of rural women for the training courses.

In interviews it was found that rural women did not know where to ask for general information about adult education classes. They would be informed by the local leaders or officials when there was a plan to open training courses in their villages. The lack of information about adult education discouraged rural women from seeking knowledge. To solve this problem 'press publicity seems to be more important.'⁽¹²⁾ The organisations should advertise adult education programmes through posters, leaflets and broadcasting. It must be realized that people can only make use of opportunities if they know how to find them.

Time Available:

Usually adult education programmes for rural women opened in the daytime or at the weekend. Many women could not leave household work to attend the classes. Some had to spend the weekend with children and family. The interviewed women said that they needed to learn in afternoon classes, but not early in the morning or late evening or weekend classes. So the programme planners should make the time flexible and consider the majority of applicants' free time as guiding when to lay out the plan and programmes. If rural women cannot have more free time, the subject matter should be designed as a short course. Newman says that 'adult education must consider time and need of the learners. It can provide a very important community service by providing short courses to meet sudden perhaps ephemeral, community interests as they arise.'⁽¹³⁾

Drop-Outs:

Among the several adult education programmes, the highest rate of drop-out appeared in literacy classes. This was because of the unavailable subjects taught, time available and unqualified teachers. Special attention should be given to solve these weaknesses.

Women students dropped out of the programme because they later found the knowledge useless for their interests and needs. It is suggested that the programme planners should provide guidance for enrolling in the courses. Guidance is necessary to make the applicants understand the programmes. It must be realized that 'adults turn to adult education with the belief that they are inadequate to life's tasks. They feel needy and deprived but they may have ill defined feelings about how to improve themselves. So they need reinforcement and guidance at the same time.'⁽¹⁴⁾

By studying the adults' characteristics, backgrounds, interests, needs and motives also helps the counselors or programme planners to effectively provide guidance to make them realize what programme they want to learn.

Tuition fees and Budget:

The AED received a small annual budget for adult education. So it could not afford to provide free education for all adults, but it charges small tuition fees in order to give educational opportunities for the poor who could only pay small amount of money.

The NCWT and the CDD provided learning programmes free of charge. They could do this because they received financial support from International Associations.

Money is an important factor in determining how far the programmes

can be facilitated and how much time could be used for such limited money. Lowe suggests that 'it is impossible to provide adult education for all adult population. When resources are limited, not everyone can be given educational opportunity. It may well be realistic, though regrettable, to focus upon particular groups and particular areas.'⁽¹⁵⁾ In applying this concept to adult education in Thailand, the educational opportunities should be given to illiterate and semi-literate women farmers, the young unemployed, women in small businesses and professions. There should be a co-operation among various organisations to share experts and to exchange equipment. This helps to minimize the costs of investment in the programmes.

Curriculum:

The general content of adult education is based on a school syllabus. Schools, colleges and private agencies, who conduct adult education, take the view that their task is to offer their curriculum to those who want it. Other vocational subjects consist of simple information for those who want to learn. It becomes universal practice of the AED, the MOI and the NCWT to offer model subjects to the applicants for the choice of study. Often the rural women are deterred from further learning because the subjects are not useful.

In studying syllabus and text-books of adult classes, it was found that there is the neglect of agriculture, economics, rural sociology and other social sciences which should be fitted for the life pattern of those who undertake it. Although an effort has been made to revise the curriculum to suit local circumstances, individuals' background and support immediate problems, the

curriculum still lacks quality. In addition, the teachers do not make an effort to adapt the curriculum to the students and to changes of environments.

Freire's idea on the cultural circle may be available to introduce the adult educators to develop the curriculum. He says that providing that the students put forward their problems then, thinking about reality and their requirements, will lead to learning. Then generative themes are used as the lessons. By knowing the culture and social life of the students, the initiation of new knowledge is possible to support individuals' needs.⁽¹⁶⁾

The teachers can share and exchange knowledge with students, even if they are inexperienced in such fields, for they can learn from the students. Working together gives both teachers and students abundant opportunities for approaching each other and winning each other's confidence. Dialogue, or conversation, is an important form of co-operation which promotes mutual respect.⁽¹⁷⁾

The curriculum of adult classes should not be rigid and the content should be related to real life and facts. Thus adult education may be able to develop the critical ability of adults in terms of Khit-phen and they will be able to solve problems related to day-to-day life effectively.

Learning Activities:

The research found that the programmes used several learning methods. There were discussion, group work, practical work, demonstration and experimentation, self-help activities, survey method and lecture method. Every stage of learning was organised in a specific situation and to broaden the range of objectives.

For learning to be effective, one should learn something which links to previous experience. Through systematic adult education, the learning should come from the mutual responsibility of the students and the teachers. As Houle says, 'learning activities must be mutually planned by the teachers and the students. The programme planners must understand that education is a co-operative rather than an operative art.'⁽¹⁸⁾

Lawson also supports such ideas. He points out that 'the future of adult education is the comparative freedom of programme planners, tutors and students to make their own decisions about what shall be taught. They are not on the whole bound by a prescribed syllabus or by externally dictated objectives.'⁽¹⁹⁾

When students have responsibility for making plans and arranging the learning activities, they must work both in groups and with individuals so that an individual's education is profoundly influenced at every point by her capacities and concerns. For example, the Sreesaked project provided individuals with the chance to try out and practise group work. If education occurs individually, individuals will beware of sharing the responsibility for planning other affairs and that they need to work together.

Wiltshire states that 'a teacher must think about techniques, about how he can help students to learn, why it is important that they should learn some things rather than others. One element in teaching should be subject analysis and development.'⁽²⁰⁾

Houle also suggests that 'learning activities must be related to social circumstances.'⁽²¹⁾ Because human beings live in a complex society which affects their lives and behaviour, and also influences their experiences. So learning processes must be based

on the realities of human experiences and upon their constant changes.

It was found that rural women lacked self-confidence in doing overall affairs. In fact, they had a wealth of experience simply gained from living but they did not realize all their abilities. So part of the learning process is to make them aware of their own potential and skills. Newman suggests 'using informal approach as workshop to provide an opportunity for the adult students to explore their own aptitudes and abilities.'⁽²²⁾ His suggestion may be better applied to training women on subjects of crafts, arts, co-operatives and subjects concerned with making or doing.

Of all the teaching methods, it has been accepted that the discussion method is the most successful in teaching adults. Nevertheless, Houle says that 'no method is superior to others, this depends on circumstances.'⁽²³⁾ But he suggests that discussion method can be used in all circumstances.

About teaching methods, W.E. Styler argues that 'it would be stupid to attempt to decide which method is best; what is best is dependent on the occasion, the tutor, the subject and the students' level of achievement.' He also suggests as a suitable method in adult education that 'it may begin with a shorter discussion with precedes a lecture or it may have a series of short statements by the tutor which are each followed by short discussion, to give only two of a number of different possibilities. He comments that discussion helps students to learn; that is why it is regarded as of such importance in adult education.'⁽²⁴⁾

Discussion is one suitable method to be used with rural women in group learning. Because of their backgrounds and abilities, there should not be a complicated process in discussion. It may range from simple communication through chatting groups, small-group learning and social groups. Discussion must be informal. It must be also realized that imparting information and training experience through discussion to rural women will not get them deep knowledge, and it must complete the activity on the same day. There should not be homework for further discussion because they have no free time and the failure to prepare homework may cause the problem of drop-out.

Adult education involves mature people of differing backgrounds, so various methods should be used to suit learning conditions. For example, in the Philippines, continuing education is conducted through study discussion groups, seminar and workshops. When a regular class cannot be organized, local resources are used and competent people in the government and private employment are invited to give lectures on special topics. Thailand also practises on those methods but it does not take them seriously.

Lowe points out that 'the primary task of adult education is not to make formal academic education more widely available but to assist people to interpret what social and economic change implies for them, in the context of their own environments and to see how they may contribute their personality to the general good.'⁽²⁵⁾

So adult education may include 'the community school' as one of its methods to serve the people. For example, the community school of the Philippines gives extension services directly to the

community such as evening adult classes, folk schools, demonstrations, study sessions, field trips and community assemblies. It helps to improve in all aspects of community living. Recently, Thailand has applied 'the Community School' into rural society in order to encourage parents to take part in educational activities and to further their knowledge, but it has proved less successful because of the lack of co-operation among local people and teachers. So the adult educators should take the responsibility in running the Community School instead of the headmasters of day schools, who may not ^{have} experience in organising learning activities for the public.

Finally, it should be suggested that adult education in Thailand should borrow Knowles' ideas to put into practice that 'the teachers or ^{those} who work directly with adult students should help the students diagnose their needs for particular learning within the scope of the given situation, plan with the students a sequence of experiences that will produce the desired learning; select the most effective methods and techniques, provide the material resources necessary and help the students measure the outcome of the learning experience.' (26)

Training Adult Educators:

Adult education has an increasingly important role in developing the country. So the need for people with an adequate background in all aspects of adult education is of vital importance. An investigation of the staff and teachers of adult classes discovered that the AED and the PWD recruited full-time teachers to teach literacy classes in the evening. The NCWT and the CDD recruited part-time educators, specialists and local skilled men to act as instructors or demonstrators in specialized subjects. Volunteers and local leaders also helped to conduct the programmes. However,

the staff of the AED and the CDD were tied into the civil service system (civil service rule and salary system). They had limited freedom in running the programmes. 'Because the programmes were planned by a centralized system which became rigid and standardized for different areas.'⁽²⁷⁾ For example, the skills taught by the MTTs in each area were drawn from a standardized national list, and each course was taught from a standard syllabus for the same length of time. Such a centralized system hampered the staff and the teachers of the adult classes from grappling with the real problems which needed to be solved. The programme planners and staff dared not propose new ideas to their superiors because of their inferiority. In fact, decision making, responsibility in planning and programme operations must be decentralized and undertaken by local staff, leaders and teachers. Without a decentralized system, it is difficult to design adult education programmes to meet local needs. Especially, when the establishment of the national educational plan is based upon the general framework of plans for socio-economic development which is supplemented by needs identified at local level. So such a plan should not lead to over-centralization.

The administrative level faced several problems. These were a lack of good communication and personal relationships between the superiors and the subordinates. The plans and policies were not clearly made before forwarding to subordinates at local level. The subordinates dared not risk new projects. They feared losing their positions if the project proved unsuccessful.

A fundamental necessity for the effective administration of rural development should be possible to promote those persons working

at the local level and provide them with freedom to design a plan. They have skills and experiences at local level which will lead them to good practical planning with good implementation. Through decentralization, promotion, good communication and social relationships, the staff and those concerned with adult education will make effective programmes for educating local people and satisfy the demand for adult education at local level.

The effectiveness of adult education programmes is based on the ability to recruit, retain and utilize efficiently skilled men, such as, teachers, specialists, volunteers, community development workers and programme operators. An investigation of teachers and staff's capacities discovered that the three organisations had problems of shortage of staff and unqualified teachers. It was difficult to find people with adult education degrees or experience in this field. This is because there is little incentive to look upon this field as a worthwhile career. Only a few universities offer adult education degree courses. The Faculty of Education at Chulalongkorn University, the Sreenakarintharaviroth University and Chiangmai University all offer only subsidiary subjects of adult education for B.Ed. certificates. Only the Silpakorn University offers a course leading to an M.Ed. degree. It was found that only few adults enrolled in this field due to the lack of prospects in such a career, and more males enrolled in the courses than females. The shortage of qualified adult teachers has continued as long as the government does not promote this career like others. Therefore, training adult educators is one of the urgent tasks in Thailand. The AED and other organisations provided training courses for adult educators and teachers which are mostly in terms of in-service and short course training.

According to the ASEAN Conference on Adult Education, training programmes for adult educators should be:

1. pre-service training, this concerns those who are undergoing undergraduate and graduate training at colleges and universities before actually doing adult education work. Such training would involve specialisation in adult education.
2. in-service training applies to those who are already involved in adult education and who would require updating and upgrading in adult education methodology. The programmes may be provided in terms of seminars, conferences, workshops, discussion and forums. (28)

In addition, the adult educators should know about the psychology of adult learning, philosophy of adult education, sociology of education, teaching techniques and human relationships. These subjects should be instructed during the in-service training.

The supervisors are important persons who have the role to share their competence and skills with the school, adult and community teachers. So they should be people competent in the adult education field and able to advise other adult educators. Training programmes must be organized specially for the supervisors. Study tour abroad should be given to those educators who will be dealing with administrative levels and who will be specialists for adult education programmes. Training programmes are necessary for adult educators to make them advance in their professions and to better understand the current issues and trends in adult education.

The limitation of financial, human and material resources for adult education often prevents the programmes being adequate. So it should be suggested that the adult educators in Thailand should accept the advice of the Unesco Asian Regional Seminar which took place in Teheran, 1976 that at the stage of national planning in adult education, it is advisable:

1. to identify new potential finding resources beyond the usual ones.
2. to analyze possible reduction, even elimination of some educational costs, by recourse to:
 - unpaid voluntary teachers
 - premises or places not specifically constructed for teaching purposes.
 - materials built up ad hoc during the teaching process.
 - acceleration of the rhythm of the teaching/ learning process through specifically designed curricula, materials, methodologies, delivery systems in order to reduce its duration.
3. to make use of comparisons of cost-effectiveness analyses, not only of the programmes, but also of their organisational settings.

The financial, human, material and physical resources, needed for implementation of the new educational programmes, should be carefully determined, while the identification of their respective sources should be also attempted. (29)

There is some suggestion that women's education may be provided in broad areas. Lowe (30) suggests to developing countries that they should provide adult education for women within four categories. These should be available suggestions to the adult educators in Thailand. They are:

1. general education for adult women may be taken with a view to reaching a General Certificate of Education or for general cultural purposes and personal enrichment.
2. vocational training, apart from full training for the professions, includes training for a variety of trades undertaken by women, in order to increase an opportunity for paid employment.
3. the extension services covering home economics, agriculture, health, etc.

