# OUT-OF-SCHOOL EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF YOUNG PEOPLE

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## I. PLANNING EDUCATION IN A WIDER CONTEXT

1. During the past two decades in developing nations throughout the Commonwealth, much emphasis has been placed on expanding and improving formal education systems. In many countries primary education facilities have been widely extended into rural areas where no schools existed before. More secondary schools and technical institutions have been established. New universities have been created. This achievement has been an exciting one in giving the opportunity for modern education to many more children and young people and in creating the high-level manpower needed to plan and to put into operation hopes for quickened social and economic development.

2. Yet the expansion of formal education has in itself contributed to the growth of new social tensions: particularly that of widespread unemployment amongst school leavers. In many countries it is the rising number of jobless primary school leavers who present the most urgent problem, but in some cases secondary school leavers and university graduates have increasing difficulty in finding work that matches their educational qualification and their aspirations.

3. With such emphasis on formal education, an area relatively neglected has been out-of-school education and training or, as it is often called, non-formal education - that is the array of learning activities going on outside schools and universities. These include programmes of literacy for youth and adults who have had little or no formal schooling; apprenticing and on-the-job training; in-service training and continuing education for those with professional qualifications; extension programmes for agriculture and small-scale industries; and a

wide range of educative services designed to encourage community development.

4. While attention has been given to specific types (by governments, voluntary agencies, and U.N. Specialized Agencies), little attempt has been made to look at out-of-school education as a whole - to discern its dynamics in meeting needs of changing societies, to see its complementary links with formal education at all levels, and thus to bring it within a comprehensive strategy of educational planning.

5. To some extent, new perspectives on formal education have revealed the importance of out-of-school learning processes. For example, efficient performance in specific occupations requires differing proportions of formal education, specialized training, and experience. The contributions to this long-term educational process by schools and universities, on the one hand, and by programmes of out-of-school education, on the other, need to be more closely examined. New priorities may well emerge.

6. Again, investment in out-of-school education is a substitute for, or an extension of, investment in conventional schooling. Thus, certain problems in the use of resources and of curriculum within formal education cannot be adequately dealt with unless there is more understanding of the objectives, the content, as well as the costs and returns, of these other types of education.

7. Consideration of out-of-school education is particularly vital for educational planning in the developing nations of the Commonwealth. Here, rising populations against backgrounds of low average economic productivity, poor general health, ineffective communications, often marked ethnic differences, present special problems. Out-of-school educational arrangements have often arisen in piecemeal fashion to meet these problems, such as to provide literacy courses for those who have had little or no classroom experience. Organizers of community development have set up educative services as a means of awakening groups of people to the possibilities of self-help. Since these developing nations have particularly scarce resources of finance and of teaching and administrative abilities, action is urgently required that can lead to improved balances among public and private investments in education of all kinds, geared to national objectives for development. At least the more important kinds of out-of-school education should then be brought within the

procedures of national educational planning.

## Types of out-of-school education and training

8. Meaningful typologies of different kinds of out-of-school education and training can be achieved. This should be our first task . They depend, however, on the purpose in mind and may be constructed by alternative criteria and procedures. Categories could be created, for example, according to the occupational groupings of those who receive the education (whether adminstrators, teachers, other professionals, workers, self-employed, etc.); by duration of the education process (short or long courses, continuous or sporadic); by material taught (general, civic , technical); or according to whether the learning substitutes for, or extends, courses in formal schools.

9. For present purposes, three categories are used:

A. Preparation for occupations;

B. On-the-job training;

C. Education for community improvement.

10. Programmes under these three categories are directed towards young people who have completed primary schooling, those who are "dropouts", and those who have never been to school at all. With rising populations the difficulty of finding finance for meeting capital and recurrent costs for more schools many developing nations are finding it difficult to reach the objectives of universal primary education. For example, in tropical Africa as a whole, more than 60 per cent of today's school-age children receive no formal education at all. They gain education, of course, in the traditional manner. While growing up they learn the values and responsible behaviour sanctioned by their communities and they get specialized vocational training through customary apprenticeship patterns. But this is not an education leading to emphatic social and economic change. The first question is: what types of modern out-of-school education can best supplement the traditional learning which these children receive in their homes and villages?