He states that 'education related in a direct and practical manner to the way of life of women and their families in nowadays becomes

the task of home economists and extension workers attached to the rural services. The success of services of this kind and the enthusiasm and energy with which they have been received by the women concerned suggest that there is no greater urgency than to train and appoint more home economists, women extension workers, and women community development workers.'

From surveys, the research found that Thailand has less recognition of training local women extension workers to work in rural areas. In fact, local women should be encouraged to play a part in community development services so adult education should include women extension workers as one of the important target groups.

4. the informal educational work carried out through women's organisations; women even more than men, need help in widening their horizons and understanding some of the issues facing their local communities and their countries. So women's clubs and societies are important.

Thailand should also increase its efforts in encouraging rural women to set up women's clubs, as many as possible, because by coming together women learn to discuss and undertake improvements in their homes and immediate environment. Lowe also says that 'the whole concept of nationhood may be a very new and imperfectly understood one, and a beginning is often best made by involving women in community development activities and the formation of village clubs and societies. These activities have an educational function which can lead on to better understanding of both local government and national government and a more mature contribution based on co-operation and partnership between the sexes.' (31)

In the Northeast, many villages are extremely poor, and the

majority of women are uneducated and disadvantaged, who are the most in need of adult education. But the provision of adult education tends to favour most the already educated or those who are living in town. Since 'every citizen of a democracy has a right to access to education.'⁽³²⁾ Thus adult education should have the major task to serve the disadvantaged women who have grappled with absolute educational deprivation. According to Kenneth King, the fundamental learning needs of the poorest people are (a) relevant knowledge about food, nutrition and water development; (b) new skills for the farm and for non-farm enterprise; (c) new knowledge and practice of child care and family life planning; (d) basic literacy and computation.⁽³³⁾

The adult educators in Thailand should apply his ideas to women's education in the poorest sector.

The advantages of adult education for rural women:

Adult education serves the needs of rural women and also of national development. It provides a special programme to improve family and economy of rural women. It could also be speedily utilized to bring about social and economic reform related to rural and urban development. It encourages rural women to come together and motivates them to participate more actively in community affairs such as women's societies, youth clubs, discussion groups, cultural groups, social groups and co-operative groups. This contributes to the cohesiveness of social groups. The rural women begin to realize that adult education is an instrument to solve their social and economic problems, then, they are increasing the number of applicants for adult education. It is hoped that in the near future, the adult education in Thailand will increase

its role in serving the disadvantaged women and might be achieved in providing women's education more than in previous years.

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7. Belgium organized an extensive training course for the leaders of tele-clubs lasting two or three days. Leaders of existing clubs were invited to attend the training sessions for leaders of new clubs. This provided the double advantage of providing the old leaders with a refresher course and of allowing them to give new leaders the benefit of their experience.

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TABLE 1a

Unit Recurrent and Capital Costs Elementary Education

	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
Recurrent Costs per Pupil										
Min. of Education	607	590	580	580	581	586	592	601	613	630
Local Authority	440	450	464	473	480	490	502	517	535	554
Municipality	573	572	565	566	563	565	570	580	590	602
Capital Costs Per Place										
Min. of Education	2,690	2,790	2,880	2,980	3,090	3,200	3,310	3,420	3,540	3,670
Local Authority	2,070	2,140	2,220	2,300	2,380	2,460	2,550	2,640	2,730	2,820
Municipality	2,070	2,140	2,220	2,300	2,380	2,460	2,550	2,640	2,730	2,820

TABLE 1b.

Unit Recurrent & Capital Costs Secondary Education

Recurrent Cost Per Pupil	1,134	1,135	1,139	1,144	1,139	1,134	1,135	1,151	1,168	1,192
Capital Cost Per Place (Including replacement)	7,245	7,499	7,761	8,033	8,314	8,605	8,906	9,218	9,541	9,875

Source: Problems of Financing the Thai Educational System,
Nicholas Bennett and Others, Educational Planning Office,
Ministry of Education, 1974.

Unit Recurrent and Capital Costs Technical & Vocational

TABLE 2a

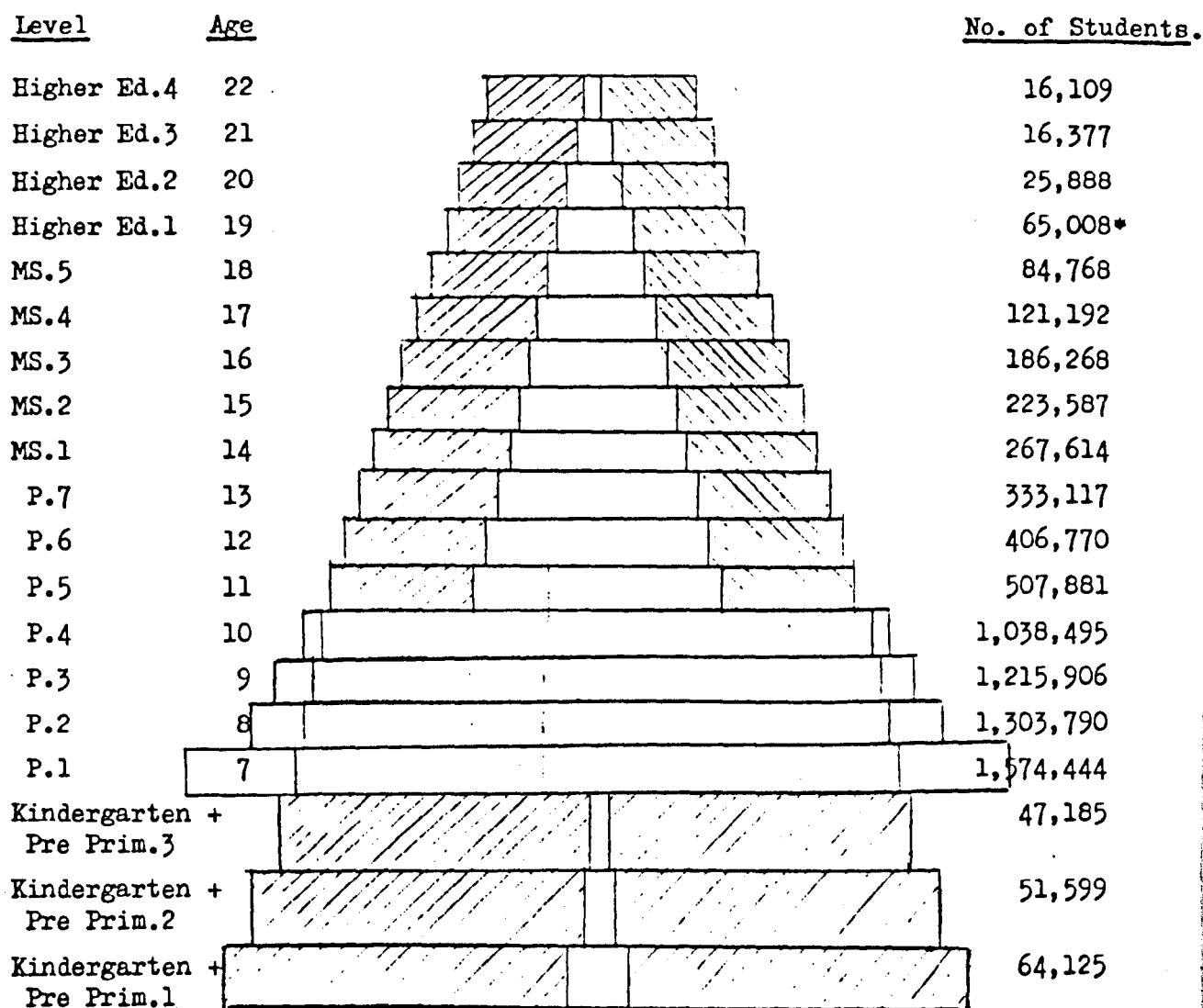
	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
<u>Recurrent</u>										
Vocational	2,912	3,896	2,863	2,887	2,895	2,908	2,922	2,952	2,981	3,011
Technical	4,656	4,565	4,520	4,434	4,385	4,354	4,340	4,340	4,363	4,406
<u>Capital</u>										
Vocational	20,000	20,700	21,424	22,174	22,950	23,754	24,585	25,446	26,336	27,258
Technical	25,000	25,875	26,781	27,718	26,688	29,692	30,731	31,807	32,920	34,072

TABLE 2b. Unit Recurrent and Capital Costs Teacher Training

<u>Recurrent</u>										
Teachers' Colleges	2,494	2,513	2,535	2,562	2,588	2,618	2,670	2,724	2,780	2,830
College of Education	5,867	5,814	5,784	5,763	5,760	5,761	5,876	5,994	6,114	6,235
<u>Capital</u>										
Teachers' Colleges	25,000	25,000	25,000	25,000	25,000	25,000	25,870	26,780	27,720	28,690
College of Education		40,000	40,000	40,000	40,000	40,000	41,400	42,850	44,350	45,900

TABLE 3

PYRAMID OF EDUCATION, 1973



Population in age Group



Enrolment

* Including Vocational MS.6

SOURCE Preliminary Statistics for 1973, Educational Planning Office,
Ministry of Education, 1974.

TABLE 4 ENROLLMENT AND POPULATION IN AGE GROUP, 1973

Level of Education	Age	Enrollment	Population in age group.	Enrollment age group population ratio	Percentage of total Enrollment
Kinder 1	4	64,125	1,275,533	5.03	0.86
Kinder 2	5	51,599	1,231,123	4.19	0.68
Pre-Prim.	6	47,185	1,188,384	3.97	0.62
Sub-Total	4 - 6	162,909	3,695,040	4.41	2.16
P.1	7	1,574,444	1,147,320	137.23	20.82
P.2	8	1,303,790	1,107,936	117.68	17.25
P.3	9	1,215,960	1,070,237	113.61	16.09
P.4	10	1,038,495	1,034,147	100.42	13.74
Sub-Total	7 - 10	5,132,635	4,359,640	117.73	67.90
P.5	11	507,881	999,592	50.81	6.72
P.6	12	406,770	966,976	42.07	5.38
P.7	13	333,117	936,464	35.57	4.41
Sub-Total	11 - 13	1,247,768	2,903,032	42.98	16.51
MS 1	14	267,614	907,820	29.48	3.54
MS 2	15	223,587	880,129	25.40	2.96
MS 3	16	186,268	852,928	21.84	2.46
Sub-Total	14 - 16	677,469	2,640,877	25.65	8.96
MS 4	17	121,192	828,480	14.63	1.60
MS 5	18	84,768	808,600	10.50	1.13
MS 6	19	32,715	988,869	4.15	0.43
Sub-Total	17 - 19	238,675	2,424,949	9.84	3.16
Higher Ed.1	19	32,293	788,869	4.09	0.43
Higher Ed.2	20	25,888	770,309	3.36	0.34
Higher Ed.3	21	16,377	752,630	2.18	0.22
Higher Ed.4	22	16,109	731,830	2.20	0.21
Higher Ed. 5,6.	23 - 24	8,552	1,382,230	0.62	0.11
Sub-Total	19 - 24	99,219	4,425,868	2.24	1.31
Grand Total	4 - 24	7,558,675	19,660,537	38.45	100.00

Source Preliminary Statistics for 1973, Op. Cit.

TABLE 5 SCHOOLS, TEACHERS AND ENROLLMENT by AGENCIES 1973

Agencies	Schools	Teachers	Enrollments
1. <u>General Ed. Dep., MEO.</u>	2,483	36,550	840,861
1.1 Elementary Ed. Division	318	7,628	194,374
1.2 Secondary Ed. Division	627	18,510	450,252
1.3 Special Ed. Division	94	2,202	57,411
1.3.1 Kindergarten	75	1,805	49,962
1.3.2 Boarding School for the Poor	15	308	6,675
1.3.3 Special Ed.	4	89	774
1.4 Adult Ed. Division	1,444	8,210	138,824
1.4.1 Functional Literacy	260	195	4,000
1.4.2 General	916	6,807	91,890
1.4.3 Vocational	268	1,208	42,934
2. <u>Vocational Ed. Dep. MEO.</u>	169	6,325	89,030
2.1 Vocational School	147	4,372	50,275
2.2 Technical	22	1,953	38,755
3. <u>Teacher Training Dep., MEO</u>	29	3,868	60,717
4. <u>Fine Arts Dep. MEO</u> (Fine Arts Colleges)	3	192	2,210
5. <u>Physical Ed. Dep., MEO</u> (Physical Ed. College)	3	43	1,020
6. <u>The College of Education</u>	8	1,213	12,314
7. <u>King Mongkut Institute of Tech.</u>	1 with 4 centers	372	3,787
8. <u>Private Education Commission Office</u>			
8.1 Private Schools	2,616	51,211	1,217,655
8.2 Private Colleges	9	574	6,367
9. <u>Municipal (Primary Schools)</u>	373	5,542	199,047
10. <u>Changwad Admin. Organisation</u> (Primary schools)	27,436	155,291	4,982,094
11. <u>Bangkok Administrative</u>	380	6,828	220,695
12. <u>Patrol Police Schools</u> (Primary Schools)	129	292	9,818
13. <u>Universities *</u>	9	7,247	48,720
14. <u>Open University</u> (Ramkhamhaeng)	1	373	36,463
Total	33,649	275,921	7,730,798

* excluding Ramkhamhaeng University

Source Preliminary Statistics for 1973, Op. Cit.