11. Where formal education has been established, new problems emerge: the impact of modern schooling within the setting of customary work and social life in villages, stepped-up migration of youth from rural areas to towns and cities, the aspirations of these job-seeking school leavers. The second

question is: what part can out-of-school educative activities take in providing skills to enable youth, who would otherwise be unemployed, to take up existing jobs or, much more important, otherwise to self-create new jobs?

12. In rural areas ( and in towns and cities,too) group activities - such as youth clubs, young farmers' clubs, apprentice guilds - promote leadership, awareness of civic responsibility, and may be slanted towards vocational improvement. How can these group activities be spread more widely?

13. In the last decade, to meet the problem of large numbers of unemployed and relatively untrained youth, programmes for national youth service have been started in countries of Africa, Asia, and Latin America, mainly for rural areas. These provide general, civic and technical education while allowing for organized contributions by youth to national development through community services, chiefly in rural areas. What are the costs and returns of these programmes compared with alternative ways of achieving the same results?

14. Finally, there are the educative services in rural areas devoted to the creation and improvement of community programmes for social and economic development. While these are directed mainly towards adults, young people participate at certain levels and of course benefit from the enhanced community life. These programmes may be run by the participants themselves; by local or central governments, voluntary organisations, or by combinations of these. They include training in planning and carrying out projects such as building market stalls, community meeting halls, access roads, maternity clinics. For women, there may be instruction in health, sanitation, nutrition and child care. This non-formal education for community development has evolved from the obvious fact that since no government can provide the amenities so sorely needed by local communities, economies in the spread of available resources can be achieved through programmes which step up local enthusiasm and organisation for self-help and which permit a closer, creative alliance between local communities and governments.

## OUT-OF-SCHOOL EDUCATION AND TRAINING FOR YOUNG PEOPLE

### A. PREPARATION FOR OCCUPATIONS

- courses for those with little or no formal schooling literacy and numeracy, civic and vocational education.

- courses which extend general or pre-vocational schooling (post-primary or post-secondary instruction in non-official secretarial schools and technical workshops; military technical training; pre-work training provided by commercial firms or voluntary organisations; correspondence courses).

### B. ON-THE-JOB TRAINING

- training for young women in poultry-raising, growing vegetables and other crops considered suitable for women, processing agricultural products.

- apprenticeship training in low - or intermediate - productivity enterprises (in crafts and small business located in towns and cities, such as carpentry, mechanics, tailoring, building trades, printing).

- apprenticeship training in high-productivity enterprises ( in agriculture, industry and services, run by governments or private concerns).

- courses for junior workers, usually short-term, which extend pre-vocational education and/or apprentice training.

### C. EDUCATION FOR COMMUNITY IMPROVEMENT

- group activities out of school (youth clubs, young farmers' clubs, apprentice guilds which - in addition to social objectives - promote leadership and awareness of civic responsibility and may also be aimed towards vocational improvement).

- national youth service programmes (providing general, civic, or technical education while allowing for organised, disciplined contributions by youth to national development through community services, chiefly in rural areas; for example, Ceylon, Agricultural Development Corps; Guyana, Youth Corps; India, National Cadet Corps; Kenya, National Youth Service; Malawi, Young Pioneers).

- educative services to encourage self-help for communities (provided by governments or voluntary organisations working through central village authorities or groups based on kinship, religious affiliation, or occupations; includes training in planning and execution of projects, such as market stalls, community halls, access roads, maternity homes and clinics).

Characteristics of out-of-school education and training

15. (1) The diverse types of non-formal education do not comprise a "system" but rather a set of "sub-systems" that complement the systems of formal education.

(2) For national educational planners, the boundary is a shifting one between what may now be considered as formal education and these many complementary types.

(3) Responsibility for the running of out-of-school educational programmes is diffuse, consisting of public control (by central or local governments, statutory corporations, military establishments), private control (by firms, voluntary associations), or combinations of these.

(4) Some non-formal educational institutions are closely disciplined with regular timings for instruction and with modern technology, equipment, and texts. Others are less well disciplined, irregular, and less modern in out-look and performance.

(5) The relative emphasis on theory and practice differs in the varied programmes of out-of-school education. So, too, the ages at which people are involved as learners, the length of courses, and whether classrooms are used. Almost all are based on voluntary attendance (an exception perhaps being military technical training).

(6) Documentation on enrolments, teachers' and leaders' credentials, successes of those involved in learning, and costs, is scarce.

(7) Teachers may be specifically trained for their tasks (as, for example, of functional literacy) or have only professional qualifications that do not include training as teachers (field officers of agricultural extension).

(8) Investment in particular types of out-of-school education may have more pronounced effects on economic productivity and social change in the short run (for example, courses in training while working) than is the case with formal schooling. Opportunities for such education, however, may fluctuate (for example, with private firms where on-the-job training may depend on the state of business activities).

(9) Most kinds of out-of-school education are directly functional to the needs of economic and social development.

## II. TRAINING OF YOUNG PEOPLE FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT

16. Development societies today are in a state of profound disequilibrium. The distribution of public goods (roads, water supplies, hospitals) markedly favours the urban ares. The few high productivity, high-wage establishments stand out incongruously against the background of the myriads of low-productivity, low-income family farms and small-scale economic units in trading, transport, and crafts. The returns to economic effort in urban areas are out of alignment with those for rural areas. Similarly, there is an extreme difference in income between those who have secondary or higher education and those who have only primary or no classroom education. Clearly, drastic price (including wage and salary) adjustments are being called for.

17. Economies are developing neither at the rates nor in the direction needed to provide suitable training and work for the millions of young people now coming to maturity. Even one per cent less in attainable economic growth - making possible more widespread, immediate economic opportunities for the yearly influx of young aspirants to the labour force - may prove a small price to pay for social stability, especially if this makes good long-term economic sense. Children born today are primary school pupils of the 1970s, young workers of the 1980s, adults of the 1990s. Thirty years, to the year 2000, is not too

long when planning human resource development. With these perspectives, planning for rural development must take place.

18. Getting underway a sustained movement for rural development depends on many inter-related improvements: in techniques of production and marketing, in credit provision, in transport, possibly in land tenure and consolidation of holdings, and, above all, in management and organisation of resources. Some of these changes may result directly from market forces: for example, from the rise in price of a particular product. Others may be encouraged by government policies, such as subsidized fertilizers or credit facilities. But it is rural people themselves - by grasping new incentives, by gaining new knowledge and putting it into practice - who make the greatest contribution in this drive towards rural improvement.

19. How do farm families learn new methods? They emulate neighbours who have adopted a new variety of seedling or a new procedure in marketing. At social meetings or in local markets, they find out who has good yields of high-quality yams or maize and what led to this result. They may travel to another area or to a neighbouring country where they see more advanced, more profitable, ways of doing certain operations. Through the aggresive salesmanship of a commercial firm, they may learn about the value of fertilizers or insecticides. They listen to radio talks in local languages put on by agricultural extension. They may observe government demonstration plots to take part in classes which explain the new techniques involved. Like practical people anywhere they don't usually bother about new ideas unless they can see some definite payoff: a higher money income, better living conditions, a more appetizing diet, or less back-breaking work to gain the same results.

20. Whether rural people take up new ideas quickly or slowly depends on the particular environments. Among Commonwealth nations there is a great variety in social and economic conditions. Even within one nation there may be many environments. Different natural resources mean contrasts in wealth and poverty; some areas have cash crops, plentiful land or mineral wealth; while others have only subsistence farming and perhaps a shortage of fertile land. Different groups of rural people vary in their traditions, their ways of living, their initiatives and their responses to incentives.

21. While most developing countries are trying to improve the performances of adult farmers and other rural producers through agricultural extension and community development projects, it is generally assumed that widespread rural transformation can be hastened by investing in the education and the training in specific skills of the generation of young people.

22. In recent years, emphasis has been placed on expanding primary education as a means of achieving literacy among youth and for promoting the flexibility necessary for social and economic development. At the same time, some specialised post-primary courses (still mainly experimental) have been set up to train young people in modern practices of farming, in skills required in rural crafts and small industries, and in mangement techniques for these farms and small firms.