TABLE 6

NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN ACADEMIC STREAM BY GRADE AND SEX, 1964 AND 1972

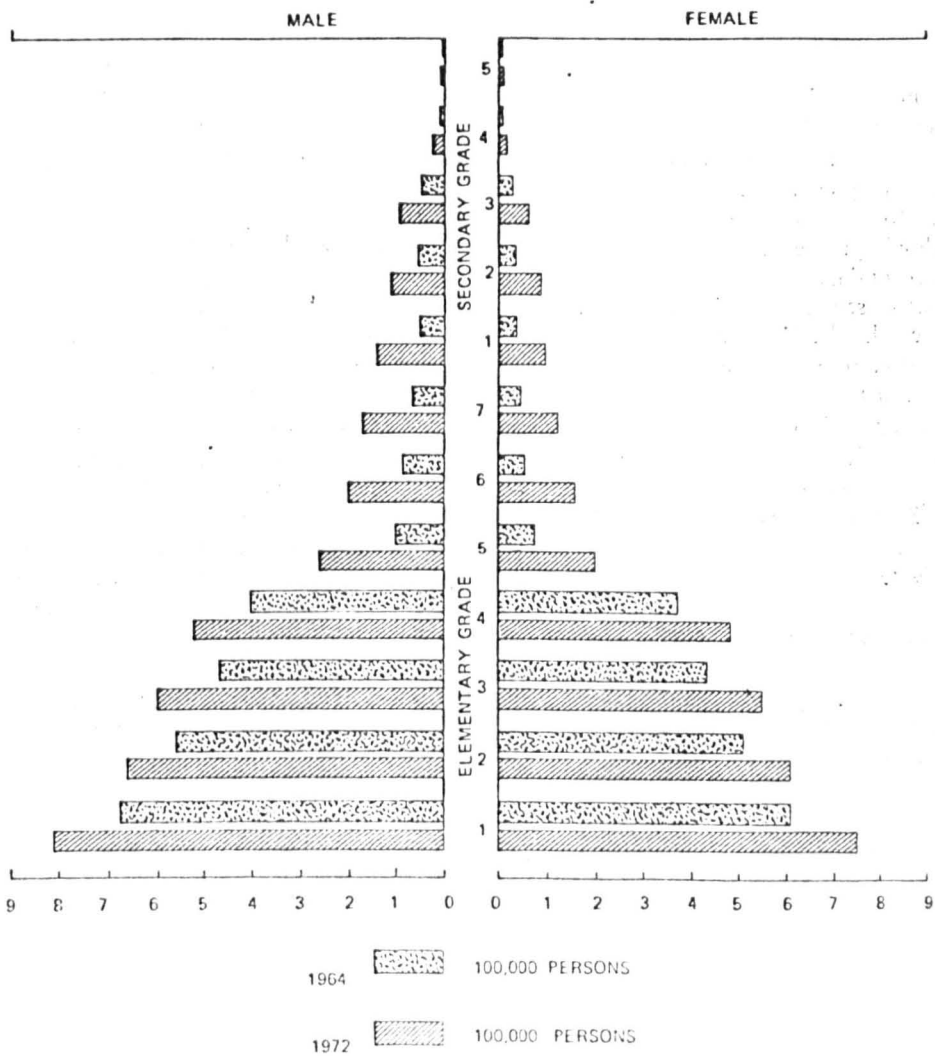


TABLE 7

NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN EACH STREAM IN 1968, 1969, 1970, 1971, 1972

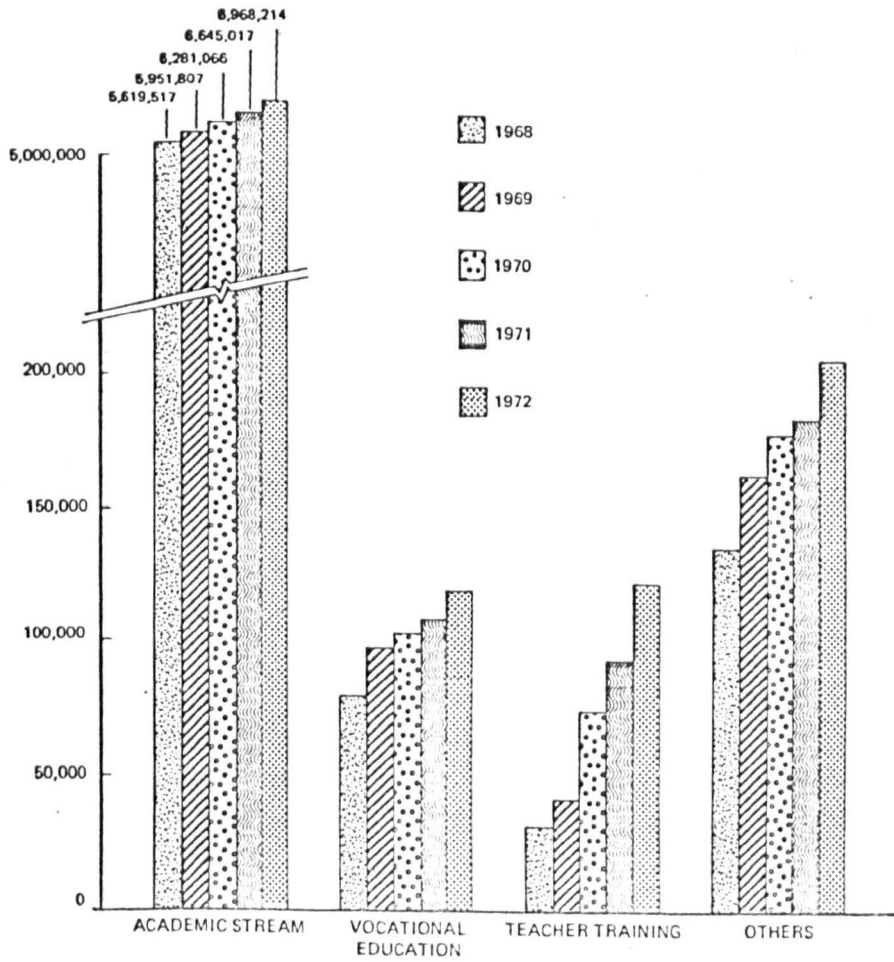
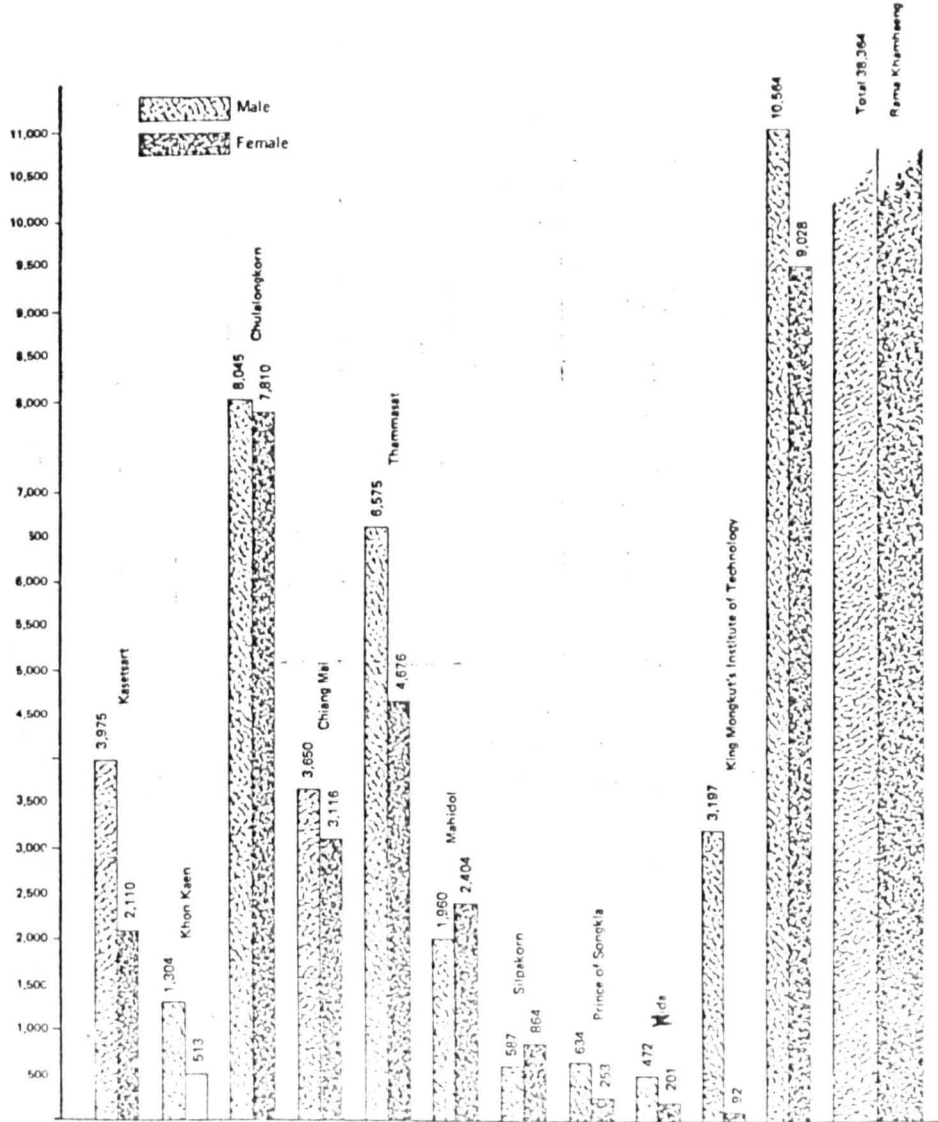


TABLE 8

NUMBER OF MALE AND FEMALE STUDENTS BY UNIVERSITY



Source: Educational Report Institutions of Higher Education, Office of State Universities, Office of the Prime Minister, Thailand, 1973

TABLE 9

Government Revenue and Expenditure Projection

	<u>million baht</u>						
	<u>1967</u>	<u>1971</u>	<u>1972</u>	<u>1973</u>	<u>1974</u>	<u>1976</u>	<u>1981</u>
<u>Government Budget</u>	19,228.3	28,645.0	29,000.0	32,030.0	39,030.0	53,344.3	97,354.3
<u>Government Expenditure</u>	18,459.1	27,725.0	28,297.9	31,343.6	-	-	-
<u>Education Budget</u>	2,973.3	5,191.1	5,543.5	5,952.5	5,952.5	9,395.2	20,101.4
<u>Recurrent</u>	2,232.6	3,795.0	4,116.7	4,506.4	5,265.1	<u>7,046.4</u>	<u>15,076.1</u>
Elementary	1,330.9	2,185.9	2,422.7	2,696.7	3,229.5	4,375.5	9,349.6
Secondary	177.2	288.0	330.1	387.8	464.6	669.0	1,664.8
Vocational	137.7	244.1	259.5	266.7	299.1	375.1	660.9
Teacher Training	65.2	115.3	140.3	161.6	143.8	190.2	297.4
Higher Education	205.1	485.7	554.3	610.2	638.2	793.4	1,915.1
Others*	316.5	476.0	409.8	383.4	489.9	643.2	1,508.3
Administrative budget and others							
<u>Capital</u>	740.7	1,396.1	1,426.8	1,446.1	1,665.6	<u>2,348.8</u>	<u>5,025.3</u>
Elementary	223.5	600.9	639.5	622.2	690.1	963.0	2,060.4
Secondary	96.3	230.3	244.1	287.1	319.9	469.8	1,231.2
Vocational	133.4	115.0	85.3	91.7	138.7	199.6	376.9
Teacher Training	50.6	166.3	188.3	190.9	222.4	305.3	381.9
Higher Education	236.9	283.6	269.6	254.2	294.5	364.1	794.0
Others	-	-	-	-	-	47.0	180.9

* Insignificant Amount

Source: Thailand's Budget in Brief, Bureau of the Budget and Budget Allocation, Bureau of the Budget. Projection, preliminary estimate from Educational Planning Office, Ministry of Education.

TABLE 10

The Structure of Administration of Education 1973

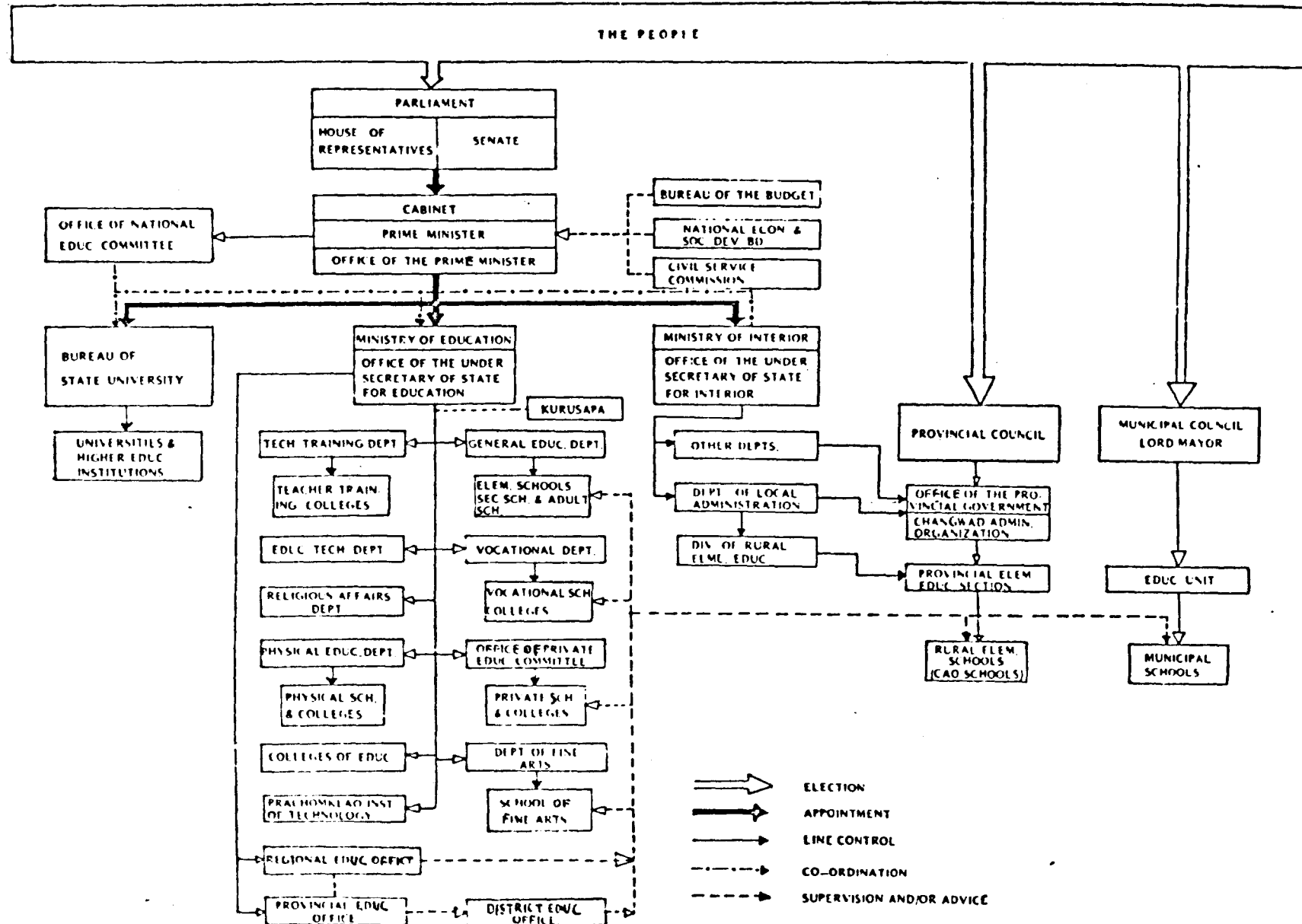


TABLE 11 Teacher Qualifications 1973 (Excluding University)