23. It is true, of course, that primary schooling with perhaps some extra training in skills cannot be said to equip young people for full-scale control of resources in the rural areas, either as farmers or as small-scale entrepreneurs. They do not have the maturity. They will have to put in further years gaining experience under supervision on the family farm or as apprentices with rural master craftsmen. After that they have ahead of them thirty or forty years of productive working life. Thus, such basic education and training in skills for rural youth must be counted as a long-term investment, the results from which may be delayed for quite a long period.

24. In many areas, however, the experience of primary schooling has meant (at least in the short run) that youths reject rural life and migrate to cities in the hope of finding wage-paid jobs. This is understandable. Movement of peoples, including school leavers, to major towns and cities in search of better opportunities may indicate alertness and be a sign of progress. But the presence of rural school leavers who remain for long periods in urban areas without jobs is an alarming commentary on the difficulty of tackling rural development in a sufficiently realistic way.

25. This widespread unemployment among school leavers - at the same time as literate people are needed in pushing ahead with rural advancement - obviously doesn't make sense. What kinds of specialised training and what kinds of incentives then should be given to rural school leavers to encourage them to settle in home areas and to use their newly-won literacy and skills in improving agriculture and community life?

Upgrading skills for youth who have never been to school

26. Young people who are growing up are exposed to either one or both of two distinct learning processes: the first comprises the various traditional forms of learning; the second, the disciplines of modern classroom education. Traditional learning through a variety of means, passes on form one generation to another the values and skills of the older societies. Modern classroom education has existed for varying periods in different nations of the Commonwealth. Both learning processes play their part in transmitting cultural values and knowledge and in preparing youth for undertaking their life vocations.

27. At present in the developing nations of the Commonwealth, percentages of children gaining formal primary education vary widely. A number of countries have more than 80 per cent of school-age children in classrooms, some less than 20 per cent. Clearly, any appraisal of the specialized training needs of youth for rural development must take into account all youth - schooled and unschooled, young men and young women - and the varied processes of learning, both in the classroom and out.

28. The overwhelming proportion of youth in developing nations grow up in rural areas. They are the sons and daughters of farmers, fishermen, craftsmen, traders. The characteristic form of rural enterprise is the self-employed family unit: the farm, the craft or artisan workshop, the stall in the market, the small-scale unit processing farm products, the small transport business. Boys and girls who do not have the opportunity of attending primary schools usually become "economically active" by the time they are seven years old. In fact, for many children the transition from helping with duties inside the family and beginning to work pruposefully is imperceptible. They learn on the job by taking on more difficult tasks. They may follow the occupations of their parents or they may be apprenticed to relatives to diversify their training.

29. The variety and strength of these enterprises in particular villages and townships in the rural areas depends, of course, on cultural elements, but even more on the level of local money incomes. According to locality, young apprentices are found spending long hours in markets, in workshops, on building sites, in motor parks. They learn to make clay bricks and concrete blocks, to build houses and to repair cars and trucks.

They acquire the techniques of working with wood (carvers, carpenters), with metals (blacksmiths, tinsmiths, goldsmiths), with leather (shoe and sandal makers, tanners), with cloth (tailors, seamstresses), with raffia and cane (hat, chair and mat makers).

30. The distinction is sometimes made that these learning processes are static, passing on only traditional skills, while modern education and training alone provide the dynamic necessary to transform societies. Such a sharp contrast is misleading, particularly when it can be easily shown that new techniques and new skills are being infused through this apprenticeship system. What is clear, however, is that parents and masters cannot teach skills to their children or their apprentices which they do not themselves possess.

31. It follows, therefore, that any assistance to raise the technical performance of adults - for example, through agricultural extension or through technical assistance given by visitation or through short courses - will eventually help these young learners. This is an indirect means of helping youth: to raise the skills of fathers and masters is to help sons and apprentices. Add to this can be such direct means as short courses for young men in certain technical lines or particular aspects of farm work, or for young women in poultry-keeping or sewing.

32. Similarly, experiments in introducing "functional literacy" for adults with the objective of combining instruction in literacy and help in heightening productivity in a particular line of work can also have meaning for unschooled youth, either by taking them later as adults or by extending the programme to younger people.