	Total Teachers	% Bachelors Degree or Higher	% Diploma in Ed. or Equiv.	% Cert of Education	% Lower than Cert.
Local Authority Elem.	155,300	1.20	26.90	40.02	31.88
Min. of Ed. Elem.	9,600	5.4	59.84	27.56	7.20
Municipality Elem.	12,300	1.34	33.79	33.72	31.15
Public Secondary	18,500	36.74	57.13	4.20	1.93
Private Elem.& Second.	50,100	2.90	14.35	30.09	52.66
Public Vocat. & Tech. (Est)	7,500	52.00	35.00	11.00	2.00
Teacher Training (Est)	5,100	84.00	7.00	6.00	3.00
Other (Est)	9,600	34.00	25.00	11.00	30.00
Grand Total	268,000	8.30	27.92	32.46	31.32
(Grand Total 1970)	216,493	6.70	22.60	31.60	39.10

Source: Educational Planning Office, op.cit., and Report on Educational Statistics E.P.O. & N.S.O. 1969/1970.

TABLE 12

Requirements of Teachers by Level of Education (Excluding Universities)

	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
Elementary and Kind. Total	214,300	222,100	230,700	240,700	252,300	264,100	275,000	285,100
Local Authority	155,300	162,400	170,300	179,600	188,800	198,100	206,600	213,900
Ministry of Education	9,600	9,700	9,800	9,900	10,000	10,100	10,200	10,300
Municipality	12,300	12,900	13,500	14,100	15,000	16,000	17,200	18,400
Private	37,100	37,100	37,100	37,300	38,500	39,900	41,000	42,500
Secondary Academic	31,500	34,400	38,500	42,700	47,300	51,200	55,800	60,900
Public	18,500	21,000	24,500	28,000	32,000	35,200	38,800	42,900
Private	13,000	13,400	14,000	14,700	15,300	16,000	17,000	18,000
Public Vocational and Technical	7,500	7,700	7,900	8,000	8,300	8,600	8,900	9,200
Teacher Training	5,100	5,600	6,000	6,400	7,000	7,600	8,200	8,800
Other	9,600	10,600	11,600	12,700	13,700	14,800	15,900	17,000
Total	268,000	280,400	294,700	310,700	328,600	346,300	363,800	381,000

Source: Educational Planning Office, Ministry of Education.

TABLE 13

Projection of Teacher Training Enrolments, Teacher Training Colleges and College of Education

	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
A) Full Time								
Lower Cert. Year I	16,000	16,000	1,6000	16,000	16,000	16,850	17,690	18,250
Lower Cert. Year II	16,500	17,600	17,600	17,600	17,600	17,600	18,540	19,460
Pow Paw	6,500	7,400	9,400	9,400	9,400	9,400	8,400	9,400
Total	39,000	41,000	43,000	43,000	43,000	43,850	45,630	47,110
Higher Cert. Year I	6,090	9,000	9,650	10,900	11,130	11,350	11,660	12,000
Higher Cert. Year II	6,910	7,000	10,350	11,100	12,540	13,800	13,050	13,410
Total	13,000	16,000	20,000	22,000	23,670	24,150	24,710	25,410
Bachelor Year I	790	790	920	940	940	940	940	940
Bachelor Year II	800	910	910	1,060	1,080	1,080	1,080	1,080
Bachelor Year III	3,160	3,350	3,860	4,020	4,020	4,020	4,020	4,020
Bachelor Year IV	2,690	3,320	3,520	4,050	4,200	4,220	4,220	4,220
Total	7,440	8,370	9,210	10,260	10,260	10,260	10,260	10,260
Post Graduate	560	630	790	930	1,000	1,080	1,170	1,260
Total Full Time Enrolments	60,000	66,000	73,000	76,000	77,930	79,340	81,770	84,040
B Part Time (Estimates)								
Lower Certificate	60,000	60,000	55,000	50,000	40,000	30,000	20,000	10,000
Higher Certificate	20,000	20,000	20,000	20,000	20,000	20,000	15,000	10,000
Bachelor	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	10,000	9,000	8,000
Total	90,000	90,000	85,000	80,000	70,000	60,000	44,000	28,000

NOTE: Not taking account of proposals to upgrade Teacher Training Colleges to University Level.

Source: Problems of Financing, Op.Cit. (Rough estimate of Part Time Training made).

TABLE 14Total Stock of Teachers 1972 - 1980 (Excluding Part Time & University

	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
Bachelor and Above	22,244	25,200	28,500	32,600	36,800	41,000	45,500	50,500
Higher Cert. and Equiv.	74,816	78,500	8,2500	87,000	92,100	97,300	102,800	108,000
Lower Cert. and Equiv.	86,986	93,000	99,500	108,000	118,000	127,300	136,100	149,500
Other, Below Lower Cert.	83,954	83,700	84,200	83,100	81,700	80,700	79,400	73,000
Total	268,000	280,400	294,700	310,700	328,600	346,300	363,800	381,000

Source: Educational Planning Office, Ministry of Education

TABLE 15

Projection of University Enrolments by Field of Study

	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
A) <u>9 Universities</u> ¹								
Post Graduate (All Fields)	5,000	5,600	5,900	6,200	6,800	7,400	7,900	8,500
Under Graduate and Below at University	46,490	49,770	53,470	57,550	61,700	66,200	71,100	76,400
Humanity	4,130	4,310	4,590	5,000	5,400	5,700	6,000	6,200
Education	5,700	6,300	6,760	7,200	7,700	8,400	9,100	9,900
Fine Arts	940	1,050	1,230	1,410	1,500	1,600	1,700	1,700
Social Science	14,440	14,890	15,170	15,990	16,500	17,000	17,500	18,000
Science	3,390	3,800	4,270	4,680	5,100	5,400	5,800	6,200
Engineering	4,210	4,590	5,140	5,600	6,100	6,500	6,900	7,300
Medical Science	9,290	10,200	11,360	12,440	13,800	15,500	17,500	19,900
Agriculture	4,390	4,630	4,950	5,230	5,600	6,100	6,600	7,200
Grand Total	51,490	55,370	59,370	63,750	68,500	73,600	79,000	84,900
B) <u>Other (Estimates)*</u>								
Ramkhamhaeng (Est.)	36,000	41,000	46,000	51,000	56,000	61,000	66,000	71,000
Overseas Students	5,700	5,700	5,700	5,700	5,300	4,900	4,600	4,300
Private Colleges	3,800	3,300	3,200	3,300	3,500	3,800	4,200	4,600
Total (Other higher Education)	45,500	50,000	54,900	60,000	64,800	69,700	74,800	79,900
C) Overseas Training Below Universities Level	9,400	9,400	9,400	9,400	9,400	9,400	9,400	9,400

¹ Not including college of Education and King Mongkut Institute of Technology

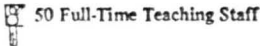
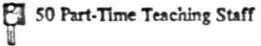
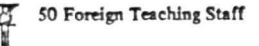






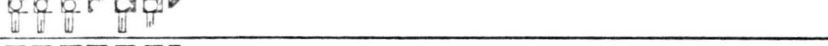

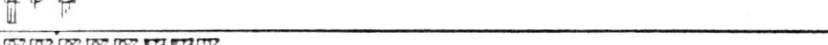
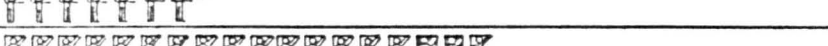
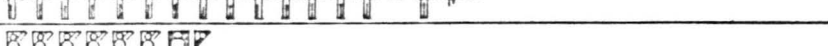
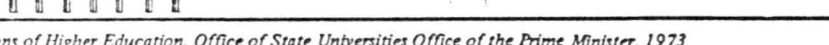
* All these figures for other higher education are very rough estimates and should not be taken too seriously. Ramkhamhaeng University was only opened in 1971 and private universities were only allowed to start operations in 1970, thus no trend data or information on interrelationships is available. Overseas training statistics are notoriously incomplete and unreliable.

NOTE: From 1972 to 1976 is that included in the Third Five Year Plan. Beyond 1976 the same assumption and policies used in the third five year plan are assumed to hold true.

SOURCE: Problems of Financing. Op.Cit.

TABLE 16

Number of Full-Time Teaching Staff, Part-Time Teaching Staff and Foreign Lecturers, Academic Year 1973

Higher Institutions	 50 Full-Time Teaching Staff  50 Part-Time Teaching Staff  50 Foreign Teaching Staff	Teaching Staff		
		Full-Time	Part-Time	Foreigner
Kasetsart		774	174	26
Khon Kaen		400	72	14
Chulalongkorn		1633	477	56
Chiang Mai		786	170	33
Thammasat		438	170	19
Mahidol		1,214	197	22
Silpakorn		169	94	13
Prince of Songkhla		203	35	2
		96	36	1
King Mongkut's Institute of Technology		249		16
College of Education		737		31
Ramkhamhaeng		336	28	2

Source: Educational Report: Institutions of Higher Education, Office of State Universities Office of the Prime Minister, 1973

TABLE 17

Fields of Study, by Sex, University and Faculty, Academic Year 1973

Institution and Faculty	Graduates																	
	Total			Higher Certificates			Masters			Doctorates			Grand Total					
	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F
Grand Total	65,496	37,545	27,951	789	374	415	5,712	3,029	2,683	33	15	18	6,534	3,418	3,116	72,030	40,963	31,067
Kasetsart University	5,702	3,770	1,932	-	-	-	383	205	178	-	-	-	383	205	178	6,085	3,975	2,110
New Entrants and First Year Students	1,438	927	511	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,438	927	511
Faculty of Agriculture	1,114	783	331	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,114	783	331
Faculty of Fisheries	127	97	30	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	127	97	30
Faculty of Forestry	340	340	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	340	340	-
Faculty of Science and Arts	501	140	361	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	501	140	361
Faculty of Engineering	458	443	15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	458	443	15
Faculty of Education	524	257	267	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	524	257	267
Faculty of Economics and BusAdmin.	960	614	346	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	960	614	346
Faculty of Veterinary Medicine	240	169	71	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	240	169	71
Faculty of Graduate School	-	-	-	-	-	-	383	205	178	-	-	-	383	205	178	383	205	178
Khon Kaen University	1,817	1,304	513	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,817	1,304	513
Faculty of Agriculture	458	371	87	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	458	371	87
Faculty of Nursing	187	42	145	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	187	42	145
Faculty of Sciences and Arts	58	31	27	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	58	31	27
Faculty of Engineering	644	637	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	644	637	7
Faculty of Education	470	223	247	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	470	223	247
Chulalongkorn University	13,048	6,812	6,236	684	316	368	2,123	917	1,206	-	-	-	2,807	1,233	1,574	15,855	8,045	7,810
Faculty of Education	2,044	558	1,486	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,044	558	1,486
Faculty of Dentistry	272	105	167	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	272	105	167
Faculty of Law	561	470	91	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	561	470	91
Faculty of Commerce and Accountancy	2,401	788	1,613	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,401	788	1,613
Faculty of Medicine	449	318	131	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	449	318	131
Faculty of Pharmaceutical Science	324	167	157	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	324	167	157
Faculty of Political Science	661	416	245	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	661	416	245
Faculty of Science	1,803	1,129	674	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,803	1,129	674
Faculty of Engineering	1,917	1,879	38	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,917	1,879	38
Faculty of Economics	496	198	298	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	496	198	298
Faculty of Architecture	425	339	86	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	425	339	86
Faculty of Veterinary Medicine	158	102	56	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	158	102	56

Fields of Study, by Sex, University and Faculty, Academic Year 1973 (Contd)