School leavers and rural occupations

33. Vocational training for rural school leavers must necessarily differ from that for unschooled youth. Because of six to eight years in the classroom and of aspirations linked with acquiring literacy, school leavers have - in some measure - lost the continuity of rural life. They may not have learned the traditional skills which the unschooled youth in their age group have likely mastered through constant practice. In any case, school leavers want to apply themselves to something (however vague in their minds) more modern. Although they may be well aware that wage-paid jobs are scarce in the cities, they do not

see any models for building a life's work in their home areas. The problem of helping rural school leavers, then, is not only to provide vocational training but an associated plan in helping to get them established in rural occupations. Eventually, patterns will emerge which school leavers will recognise as the steps for successful careers.

34. Where vocational training has a known outcome with wage-paid jobs in modern rural establishments, there has been considerable success. On completing their courses, the trainees may become tractor drivers, mechanics, or technicians on large plantations or in modern processing industries for farm products. But where training is given without being tied to specific jobs with the intention that trainees find opportunities within traditional family farming and other rural small-scale enterprises, there has been only limited success.

35. Post-primary vocational training for rural occupations may be classified into two main types: (1) A course of instruction in farm or technical training for one or two years (with or without later help in settlement), (2) Training on the job either on farms or in workshops, supplemented by assistance from extension workers through regular visits or by short courses of a few months' duration on specific production processes.

36. An example of low-cost farm training takes place in the northern states of Nigéria where mature school leavers from farm families with available land attend farm institutes for one growing season. Their course includes one-third classroom instruction and two-thirds field work on the more modern processes for crops best suited to the particular area. After their training, the young farmers settle on their home land with supervision from local authorities and assistance with seeds, fertilizer, and in some cases credit for a bull and plough.

37. In Midwestern Nigeria groups of school leavers have settled on contiguous plots on unused land allocated near their villages. Here, agricultural extension has provided advice on improved seedlings and methods of planting, as well as making small monthly payments on the pioneer farms to assist the youth while they wait for their tree crops to come to production. These modest settlements show signs of success because they are not breaking the continuity of social life with the villages to which the youth belong and yet they offer a means for young school leavers to get sustained help from agricultural extension while they tackle common problems together in improved farming.

38. Beginnings have been made in many countries in providing training for rural youth both through vocational courses and through extension help for those trying to establish themselves. In some areas, voluntary agencies contribute such training side by side with government services. Because of shortage of funds and of qualified instructors, the choice of the type of training to be set up depends on whether the objective is to help "the few" intensively at relatively high cost or to help "the many" with less thoroughness but at lower cost for each individual.

39. In summary, rural small-scale industries (with training on the job for apprentices), producing goods and services for farms and households, must be given new impetus. More low-cost programmes for making improved farmers of rural school leavers need to be set going. There is a danger that the concentration of resources of finance and manpower in establishing expensive land settlement schemes divert planners, administrators and technicians from the far more urgent task of getting the masses of rural youth into useful local employment. Big settlements, which estrange youth from their cultural setting and create "centres of privilege" lead to many sociological problems. Better, therefore, to devote more drive towards projects that are high in self-help and low in public cost, that can be proliferated. Work along with and spread the "nuclear efforts" of many small projects. Self-help community projects also need strong encouragement with, in some instances, help in planning and provision of materials by local authorities.

## III. YOUTH ACTIVITIES OF A SOCIAL AND CULTURAL NATURE

40. Every nation has a wide variety of institutions and programmes promoting the welfare of young people. Some of these derive from traditional life and social organization, such as a dance group formed by a particular age-set of young women to perform at local festivals. Others are contemporary modifications of traditional associations: for example, savings clubs among city youth based on clan relationships. Others still are comparatively modern in origin and purpose, perhaps related to schools or churches or mosques. Some have international or regional affiliations, such as Boy Scouts, Girl Guides, YMCA, YWCA.

41. The objectives of these associations vary widely, but they have certain effects in common: they foster a feeling of belonging to a group, give a sense of direction and purpose, provide experience for youth in organizing their own activities, develop discipline and a heightened sense of self-respect. Some clubs encourage the improvement of domestic skills for women, such as homemaking, child care, sewing, knowledge of hygiene and nutrition; of occupational skills for young men, such as young farmers' and young fisherman's clubs; of abilities in sports, such as swimming or football groups.

42. Some of these clubs provide badges for identification or as proof of special achievement. Sometimes uniforms are part of the show, or a particular article of clothing (perhaps a hat or head scarf) worn by all members. Competitions of various kinds may be part of the activities which stimulate higher performance.

43. All of these clubs for youth are important and need further emphasis, particularly in those rural areas where traditional forms of recreation and association have disappeared and no new forms have taken their place and in cities where so many young people are displaced from their home communities. They are significant for boys and girls in their early teens (from 13 to 15) as well as for older youth. Those organizations which are relatively low-cost may need encouragement to become self-perpetuating and self-multiplying. They are worthy of the extra administrative attention from voluntary organizations and from governments.

44. These programmes can be of considerable benefit to growing boys and girls in moulding their attitudes to work and training and thus stepping up performances in development

## IV. THE EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF YOUNG PEOPLE FOR NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT THROUGH NATIONAL YOUT ORGANIZATIONS

45. In response to urgent local situations, many Commonwealth nations have set going special training and work programmes for youth. Largely a phenomenon of the 1960's these programmes have come into being as experimental and exploratory measures in time of great national need and represent a distinct break with customary methods of meeting the needs of youth for civic education and specialized training. They are administered separately from systems of formal education. And they don't have much in common with the familiar boys' and girls' clubs. Most of these national youth services programmes provide facilities whereby trainees can make a disciplined contribution to national development through work projects which may take a few months or stretch over a period of one or even two years. In others, the service to the community arises from leadership, chiefly in rural areas, after a period devoted mainly to training. Almost all the programmes are rural oriented. A few only cater for young women.

Examples are: Ceylon, Agricultural Development Corps; Guyana, Youth Corps; India, Bharat Yuvak Samaj, National Cadet Corps; Kenya National Youth Service; Malawi, Young Pioneers; Zambia, Youth Service.

46. Why are these special programmes considered necessary? One commanding reason is the existence of jobless youth, particularly school leavers. Another and related reason is dissatisfaction with the capacity of usual classroom education to produce well-disciplined youth, devoted to the nation's cause, who can demonstrate a new spirit towards work and society. Again: those who receive higher education paid for largely by the masses of the people should in turn learn at first hand, through some form of community service, the nation's problems of illiteracy, poor health, and lack of development.

47. These explanations were given in response to questions posed for a meeting on national youth service programmes held in 1968 by the I.L.O. in Denmark.

> Ceylon: "The sheer magnitude of unemployment among youth justifies the need to create additional employment opportunities to contain the problem until such time as a long-term solution can be effected through development plans."
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> Guyana: "About 20 per cent of the working force is unemployed; school leavers who represent a high proportion of the jobless, are out-competed in the employment market by adults with families; the result is the creation of 'social rebels' and delinquency."
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> Zambia: "There is need for an agrarian revolution. The rate at which our youth can be absorbed into the agrarian society depends on the ability of the rural economy to produce a monetary return equivalent to wage-earning in urban areas. We still have a problem of how to take a young man whose contact with urban life has inflated his desire for the things that only money can buy, and re-integrate him into an agrarian society which still lives at a depressed economic level not far above subsistence."

48. For Commonwealth nations as a whole, it is probable that the total youth in national service of these kinds is not greatly in excess of 100,000. Leaving aside the university students, community service, what is the validity of helping limited numbers at considerable cost in public funds within training-service or training-service-settlement programmes? One answer is that service youth later become demonstrators or initiators; they provide leadership in their communities. They set an example that make follow-up policies, designed to help others, easier. The vast numbers of youth will then have a set of models of what can be aimed for.

49. One great difficulty, however, in general statements about national youth service programmes is their diversity. A meaningful typology would be difficult to achieve and probably

of no significance when completed. Differences exist in age and education on entry; in the length of education/training and service periods; in methods of civic education and training; in the style of community service; in arrangements, if any, for settlement later. Kenya's highly-capitalised scheme--with heavy earth-moving equipment, stone crushers, large trucks, and with substantive training courses for creating mechanics, masons, drivers, clerks--is of a different magnitude, for example, from more modest schemes elsewhere.