Institutions, Faculties and Fields Study	Undergraduates			Graduates												Grand Total		
	Total			Higher Certificates			Masters			Doctorates			Total					
	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F
Faculty of Arts	890	51	839	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	890	51	839
Department of Mass Communications and Public Relations	530	224	306	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	530	224	306
Faculty of Graduate School	-	-	-	684	316	368	2,123	917	1,206	-	-	-	2,807	1,233	1,574	2,807	1,235	1,574
School of Analytical Chemistry Training	117	68	49	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	117	68	49
Chiang Mai University	6,766	3,650	3,116	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6,766	3,650	3,116
Faculty of Agriculture	372	320	52	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	372	320	52
Faculty of Dentistry	157	80	77	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	157	80	77
Faculty of Nursing	353	8	345	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	353	8	345
Faculty of Medicine	714	557	157	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	714	557	157
Faculty of Pharmaceutical Science	239	148	91	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	239	148	91
Faculty of Humanities	1,077	246	831	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,077	246	831
Faculty of Science	1,022	662	360	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,022	662	360
Faculty of Engineering	300	297	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	300	297	3
Faculty of Education	1,038	479	559	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,038	479	559
Faculty of Social Science	1,494	853	641	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,494	853	641
Thammasat University	9,400	5,518	3,882	40	20	20	1,809	1,035	774	2	2	-	1,851	1,057	794	11,251	6,575	4,676
Faculty of Law	3,172	2,335	817	-	-	-	186	157	29	-	-	-	186	157	29	3,358	2,512	846
Faculty of Commerce and Accountancy	1,094	523	571	-	-	-	202	121	81	-	-	-	202	121	81	1,296	644	652
Faculty of Political Science	695	354	341	-	-	-	531	415	116	-	-	-	531	415	116	1,226	769	457
Faculty of Liberal Arts	593	64	529	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	593	64	529
Faculty of Economics	1,804	1,280	524	40	20	20	890	342	548	2	2	-	932	364	568	2,736	1,644	1,092
Faculty of Social Administration	254	74	180	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	254	74	180
School of Journalism and Mass Communication	409	209	200	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	409	209	200
First Year Students	1,379	659	720	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,379	659	720
Science	728	444	284	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	728	444	284
Arts	507	114	393	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	507	114	393
Economics (Twilight)	144	101	43	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	144	101	43
Mahidol University	4,086	1,837	2,249	56	30	26	191	80	111	31	13	18	278	123	155	4,364	1,960	2,404
Phyathai Faculty of Dentistry	114	49	65	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	114	49	65
Faculty of Medical Technology	122	41	81	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	122	41	81

Fields of Study, by Sex, University and Faculty, Academic Year 1973 (Contd)

Institutions, Faculties and Fields Study	Undergraduates			Graduates														
	Total			Higher Certificates			Masters			Doctorates						Total		
	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F
	Faculty of Nursing	595	3	592	18	-	18	-	-	-	-	-	-	18	-	18	613	3
Faculty of Medicine, Ramathibodi Hospital	412	94	318	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	412	94	318
Faculty of Medicine, Siriraj Hospital	658	517	141	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	658	517	141
Pharmacy Faculty of Phythia	180	60	120	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	180	60	120
Faculty of Science	1,505	942	563	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,505	942	563
Faculty of Public Health	500	131	369	-	-	-	16	10	6	-	-	-	16	10	6	516	141	375
Faculty of Tropical Medicine	-	-	-	38	30	8	7	3	4	-	-	-	45	33	12	45	33	12
Faculty of Graduate School	-	-	-	-	-	-	168	67	101	31	13	18	199	80	119	199	80	119
Silpakorn University	1,442	579	863	9	8	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	9	8	1	1,451	587	864
Faculty of Painting, Sculpture and Graphic Arts	149	120	29	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	149	120	29
Faculty of Archaeology	129	71	58	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	129	71	58
Faculty of Decorative Arts	158	106	52	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	158	106	52
Faculty of Science	90	49	41	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	90	49	41
Faculty of Education	250	31	219	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	250	31	219
Faculty of Architecture	176	148	28	9	8	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	185	156	29
Faculty of Arts	490	54	436	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	490	54	436
Prince of Songkla University	887	634	253	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	887	634	253
Faculty of Medicine	20	-	20	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	20	-	20
Faculty of Science	277	188	89	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	277	188	89
Faculty of Engineering	333	321	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	333	331	1
Faculty of Education	257	114	143	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	257	114	143
National Institute of Development Administration	-	-	-	-	-	-	673	472	201	-	-	-	673	472	201	673	472	201
School of Business Administration	-	-	-	-	-	-	138	84	54	-	-	-	138	84	54	138	84	54
School of Development Economics	-	-	-	-	-	-	139	75	64	-	-	-	139	75	64	139	75	64
School of Public Administration	-	-	-	-	-	-	251	228	23	-	-	-	251	228	23	251	228	23
School of Applied Statistics	-	-	-	-	-	-	145	85	60	-	-	-	145	85	60	145	85	60
King Mongkut's Institute of Technology	3,289	3,197	92	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3,289	3,197	92
Thonburi Faculty of Engineering	1,150	1,143	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,150	1,143	7
Nontha Buri	1,019	937	82	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,019	937	82
Faculty of Engineering	621	601	20	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	621	601	20

Fields of Study, by Sex, University and Faculty, Academic Year 1973 (Contd)

Institution and Faculty	Undergraduates			Graduates												Grand Total		
	Total			Higher Certificates			Masters			Doctorates			Total					
	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F
Faculty of Architecture	398	336	62	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	398	336	62
North Bangkok	1,120	1,117	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,120	1,117	3
Certificate Level	822	819	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	822	819	3
Faculty of Engineering	725	722	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	725	722	3
Faculty of Industrial Education and Science	97	97	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	97	97	-
Undergraduate Level	298	298	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	298	298	-
Faculty of Engineering	84	84	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	84	84	-
Faculty of Industrial Education Science	214	214	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	214	214	-
College of Education	19,059	10,244	8,815	-	-	-	533	320	213	-	-	-	533	320	213	19,592	10,564	9,028
Bangsaen	3,391	1,660	1,731	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3,391	1,660	1,731
Patumwan	1,927	630	1,297	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,927	630	1,297
Prasarnmit	4,297	2,446	1,851	-	-	-	533	320	213	-	-	-	533	320	213	4,830	2,766	2,064
Pranakorn	1,961	923	1,038	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,961	923	1,038
Phitsanulok	2,828	1,507	1,321	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,828	1,507	1,321
Mahasarakam	1,944	1,268	676	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,944	1,268	676
Songkla	1,462	744	718	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,462	744	718
Ramkhamhaeng University	38,364	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	38,364	-	-
Faculty of Business Administration	13,660	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	13,660	-	-
Faculty of Law	14,432	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	14,432	-	-
Faculty of Humanities	3,058	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3,058	-	-
Faculty of Education	7,214	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7,214	-	-
Private Colleges	1,111	427	684	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,111	427	684

Source: Educational Report: Institutions of Higher Education, Office of State Universities, Office of the Prime Minister, 1973.

TABLE 18

POPULATION GROWTH RATE IN THAILAND

1911 - 1919	1.4%	annually
1919 - 1929	2.2%	"
1929 - 1937	3.0%	"
1937 - 1947	1.9%	"
1947 - 1960	3.2%	"
1960 - 1969	3.3%	"
*(1970 - 1975)	2.7%	"

Source of information:

Population census 1970, National Statistics Bureau, Prime Minister's Office.

ESTIMATED

TABLE 19

LITERATES AND ILLITERATES BY AGE
1947

Age	Population	Literates	Illiterates	Percent of Illiterates
10 - 14	2,327,386	1,455,864	871,522	38.56
15 - 19	1,954,201	1,496,769	455,432	23.42
20 - 24	1,566,539	1,064,213	502,326	33.05
25 - 29	1,260,642	721,940	538,702	43.11
30 - 34	1,155,588	592,051	563,552	49.13
35 - 39	1,006,244	445,561	560,683	55.70
40 - 44	820,712	296,824	523,888	64.41
45 - 49	680,896	217,688	463,208	68.00
50 - 54	501,123	141,102	360,021	70.46
55 - 59	386,259	94,301	291,958	75.60
60 - and over	718,792	151,163	567,629	79.60
Unknown	24,125	17,777	6,348	26.30
Total	12,327,386	6,622,072	5,705,314	46.30
15 - 60 UP	10,000,000	5,166,208	4,833,792	57.66

Source of information: National Statistics Bureau

TABLE 20

**LITERATES AND ILLITERATES BY AGE
1960**

Age	Population	Literates	Illiterates	Percent of Illiterates
10 - 14	3,088,202	2,647,004	441,198	14.30
15 - 19	2,498,977	2,210,481	288,496	11.02
20 - 24	2,416,193	2,028,968	387,171	16.02
25 - 29	2,071,114	1,662,955	408,159	19.71
30 - 34	1,753,828	1,371,759	382,069	21.78
35 - 39	1,372,034	905,043	466,991	34.04
40 - 44	1,132,449	607,051	525,398	46.39
45 - 49	976,691	468,543	508,157	52.03
50 - 54	473,560	136,807	336,753	70.90
65 - and over	734,655	175,656	558,999	76.09
Unknown	46,092	22,766	23,326	50.61
Total	18,026,404	12,756,250	5,270,154	29.24
15 - 60 UP	14,938,202	10,109,246	4,828,956	32.33

Source of information: National Statistics Bureau

TABLE 21

**LITERATES AND ILLITERATES BY AGE
1970**

Age	Population	Literates	Illiterates	Percent of Illiterates
10 - 14	4,562,199	4,336,243	189,876	4.16
15 - 19	3,717,548	3,507,431	210,035	5.65
20 - 24	2,683,358	2,492,612	190,746	7.10
25 - 29	2,241,460	2,009,307	232,153	10.35
30 - 34	2,124,411	1,809,691	314,720	14.81
35 - 39	1,910,566	1,586,171	324,395	16.97
40 - 44	1,540,660	1,203,909	336,751	21.85
45 - 49	1,196,572	788,641	407,931	34.09
50 - 54	961,979	541,981	446,998	46.46
55 - 59	790,059	383,533	406,526	51.45
60 - 64	625,024	234,614	390,410	62.46
65 - 69	451,858	151,324	300,534	66.51
70 - and over	604,142	158,456	445,680	73.77
Unknown	43,477	10,976	32,501	74.75
Total	23,453,313	19,187,889	4,265,424	18.18
15 - 60 UP.	18,891,114	14,851,646	4,035,548	21.36

Source of information: National Statistics Bureau

TABLE 22

ADULT EDUCATION LITERACY PROGRAMS

Year	Schools	Teachers	Classes	Students
1960	176	511	245	13,822
1961	171	485	230	12,440
1962	174	470	220	13,844
1963	166	456	198	11,208
1964	190	515	248	16,432
1965	264	619	436	15,392
1966	298	675	485	15,718
1967	225	634	453	13,117
1968	269	664	479	14,193
1969	342	702	495	13,525
1970	348	715	514	13,378
1971	333	846	776	15,625
1972	410	760	743	16,910
1973	556	869	699	15,124
1974	652	833	688	17,486
1975	630	972	669	18,017
1976	620	994	675	19,953

Literacy level programs are:—

- Fundamental education project, levels 1 and 2,
- Functional literacy project

TABLE 23

ADULT CONTINUING EDUCATION

Year	Schools	Teachers	Classes	Students
1960	48	297	115	3,712
1961	46	315	120	3,833
1962	52	318	130	4,050
1963	56	320	140	4,062
1964	56	334	148	4,220
1965	55	342	158	4,626
1966	58	364	178	5,134
1967	62	368	178	6,417
1968	60	387	208	6,472
1969	76	398	211	7,105
1970	70	415	226	9,095
1971	183	1,220	519	19,019
1972	306	3,258	1,463	51,548
1973	545	6,274	2,181	80,005
1974	667	9,457	3,035	108,582
1975	1,955	10,667	3,596	130,880
1976	2,100	11,565	4,323	168,935

Continuing education programs are:—

- General education levels 3,4 and 5

TABLE 24

ADULT EDUCATION ENROLMENTS BY PROGRAM

Type Year	Literacy	Continuing general education	Vocational education	Total
1960	13,822	3,712	6,465	23,999
1961	12,440	3,833	6,692	22,965
1962	13,844	4,050	6,772	24,666
1963	11,208	4,062	6,912	22,182
1964	16,432	4,220	8,577	29,229
1965	15,392	4,626	10,411	30,429
1966	15,718	5,134	8,240	29,092
1967	13,117	6,417	10,785	30,319
1968	14,193	6,472	17,133	37,798
1969	12,525	7,105	26,370	46,000
1970	13,378	9,095	31,366	53,839
1971	15,625	19,019	34,983	69,627
1972	16,910	51,548	36,269	104,727
1973	15,910	51,548	43,269	138,263
1974	17,486	108,582	40,977	167,045
1975	18,017	130,880	44,481	193,378
1976	19,953	168,935	45,220	234,108

TABLE 25

ADULT VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

School Year	Mobile Trade Training Schools (MTTS)				Mobile and Stationary Vocational Education Schools			
	Schools	Teachers	Classes	Students	Schools	Teachers	Classes	Students
1960	1	—	—	—	127	334	323	6,465
1961	1	—	—	—	129	352	347	6,692
1962	1	—	—	—	130	373	365	6,772
1963	2	—	—	—	131	376	365	6,912
1964	2	32	97	1,532	133	380	371	7,045
1965	2	32	97	2,077	038	365	364	8,334
1966	2	30	97	1,684	181	379	366	6,556
1967	7	60	229	4,046	195	414	369	6,739
1968	18	164	522	9,144	162	447	372	7,989
1969	27	259	626	11,061	201	492	377	15,309
1970	36	309	857	16,076	216	456	384	15,290
1971	45	408	1,105	18,183	221	572	416	16,800
1972	45	463	1,254	18,949	225	666	413	17,320
1973	45	456	1,227	17,479	254	783	681	25,655
1974	45	465	1,338	21,560	240	894	541	19,417
1975	45	411	1,490	20,439	308	1,055	1,162	24,042
1976	47	415	1,510	20,120	309	1,100	1,210	25,100

From 1960 – 1963, there are no available figures. The MTTS was transferred from the Dept. of Vocational Education on October 1, 1972.

TABLE 26

OTHER ADULT EDUCATION ACTIVITIES

Types		1973	1974	1975	1976
1) Public Library	Total	338	330	330	330
	- Provincial	71	69	69	69
	- Amphur	267	261	261	261
2) Mobile library	Total	4	4	4	4
	- Car	1	1	1	1
	- Boat	3	3	3	3
3) Village Newspaper Reading Centers		887	1,296	2,123	3,000
4) Village Reading Centers (In security sensitive areas)		60	24	24	24
5) Public Education Units		71	71	71	71

TABLE 27

**PUBLIC LIBRARIES
1957 - 1976**

Year	Number of Libraries	Librarians	Number	
			Books	Readers
1957	286	131	206,551	1,794,105
1958	282	131	231,047	2,379,489
1959	288	131	256,866	2,629,631
1960	307	131	510,601	2,946,000
1961	308	131	530,040	2,543,010
1962	308	131	550,983	2,591,000
1963	310	131	590,540	2,705,800
1964	320	134	329,968	1,124,150
1965	320	136	350,355	1,776,237
1966	327	154	359,997	2,631,053
1967	334	166	360,611	2,252,459
1968	335	177	524,115	2,053,899
1969	335	168	458,134	2,779,371
1970	335	193	441,065	2,819,716
1971	336	214	459,002	2,890,538
1972	341	215	451,752	3,146,289
1973	332	232	589,082	3,478,249
1974	330	238	627,083	3,709,344
1975	330	243	629,015	3,925,412
1976	330	322	630,124	4,026,148

TABLE 28

**ADULT EDUCATION BUDGET COMPARED WITH MOE BUDGET
AND TOTAL EDUCATION BUDGET**

1971 - 1976

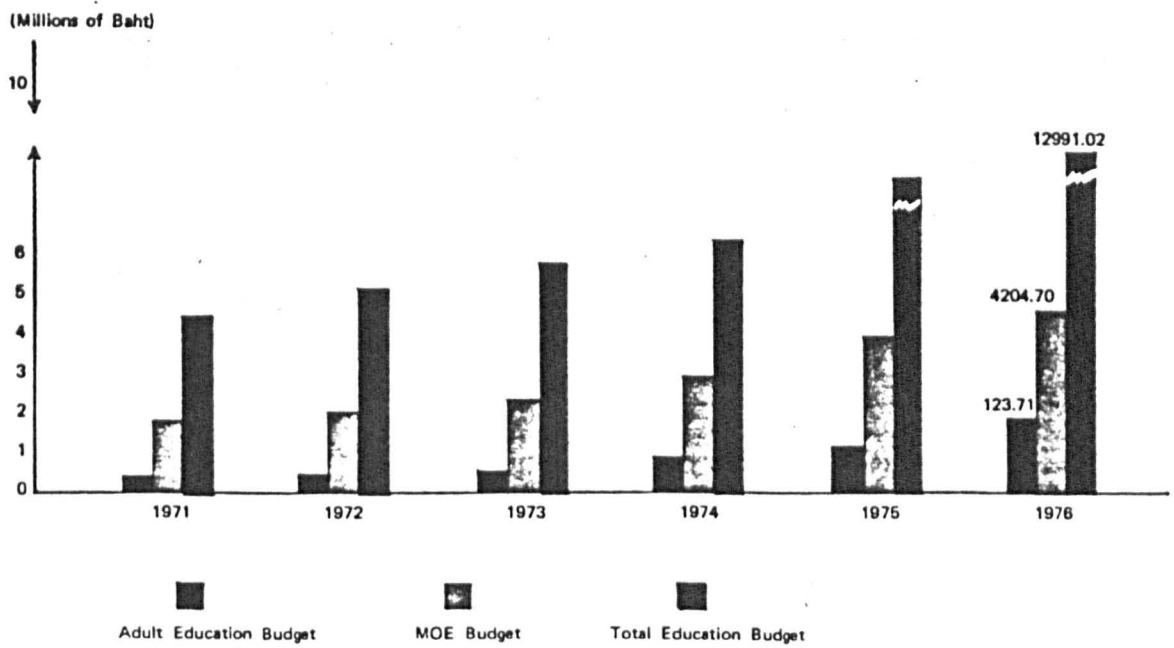


TABLE 29

Marital Status of the Population 13 years of Age and Over, by Age Group and Sex, for the Whole Kingdom

Age Group and Sex	Total	Marital Status							Priests	Unknown
		Single	Ever Married							
			Total	Married	Widowed	Divorced	Separated	Unknown		
Whole Kingdom										
Male										
Total	10,148,217	3,834,220	6,062,776	5,738,048	218,489	33,104	71,858	1,277	210,471	40,750
13-14	876,010	837,586	-	-	-	-	-	-	34,715	3,709
15-19	1,832,177	1,706,380	67,776	65,534	374	795	950	123	53,900	4,121
20-24	1,321,641	810,143	460,170	449,560	1,841	3,300	5,304	165	47,421	3,907
25-29	1,098,083	259,941	822,105	805,137	3,877	4,478	8,515	98	12,983	3,054
30-34	1,047,323	102,737	934,985	914,413	6,521	4,573	9,372	106	7,801	1,800
35-39	952,959	48,983	895,531	872,740	9,385	4,621	8,699	86	6,361	2,084
40-44	774,328	23,990	743,480	719,034	12,995	3,819	7,560	72	5,700	1,158
45-49	599,118	13,727	578,914	552,942	16,520	3,012	6,377	63	5,372	1,105
50-54	472,185	8,993	456,667	427,502	20,751	2,395	5,961	58	5,771	754
55-59	388,328	6,523	374,644	342,777	24,439	1,964	5,396	68	6,670	491
60-64	300,801	5,045	287,784	251,786	29,577	1,600	4,734	87	7,096	876
65-69	212,957	3,225	202,603	167,806	29,693	1,128	3,383	93	6,596	533
70 & Over	250,656	4,434	234,558	165,848	62,115	1,326	5,016	253	9,667	1,997
Unknown	21,651	2,513	3,559	2,969	401	93	91	5	418	15,161
Female										
Total	10,472,659	3,284,751	7,156,909	5,904,090	925,445	118,047	189,121	20,206	-	30,999
13-14	853,752	840,084	10,459	7,815	402	1,351	286	605	-	3,029
15-19	1,885,371	1,523,814	357,636	329,313	4,551	10,150	11,510	2,112	-	3,921
20-24	1,361,717	515,805	843,592	787,145	11,075	18,373	24,931	2,068	-	2,320
25-29	1,143,377	178,208	963,640	904,810	16,170	16,936	24,278	1,446	-	1,529
30-34	1,077,088	87,025	989,625	924,060	25,461	14,927	24,180	997	-	438
35-39	957,607	50,202	906,593	830,222	38,628	14,080	22,851	812	-	812
40-44	766,332	29,712	736,266	647,599	56,334	11,529	19,951	853	-	354
45-49	597,454	18,138	578,865	478,323	74,349	9,130	16,199	864	-	451
50-54	489,794	12,385	477,010	354,861	100,076	6,940	14,098	1,035	-	399
55-59	401,731	8,997	392,412	260,006	114,529	5,143	11,432	1,302	-	322
60-64	324,223	6,948	316,566	174,041	128,507	3,854	8,394	1,770	-	709
65-69	238,901	4,923	233,463	105,665	118,004	2,282	5,619	1,893	-	515
70 & Over	353,486	6,671	345,075	97,061	235,800	2,742	5,228	4,244	-	1,740
Unknown	21,826	1,839	5,707	3,169	1,559	610	164	205	-	14,280

Source: 1970 Population and Housing Census, Whole Kingdom, National Statistical Office, Office of the Prime Minister

TABLE 30

Projections of the Population of Thailand, by age and sex, 1960-2000 (as of 1st July)
(in thousands)
(a) High Projection

Males	1960	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000
Total	13,387	18,199	21,247	24,758	28,785	33,395	38,594	44,336
0-4	2,371	3,211	3,709	4,230	4,819	5,475	6,156	6,803
5-9	2,058	2,666	3,116	3,613	4,135	4,725	5,380	6,060
10-14	1,773	2,244	2,625	3,071	3,565	4,085	4,672	5,326
15-19	1,302	1,992	2,214	2,593	3,037	3,529	4,047	4,634
20-24	1,017	1,719	1,965	2,187	2,564	3,008	3,499	4,017
25-29	946	1,258	1,693	1,938	2,161	2,538	2,981	3,470
30-34	818	976	1,233	1,663	1,907	2,130	2,506	2,948
35-39	714	899	954	1,208	1,632	1,875	2,099	2,474
40-44	549	768	871	926	1,176	1,593	1,835	2,059
45-49	457	649	728	828	884	1,126	1,530	1,768
50-54	416	487	614	692	790	847	1,083	1,479
55-59	337	397	452	572	647	743	801	1,028
60-64	251	348	363	417	530	600	689	743
65-69	173	264	305	323	370	471	533	612
70 +	205	321	405	497	568	650	783	915
Females								
Total	13,247	18,016	21,030	24,501	28,473	33,007	38,102	43,699
0-4	2,274	3,095	3,572	4,071	4,633	5,257	5,903	6,514
5-9	1,989	2,579	3,012	3,489	3,989	4,553	5,177	5,821
10-14	1,648	2,166	2,550	2,982	3,458	3,958	4,522	5,146
15-19	1,310	1,931	2,135	2,518	2,948	3,423	3,922	4,486
20-24	1,063	1,603	1,913	2,119	2,502	2,932	3,407	3,904
25-29	965	1,267	1,574	1,882	2,088	2,469	2,898	3,372
30-34	838	1,020	1,247	1,551	1,858	2,066	2,446	2,874
35-39	708	923	999	1,224	1,526	1,831	2,039	2,419
40-44	551	801	907	984	1,207	1,508	1,812	2,018
45-49	463	670	777	883	960	1,181	1,479	1,782
50-54	412	512	646	752	857	935	1,154	1,446
55-59	333	428	495	628	730	832	908	1,121
60-64	253	366	398	464	592	694	790	862
65-69	176	276	332	365	427	545	639	728
70 +	264	379	473	589	698	823	1,006	1,206

Source: Thailand Year Book 1975.

TABLE 31

Projection of the Population of Thailand by Age and Sex: 1960-2000

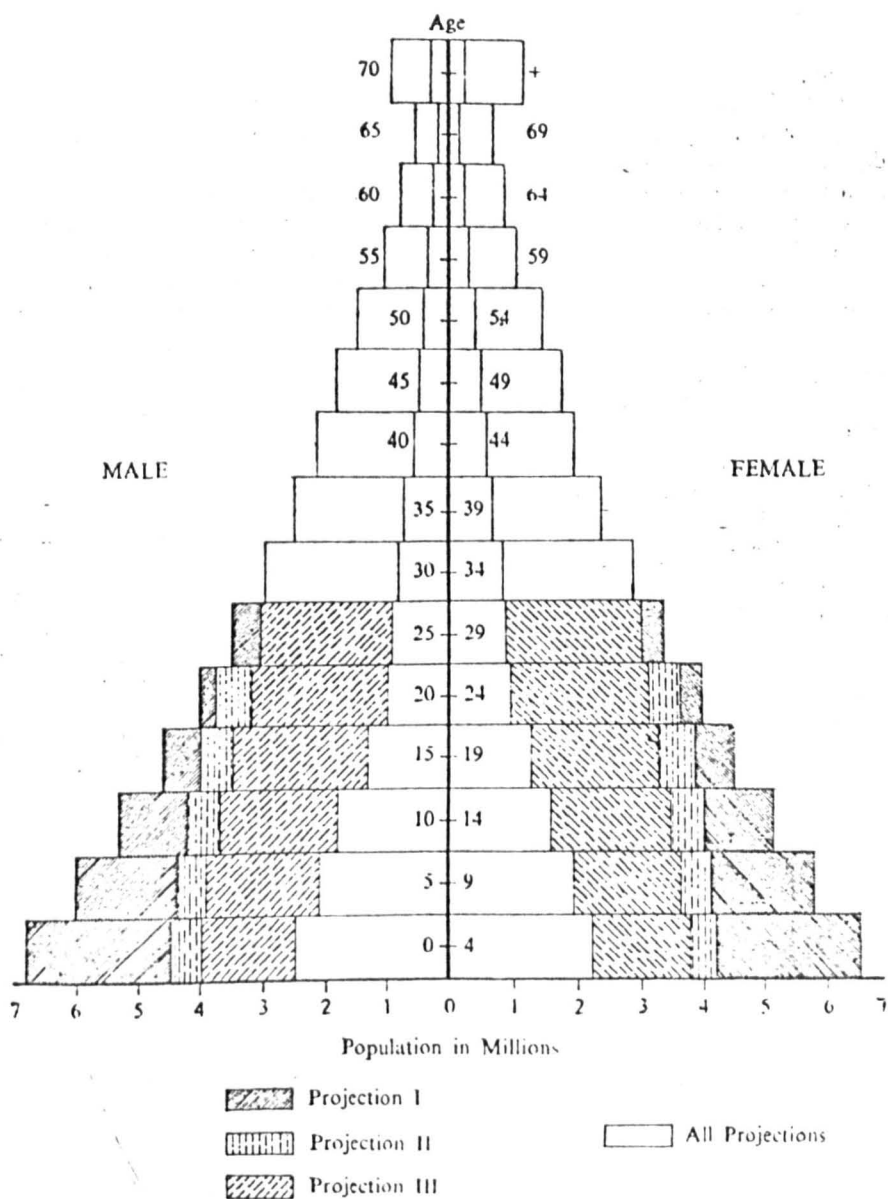


TABLE 32

Type of Economic Activity, and Reasons for not Working, of Population 11 Years of Age and Over, by Age Group and Sex: Municipal Areas.