50. These special youth programmes provide a supplement to other training in rural skills in the countries concerned. The difficulty, however, in evaluating the experiences involved is that far too little time has passed to enable realistic assessments to be made. Many of these programmes were hastily set up in emergency conditions to help meet the problems created by unemployment among school leavers and the exceptional flow of rural young people to the cities. Because of the urgency, the plans often started off large-scale with no time taken for pilot experiments.

51. On economic grounds, many of these programmes are open to criticism for their high public cost and their diversion of scarce capital and administrative talent from more urgent development tasks. From the point of view of the youth concerned, there is difficulty in offering the specialization and rewards for work which help to spur self-improvement. And certain questions are still open: What happens to youth once their courses of training and work within the service have finished? Have the conditions of these camps or special schools made them better able to meet the competition of the job market? Are those from rural families more or less willing to undertake farming or other work in rural areas? Only after some of these answers are known can the effectiveness of these programmes be realistically evaluated. Against these economic appraisals should be weighed the less measurable social gains of improved personal discipline and attitudes towards society and of practical expressions of patriotism.

52. At the present stage, much is known about benefits, or hoped-for benefits, of national youth service programmes. These private and social benefits should now be related to the costs of alternative ways of achieving the same, or better, results.

## V THE NEED FOR, AND THE PRACTICE OF, ACTION RESEARCH AND EVALUATION

53. (1) To identify and classify processes of education outside formal schools and universities and to examine their explicit and implicit objectives.

(2) To reveal the links existing between these types of non-formal education and formal classroom learning, the needs of employment, the directions of social change.

(3) To evaluate the benefits in relation to the costs of these processes of out-of-school education and training in their transmitting of basic knowledge, technical skills, and attitudes towards work and society.

(4) To discover how the components of general education, pre-vocational education, and vocational training for meeting national requirements for specific occupations should most usefully be divided among formal education, specialized training, and on-the-job training arrangements.

(5) To find ways by which out-of-school education and training can help the transition from school to work (thereby reducing the numbers of unemployed youth).

(6) To look into administrative arrangements for various types of out-of-school education and training in order to find ways for integrating related efforts.

(7) To examine the supply and training of instructors and leaders for out-of-school educational activities.

(8) To look into methods and materials for bringing non-formal education to masses of people, such as chain processes (those who can read, teach others), radio, printed materials in local languages.

(9) To assess the value of international exchange of experience in particular lines of out-of-school education and the priorities for international aid.

## VI. CONCLUSION

54. In the developing nations of the Commonwealth today, only about five per cent of the labour force hold steady, wage-paid employment within modern establishments. The overwhelming proportions of the working populations live in rural areas and work within low-yielding family farms and small-scale non-farm enterprises. Economic progress is bringing about an expansion of modern industries, but their employment absorption for many years will remain low compared with the total employable population. This is one reason why efforts are being made to create a more progressive rural economy and thus provide more productive and rewarding opportunities for both adults and youth.

55. One of the central factors in achieving rural transformation is the spreading of ideas and techniques among rural producers. In designing programmes for bringing education (and training in specific skills) to rural families, education must be considered in its wider context--not only as formal classroom learning but also as including the many educative influences that modern communications can bring to rural producers, especially through government extension, short courses, and other services. Radio talks in local languages, film strips illustrating new techniques, mobile film units providing new insights--all of these have a part in directing a new energy into rural life.

56. The major issues of education planning for the rural areas are: determing the total of the nation's resources that can be used for rural education as a whole; distributing this total among the various types of education for both youth and adults; and finding out the most efficient ways for obtaining the highest pay-off from the different methods used. Direct investment in the education and training of rural boys and girls must be balanced with investment in the education of their parents. This total spending on education must also be balanced with other investments in the rural economy such as providing subsidized fertilizers or building roads, bridges, markets.

57. Within this context, the significance of out-of-school education and training of young people--complementary to formal schooling--will be seen as paramount for the years ahead.