Age Group and Sex	Economically Active						Non-Economically Active					
	Total	Total	Employed	Looking For Work			Total	Home-makers	Student	Unable To Work	Other	Unknown
				Ex-perienced Worker	New Worker	Waiting For Farm Season						
Municipal Areas												
Male												
Total	1,597,675	1,036,094	975,301	2,878	43,257	14,658	543,497	48,157	359,597	9,715	126,028	18,084
11-13	183,436	14,747	9,702	31	3,957	1,057	166,118	9,255	151,523	661	4,677	2,571
14	59,732	11,769	8,781	35	2,468	485	47,448	3,361	41,386	241	2,460	515
15-19	282,273	120,854	101,164	446	16,921	2,323	158,330	10,552	131,102	1,223	15,453	3,089
20-24	216,655	163,615	150,749	537	10,845	1,484	50,448	4,505	31,679	867	13,397	2,592
25-29	171,532	152,791	147,334	464	3,876	1,117	17,057	2,218	3,542	668	10,629	1,584
30-34	158,304	145,241	142,097	359	1,731	1,054	11,875	2,146	-	699	9,030	1,188
35-39	132,730	122,533	120,028	272	1,078	1,155	9,122	2,223	-	686	6,213	1,075
40-44	104,966	97,116	95,031	249	795	1,041	6,948	2,223	-	677	4,048	902
45-49	77,069	70,543	68,646	173	653	1,071	5,452	2,158	-	747	2,547	1,074
50-54	64,427	56,388	54,704	138	398	1,148	7,486	2,528	-	905	4,053	553
55-59	50,453	40,397	38,843	95	330	1,129	9,581	2,585	-	910	6,086	475
60-64	37,410	21,844	20,862	49	100	833	15,201	1,996	-	543	12,662	365
65 Over	55,778	17,458	16,578	30	89	761	37,879	2,357	-	883	34,639	441
Unknown	2,910	798	782	-	16	-	552	50	363	5	134	1,360
Female												
Total	1,660,736	673,535	629,321	1,001	25,492	17,721	963,423	546,422	301,843	7,163	107,995	23,778
11-13	180,601	19,227	15,258	20	2,704	1,245	158,581	24,368	131,509	529	2,175	2,793
14	60,518	13,617	11,633	26	1,361	597	46,251	10,724	34,700	196	631	650
15-19	297,001	113,501	100,561	242	9,803	2,895	179,521	66,106	108,233	859	4,323	3,979
20-24	228,454	117,190	107,472	206	7,318	2,194	107,790	79,702	25,124	581	2,383	3,474
25-29	177,499	94,426	90,261	187	2,168	1,810	80,598	76,989	2,124	415	1,070	2,475
30-34	159,962	83,608	80,961	104	883	1,660	74,511	73,032	-	402	1,077	1,843
35-39	132,646	70,924	68,720	77	501	1,626	60,228	58,897	-	477	854	1,494
40-44	102,707	55,305	53,555	57	284	1,409	45,969	44,736	-	525	708	1,433
45-49	77,140	39,155	37,546	27	202	1,380	36,088	34,935	-	548	605	1,897
50-54	66,230	28,635	27,393	25	97	1,120	36,947	30,468	-	669	5,810	648
55-59	53,734	18,860	17,877	17	95	871	34,412	23,541	-	659	10,212	462
60-64	42,180	10,218	9,642	9	31	536	31,599	11,988	-	441	19,170	363
65 Over	79,328	8,189	7,769	4	38	378	70,489	10,699	-	859	58,931	650
Unknown	2,736	680	673	-	7	-	439	237	153	3	46	1,617

Source: 1970 Population and Housing Census, National Statistical Office, Office of the Prime Minister.

All persons 11 years of age and over who were employed on the census date, or who had worked on any day during the 7 days preceding the census date (March 25-31, 1970) as well as experienced workers who were looking for work and those waiting for the farm season were counted as the economically active population.

Table 33: Economically Active Population 11 Years of Age and over by Major Industry Group, Work Status and Sex

Major Industry Group and Sex	Work Status						
	Total	Employer	Own Account Worker	Employee		Unpaid Family Worker	Unknown
				Government	Private		
Female							
Total	7,867,463	10,451	941,048	1,551,50	671,986	6,031,589	57,239
Agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing	6,565,855	3,298	594,535	1,298	220,986	5,720,310	25,428
Mining and quarrying	23,144	26	1,767	95	15,580	4,597	1,079
Manufacturing	291,210	1,708	72,576	8,429	153,744	53,515	1,238
Food, beverages and tobacco	53,236	270	7,461	3,109	27,820	14,081	495
Textile wearing apparel, made-up textile goods and leather industries	147,984	869	49,703	3,391	75,566	18,256	199
Wood and wood products, including furniture	29,720	59	9,477	365	9,114	10,611	94
Paper and paper products, printing and allied industries	9,570	108	1,423	841	6,241	875	82
Rubber and rubber products, chemicals, petroleum and plastic products	11,854	45	311	136	10,807	446	109
Non-metallic mineral products, except petroleum and coal	17,420	65	1,835	411	10,056	4,967	86
Metal and metal products, machinery and equipment	13,125	244	851	112	9,911	1,887	120
Other	8,301	48	1,515	64	4,229	2,392	53
Construction, repair and demolition	25,910	129	1,258	1,118	22,330	915	160
Electricity, water and sanitary services	3,212	5	24	2,842	312	14	15
Commerce	472,587	2,410	216,521	2,639	47,097	197,516	6,404
Wholesale trade	4,586	80	882	56	1,132	2,276	160
Wholesale and retail trade	552	3	10	83	225	223	8
Retail trade	459,716	2,299	215,407	283	40,558	195,012	6,157
Banks and other financial institutions, insurance and real estate	7,733	28	222	2,217	5,182	5	79
Transport, storage and communication	15,951	117	2,281	4,909	6,683	1,739	822
Services	430,355	2,548	49,205	129,690	187,810	50,416	10,686
Other groups	39,239	210	2,881	4,130	17,444	3,167	11,407

Source: Population and Housing Census 1970, National Statistical Office, Office of the Prime Minister

TABLE 34 Economically Active Population 11 Years of Age and over by Major Industry Group, Work Status and Sex

Major Industry Group and Sex	Work Status						
	Total	Employer	Own Account Worker	Employee		Unpaid Family Worker	Unknown
				Government	Private		
Male							
Total	8,784,804	50,307	3,994,157	622,834	1,147,900	2,903,394	66,212
Agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing	6,636,046	16,266	3,493,460	3,978	314,415	2,786,768	21,159
Mining and quarrying	63,503	383	5,880	1,043	50,786	3,140	2,171
Manufacturing	391,430	10,754	83,314	16,178	249,931	28,827	2,426
Food, beverages and tobacco	91,389	1,862	16,834	7,672	56,367	7,486	1,168
Textile, wearing apparel, made-up textile goods and leather industries	57,923	2,512	17,486	1,878	30,496	5,369	182
Wood and wood products, including furniture	60,532	772	17,015	1,493	36,649	4,354	249
Paper and paper products, printing, and allied industries	14,625	569	1,262	1,486	10,729	465	114
Rubber and rubber products, chemical petroleum and plastic products	15,176	239	736	497	13,078	384	242
Non-metallic mineral products, except petroleum and coal	26,228	411	4,467	1,504	17,187	2,502	157
Metal and metal products, machinery and equipment	110,030	3,855	21,212	1,504	76,578	6,657	224
Other	15,527	534	4,302	144	8,847	1,610	90
Construction, repair and demolition	155,567	3,202	20,584	5,276	114,093	2,838	574
Electricity, water and sanitary services	22,075	30	405	19,015	2,525	44	56
Commerce	403,211	11,870	218,583	5,676	101,041	62,910	3,131
Wholesale trade	10,852	587	4,342	67	4,103	1,519	234
Wholesale and retail trade	1,685	9	20	455	1,038	139	24
Retail trade	373,094	11,136	213,563	615	83,783	61,249	2,748
Banks and other financial institutions, insurance and real estate	17,580	138	658	4,539	12,117	3	125
Transport storage and communication	252,447	1,651	87,688	49,417	108,419	3,528	1,744
Services	753,852	4,879	67,295	497,364	158,411	13,702	12,201
Other groups	106,673	1,272	7,948	24,887	48,279	1,637	22,650

Source: Population and Housing Census 1970,
National Statistical Office, Office of the Prime Minister

TABLE 35: Comparison of Labour Force Participation of Thai Women and other countries

Country (Year)	Labor Force Participation Rates		Labor Force in Agriculture	Female Labor Force	
	Male	Female		Agricultural	Nonagricultural
Thailand (1960)	89.5	81.4	81.1	47.8	36.5
Ghana (1960)	89.1	56.6	57.9	38.2	40.7
India (1961)	90.2	42.9	69.2	30.8	20.4
Malaya (1957)	87.3	29.9	57.0	24.0	13.7
Philippines (1960)	83.6	27.6	60.1	25.2	41.5

Data are derived from United Nations, Demographic Yearbook, 1964, New York, Tables 8 and 9.

Mean Number of Children Ever Born (Standardised for Age) by Selected Variables

Selected Variables	Rural Agricultural	Rural Non-Agric.	Urban Agricultural	Provincial Urban Non-Agric.	Bangkok	Total Kingdom
Religion						
Buddhist	4.52	4.02	4.01	3.81	3.32	4.37
Confucian	4.71	4.27	4.05	3.88	3.52	3.84
Moslem	3.41	3.61	3.61	2.80	3.90	3.39
Lifetime Migration Status						
Migrant	4.71	4.04	3.67	3.73	3.34	4.21
Non-migrant	4.43	4.00	4.11	3.81	3.44	4.34
Migration Status 5 years Prior to Census						
Migrant	4.24	3.74	3.06	3.59	2.98	3.88
Non-migrant	4.47	4.03	4.03	4.45	3.42	4.33
Labour Force Status						
In the labour force	4.52	3.96	4.04	3.78	3.26	4.41
Housewife	4.35	4.18	4.12	3.85	3.68	4.02
Occupation of Woman						
Farmers and miners	4.53	4.06	4.13	3.98	2.66	4.50
Craftworkers	3.60	3.92	2.23	3.07	2.83	3.63
Professional and administrative	3.94	3.42	2.18	3.08	2.42	3.51
Service and transport	3.74	4.11	3.28	3.82	2.88	3.51
Sales workers	3.78	3.92	4.13	3.99	3.72	3.89
Marital Status						
Married, spouse present	4.68	4.19	4.31	4.08	3.68	4.56
Married, spouse absent	3.54	3.38	3.16	3.04	3.22	3.34
Widowed	3.79	3.63	3.45	3.13	2.97	3.70
Divorced and separated	2.74	2.96	2.76	2.79	2.27	2.74

Source: S. Goldstein, "Religious Fertility Differentials in Thailand," *Population Studies*, November 1970; S. Goldstein, *Interrelations between Migration and Fertility in Population Redistribution in Thailand*, Institute of Population Studies, Research Report No. 5, 1971; S. Goldstein, A. Goldstein and Penporn Tiraswat, *The Influence of Labour Force Participation and Education on Fertility in Thailand*, Institute of Population Studies, Research Report No. 9, 1972; S. Goldstein, A. Goldstein and Sauvaluck Piampiti, "The Effect of Broken Marriage on Fertility Levels in Thailand," *Journal of Social Sciences* 10 (1973): 47-87.

TABLE 37

Assumptions about Adult Education and Learning:

The international experts also defined a set of assumptions about adult education and learning relevant to the Thai programmes. Their idea is very useful for the teachers of adult classes as following:

Basic Assumptions

Adult Self-Confidence: 'Special teacher assistance is often required to foster the self-confidence of uneducated adult students so that they can learn.'

Adults in general become the victims of a self-perpetuating prophesy: they have doubts from earlier experiences that they will not be able to learn a particular subject in a particular skill area, or to learn in general. The doubts set up an initial negative state of mind so that every problem and every error becomes interpreted as reinforcement of the conviction that one has poor aptitude or limited ability to learn.

Adults who have had earlier failures as children in school and who remain illiterate or semi-literate can become paralyzed in a new educational situation. Even when there have been no earlier disappointments, there is a universal fear of appearing ignorant or uninformed, and of being judged on inadequacies in relatively unfamiliar areas of knowledge. Thus, the teacher of adults must be particularly sensitive to a problem which perhaps constitutes the most critical barrier to an adult's continuing education. This suggests a significant difference in the structuring of the educational experience, planned patterns of instructional interaction, counseling, scheduling and diagnostic assessment of learning skills.

Student Participation Goals: 'Adult students should participate in

setting their own learning goals, and in planning, carrying out, and evaluating their own educational experience.'

'The organisation of course content should be centered around the student's own educational goals.'

One common conviction is that the adult students as well as the educators should determine which problems they will be expected to spend their time on; if the problems are their own, motivation will be greater to learn. To teach adults to become self-directed learners, they must increasingly become able to independently plan, carry out and assess their own progress in achieving their educational goals. The paternalistic teacher-learner relationship of childhood becomes transformed and dignified into a joint effort between resource person and problem solver.

Special Facilities: 'Special facilities and physical conditions are required for the education of adults.'

Physiological changes caused by the ageing process suggest a need for special provisions in lighting, seating, and freedom from distraction. Instead, adults are often forced to use children's classrooms in which to hold classes. The result can be uncomfortable because the furniture was not designed for them, demeaning because they are placed in the position of children and non-functional because adult education emphasizes discussion methods which require a flexible arrangement of chairs and tables, rather than the seating and chalkboards commonly found in traditional classrooms.

Shared Learning Process: 'Students have experience which can contribute to the learning of others in the classroom'.

'The classroom atmosphere should be friendly, informal and supportive of erroneous or inadequate efforts by learners'.

'The teacher should perceive himself as a learner in relationship to students.'

The adult's broad range of experience and familiarity with the problems of others argues for a planned learning situation which provides maximum opportunity for a series of provisional efforts, with supportive and constructive feedback to help participants learn new behaviours. The notion that adult education is enhanced by group discussion supports this. As the adult tries out new ideas or skills and attempts to fit them into her own experience, errors and inadequate responses are inevitable. She must be comfortable about making mistakes, about taking indefensible positions and abandoning them. She becomes a learner-educator herself to the degree that she both uses her colleagues as resource persons to help herself learn, and, in turn, helps them by sharing her experience, providing supportive feedback, and joining in problem-solving efforts.

Special Methods: 'Special methods are required in the education of adults.'

'The teacher must assist students to see problems in relationship to themselves.'

The teacher should make special provision to accommodate slower and faster learners among students.

Creation of a situation in which participation and practice with feedback is encouraged suggests that special methods are necessary. Methods are appropriate in terms of specific learning tasks. However,

discussion methods are universally considered important and those methods which facilitate participation and problem-solving such as simulated learning situations like role playing, are particularly applicable.

Student Problem Awareness, Solving: 'The teacher should assist the learner to develop a new view of himself and his situation.'

'The programme should assist the learner to become aware of himself as a force for change.'

'The teacher should attempt to assist the adult in developing problem-solving skills.'

All education programmes plan for intended learner outcomes. One important aspect of the Thai fl and flp programme is to increase the adult's awareness of herself as a force for change. This implies a conscious attempt to change the adult's perception of herself in relationship to her problems and to her level of perceptual awareness of the forces which facilitate or impede her development. The teacher tries to help the student realize that she can exercise control over these forces, and involves her in the process of rational decision making and problem-solving in order to exercise control.

Programme Factors: 'The programme should provide opportunities for continued learning after the course is over.'

Learner advancement should not end with the course. The adult should gain certain problem-solving skills, and a feeling of confidence in the learning process which will stimulate her to want to continue her education. The programme must therefore consider the provision of specialized facilities and opportunities as follow-up so that the

adult students can retain and build upon acquired knowledge, attitudes and skills. This might be done through the village newspaper reading centres, continuing and specialized education courses, vocational training etc.

TABLE 38

Criteria to Observe Student's Behaviour

The international workshop at Chiangmai suggests the criteria of students' behaviour which would be outline to evaluate literacy and numeracy skills of adult students as follows:

I. Literacy (Cognitive Domain)

1. Reading

1.1 Recognizing and identifying letters, words, groups of words and complete sentences (which appear in the curriculum or are outside the curriculum but related to daily life.)*

Some specific behaviours:

- a. Recognizing letters and groups of letters in different combinations.
- b. Reading aloud words and groups of words (not complete sentences) - indicators, for example, might include labels, addresses, signs, etc.
- c. Reading aloud short sentences, ranging from simple to more complex.
- d. Reading aloud short passages from newspapers, posters, petitions, instructions, etc.

1.2 Understanding what is read

Some specific behaviours:

- a. Giving meaning of words and groups of words.
- b. Explaining meaning of sentences, ranging from simple to complex.
- c. Explaining and summarizing meaning of written passages taken from newspapers, magazines, instructions.
- d. Describing the main idea of a passage.
- e. Matching what has been read with a situation, for example, interpreting a picture related to the reading exercise.

* Behaviour is concerned with decoding written words and sentences into oral language; understanding meaning is not included at this stage.

2. Writing

Expressing oneself in writing

Some specific behaviours:

- a. writing characters of the alphabet - vowels, consonants and tone marks.
- b. writing words and groups of words which are dictated - for example, captions, addresses, etc.*
- c. writing sentences, ranging from simple to more complex, which are dictated.
- d. writing passages that present meaning - for example, news reports, letters, interpretations of situations.

II. Numeracy (Cognitive Domain)

1. Mathematics

1.1 Counting with whole numbers (0 to at least 1,000)

Some specific behaviours: counting by ones, fives etc.

1.2 Reading and writing whole numbers (0 to at least 1,000) in Arabic and Thai numbers.

Some specific behaviours:

- a. Reading correctly numbers presented in figures.
- b. Writing correct figures for numbers dictated.
- c. Matching correctly numbers dictated or given in writing with figures.

1.3 Computing with whole numbers (0 to at least 1,000)

Some specific behaviours:

- a. Adding and subtracting of one to four digit numbers in different combinations.
- b. Multiplying and dividing one and two digit numbers in different combinations taking into consideration the following:

* The importance attached to correct spelling and grammar must be decided by the programme's administrators. If incorrect, spelling and grammar are unlikely to effect meaning; it is the group's view that spelling and grammar should be treated rather lightly.

- Difficulty of digit ending
- Need for carryover while computing and
- Size of resulting product
- Multiplying by memory 0 to 12 and giving answer orally.

1.4 Knowing and understanding of concepts related to percentages and fractions

Some specific behaviours: comparing two to five fractions and percentages (quarters, halves, thirds) and indicating relative size.

1.5 Knowing and understanding of basic measures - such as height, weight, length, time, area and volume.

Some specific behaviours

- a. Reading instruments of measure, such as rulers, gauges, scales, area measures.
- b. Comparing two to five indicators on a particular measure to show relative size.
- c. Converting one form of measure to another form of measure - for example, converting tungs (a rice measurement) into kilogrammes.

1.6 Solving mathematical problems related to daily life

Some specific behaviours

- a. Identifying one or more operations required to solve the given problem.
- b. Using operation correctly.
- c. Describing the meaning of the results.

III. Literacy and Numeracy (Affective Domain)

1. Literacy and Numeracy

1.1 Attendance to receive information and material related to literacy.

Some specific behaviours:

- a. Willingness to take part in classes concerning literacy.
- b. Willingness to receive and seek out materials related to literacy (both inside and outside the classroom).
- c. Willingness to receive further instruction in literacy if and when provided.

1.2 Responding to activities related to literacy

Some specific behaviours:

- a. Attending classes related to literacy.
- b. Actively taking part in classes related to literacy and carrying out literacy activities when requested in the classroom.
- c. Completing assignments given by the teacher related to literacy.

1.3 Valuing the importance of literacy

Some specific behaviours:

- a. Defending the importance of literacy when there is such a demand.
- b. Voluntarily seeking or taking extra steps to obtain literacy materials (such as books, newspapers).
- c. Demonstrating continuous interest in using literacy skills (such as utilizing newspaper reading centres, checking out books from the library etc.).
- d. Continuing to learn and/or practice new literacy skills.
- e. Seeking out further ways to obtain literacy materials either personally or with the community (like arranging for a mobile library to visit the village).
- f. Disseminating literacy information to others.
- g. Persuading others to attend literacy classes.
- h. Believing in the value and importance of literacy skills in solving certain problems related to daily life.

Source: Workshop Report, International workshop for Education Specialists on Non-formal Education for Family Life Planning, Chiangmai, Thailand, 1974, World Education Publisher, New York, pp.38-41.

TABLE 39

NATIONAL POLICIES, PRIORITIES AND PROBLEMS
OF AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT
(A General Framework)

National Policies	Development Priorities (Khon Kaen area)	Problems		
		Technical	Economic	Socio-cultural
1. Agricultural Development as a National first priority	1. To raise productivity of rice cultivation through high yielding varieties, fertilizers, pesticides and modern techniques.	Low ratio of extension workers to farmers	Marketing (channels and facilities)	Illiteracy and low education levels.
2. Diversification of farming	2. To improve production of Kenaf through better varieties.	Lack of professionally trained extension workers.	Lack of credit facilities	Lack of motivation towards positive change.
3. Extension of multiple cropping	3. To improve the techniques of vegetable growing	Lack of skills related to production factors.	Price fluctuation of agricultural commodities	
4. Agricultural development planning at local level	4. To improve sericulture	Lack of management skills	Lack of transportation facilities.	
5. Organization of Farmers Association	5. To organize groups of cattle raisers	Lack of knowledge in water utilization	Farmers indebtedness	
6. Training of farmers and rural youth in agriculture	6. To set up agricultural co-operatives			

TABLE 40

Steps of Teaching Introduced and Practised
by the International Workshop at Khon Kaen Province

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

Target Group: The Literacy Class

Learning Experience

The learning experiences are the learner's activities designed to find the solutions for each problem. The problems form a basis for the learning experiences.

A. Manure and Fertilizers

1. Problems. The soil at Ban Lerng is poor in quality, resulting in low crop yields. Farmers do not possess adequate knowledge in the use of fertilizers. Some of them follow traditional practices, that is, they do not use fertilizers on their farm. In order to increase crop yields, these farmers should learn how to observe the quality of the soil of their farm and how to apply proper fertilizers according to need.

2. Specific objectives

- (1) To gain information on the use of fertilizers to improve the quality of soil.
- (2) To learn to read materials related to fertilizers.
- (3) To solve arithmetical problems related to the use of fertilizers.

3. Mode of Learning

- (1) Group discussion
- (2) Observation and group discussion
- (3) Reading
- (4) Problem solving.

4. Implementation

- (1) Learners divide themselves into three groups, each group studies two sample of soil. The group will be asked to state the characteristics and relative quality of each sample. Then group representatives report to the whole class. The whole class makes additional comments or observations. Finally the teacher makes additional points.
- (2) Learners see a display of fertilizers and their uses. A group representative reports to the class, followed by a presentation of cards and pamphlets having relevant information as a reading session.
- (3) Students divide themselves into three groups provided with three samples of soil and two specific crops (rice and kenaf) to discuss the kind of fertilizer needed and the amount to be utilized. Then groups compute the cost. Each group will report their findings to the class. A general discussion based on a comparison of the findings follows.
- (4) A general discussion on advantages and disadvantages of proper use of fertilizers on a large scale.

5. Materials

- (1) Three samples of soil.
- (2) Fertilizers and relevant charts depicting the use of these fertilizers.
- (3) Flash cards and pamphlets for the reading and writing session.

B. Pest Control:

1. Problems. Some insects are harmful to crops. These insects as well as their caterpillar destroy the stems of crops. Some insects carry plant diseases. These pests can be controlled by the use of appropriate pesticides.

2. Specific Objectives

- (1) To gain knowledge about the kinds of and the life cycle of crop pests.
- (2) To gain knowledge about the use of pesticides.
- (3) To learn to read charts related to crop pests and the use of pesticides.
- (4) To learn how to multiply by ten.

3. Modes of Learning

- (1) Picture observation
- (2) Role playing
- (3) Large group discussion
- (4) Demonstration (Method Demonstration)
- (5) Reading
- (6) Calculation

4. Implementation

- (1) Learners see a picture illustrating larvae destroying crops.
- (2) Role playing. Four learners are chosen to play the roles of headman and three villagers. These people are discussing the outspread of Non Ko (a kind of insect) in the village. A teacher (played by another student) walks by and stops to talk with them. He volunteers to contact an agriculturalist and ask for his help. The next day three specialists are introduced to the villagers. They advise the villagers what to do. They answer questions asked by the villagers. The villagers then select a co-ordinating committee for pest control in the village.
- (3) Discussion of information gained from role-playing. The teacher provides additional information with respect to:
 - (a) Crop pests
 - (b) Types and life cycle of Non Ko
 - (c) Pest control (including a demonstration on spraying).
- (4) Reading, with the use of experience charts.
- (5) Calculation pertaining to the use of pesticides.

5. Materials

- (1) Chart illustrating crop destruction by pests.
- (2) Experience charts for reading.
- (3) Chart illustrating life cycle of Non Ko
- (4) Chart illustrating method of pest control
- (5) Samples of common pesticides
- (6) Spraying equipment

C. Growing Rice in Dry Season:

Specific Objectives

- (1) To create an urge in the farmers for growing a second crop of rice in dry season with the help of canal water.
- (2) To acquaint them with the improved techniques of growing rice, marketing, and farmer's organizations.
- (3) To enable the farmers to read and write material related to the problem of growing rice in dry season.
- (4) To enable the farmers to understand their environments better in order to enable them to utilize the facilities and services available.
- (5) To help them develop the attitude that growing rice in dry season will lead to better living and finally to the development of the community.

Content Topic: Growing rice in dry season

1. Information relating to their vocation (age) i.e. about Growing Rice in dry season.

1.1 Introductory topic More rice more income, and this objective can be achieved through Growing Rice in dry season.

1.2 Topic related to Growing Rice in dry season

- (1) Use of canal water for growing rice in dry season
- (ii) High yielding variety of seed more suitable for dry season farming.
- (iii) Soil fertility and fertilizers
- (iv) Pests and disease control
- (v) Rice processing and marketing
- (vi) Farmer's Organizations
- (vii) Credit

Note Since the problem involved many topics, the group decided to choose four learning units for four days

22nd of October 1973 Introduction - more rice more money and this objective can be achieved by growing rice in dry season.

23rd of October 1973 Water Arrangement

24th of October 1973 Seeds

25th of October 1973 Fertilizers

Basic Literacy Skills

- (1) Commonly used word related to the problem were selected and a vocabulary list prepared which would be included in the reading text.
- (2) Reading material consisting of about six pages was prepared related to growing of rice in dry season.
- (3) Simple writing and calculating exercises were also prepared based on the reading material.

Social Science Following topic was included about social education of the farmers in the Introductory step:

- (1) Increase in rice production and its influence on the socio-economic condition of the individual families and on the community development as a whole.

Method of Teaching

1. Problem solving approach will be used for imparting basic literacy skills as well as for giving specific knowledge of agriculture related to the problems. Following techniques will be utilized while teaching:
 - a. Group discussion
 - b. Demonstration technique
 - c. Resource persons
 - d. Individual contact with the adults (farmers)

It was decided by the group to give a pre-test to the students before starting the experimentation to know the information they have about growing rice and their attitudes towards farming. A test consisting of 26 items was constructed for this purpose.

Instructional Aids

- a. Pictures prepared for stimulating thinking and for helping the farmers understand. The pictures were designed to enable them to observe the difference between two stimulus objects for developing scientific thinking.

- b. Actual objects like seeds, stems, etc., will be displayed to the class.
- c. Demonstrations by resource persons.
- d. Reading material and writing and calculation exercises based on it.
- e. Teacher's Manual on the learning unit in hand.

Evaluation of the Experiment

A post-test consisting of 25 objective items was prepared to test the achievement of the farmers after being taught for four days, and also to observe the change in their attitude if any. The test included following items

- (1) Water 10 items
- (2) Seeds 3 items
- (3) Fertilizers 6 items
- (4) Attitude 6 items

It was proposed to compare the results of post-test with the pre-test in order to see the achievement and also for evaluating of the curriculum which includes objectives, content, teaching methods, etc.