A STUDY OF A GROUP OF ILLITERATE ADULTS IN RURAL NEWFOUNDLAND AND THEIR PARTICIPATION IN ADULT LITERACY PROGRAMS

CENTRE FOR NEWFOUNDLAND STUDIES

TOTAL OF 10 PAGES ONLY
MAY BE XEROXED

(Without Author's Permission)

MARIE FURLONG-BASS

41031

FOR FIELD STUDIES
JUN 27 1984
MEMORIAL UNIVERSITY
OF NEWFOUNDLAND

CANADIAN THESES ON MICROFICHE

I.S.B.N.

THESES CANADIENNES SUR MICROFICHE

National Library of Canada
Collections Development Branch

Canadian Theses on
Microfiche Service

Ottawa, Canada
K1A 0N4

Bibliothèque nationale du Canada
Direction du développement des collections

Service des thèses canadiennes
sur microfiche

NOTICE

The quality of this microfiche is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original thesis submitted for microfilming. Every effort has been made to ensure the highest quality of reproduction possible.

If pages are missing, contact the university which granted the degree.

Some pages may have indistinct print especially if the original pages were typed with a poor typewriter ribbon or if the university sent us a poor photocopy.

Previously copyrighted materials (journal articles, published tests, etc.) are not filmed.

Reproduction in full or in part of this film is governed by the Canadian Copyright Act, R.S.C. 1970, c. C-30. Please read the authorization forms which accompany this thesis.

THIS DISSERTATION
HAS BEEN MICROFILMED
EXACTLY AS RECEIVED

AVIS

La qualité de cette microfiche dépend grandement de la qualité de la thèse soumise au microfilmage. Nous avons tout fait pour assurer une qualité supérieure de reproduction.

S'il manque des pages, veuillez communiquer avec l'université qui a conféré le grade.

La qualité d'impression de certaines pages peut laisser à désirer, surtout si les pages originales ont été dactylographiées à l'aide d'un ruban usé ou si l'université nous a fait parvenir une photocopie de mauvaise qualité.

Les documents qui font déjà l'objet d'un droit d'auteur (articles de revue, examens publiés, etc.) ne sont pas microfilmés.

La reproduction, même partielle, de ce microfilm est soumise à la Loi canadienne sur le droit d'auteur, SRC 1970, c. C-30. Veuillez prendre connaissance des formules d'autorisation qui accompagnent cette thèse.

LA THÈSE A ÉTÉ
MICROFILMÉE TELLE QUE
NOUS L'AVONS REÇUE

NL-339 (r. 82/08)

Canada

A STUDY OF A GROUP OF ILLITERATE ADULTS IN RURAL NEWFOUNDLAND AND THEIR PARTICIPATION IN ADULT LITERACY PROGRAMS

by



Marie Furlong-Bass, B.A. (Ed.)

A Thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Education

Department of Educational Psychology
Memorial University of Newfoundland
July, 1982

St. John's Newfoundland

ABSTRACT

This study was designed to investigate a number of selected personal, familial, educational, socio-economic and attitudinal attributes of 78 adult illiterates from 14 rural communities in the Northern Peninsula of Newfoundland and Labrador. Another purpose was to compare those adult illiterates in the study who verbally indicated a willingness to participate in a literacy training program with those who indicated no willingness to participate in the 14 independent variables. These are listed below:

- age
- sex
- marital status
- size of family
- number of dependents
- educational level
- grade equivalent to TABE score
- source of income
- source of spouse's income
- mother's education
- father's education
- self-concept
- ideal self-concept
- locus of control

The data were collected by using a structured interview protocol which consisted of 107 questions. These questions were administered in face-to-face interviews following the structured format and each interview was tape recorded to insure maximum accuracy in recording the data. The information thus gathered was treated as quantitative and qualitative measures, each composing a different section of this

study.

Analysis revealed significant correlations between age and locus of control variables with willingness to participate in a literacy training program. It was discovered that most of the adult illiterates in this study are internally oriented, are more likely to feel that they can control their own destinies, and are relatively self-confident. It was also found that the more internally oriented adult illiterates are, the more inclined they are to participate in a literacy training program. The analysis further revealed that the younger the adult illiterates are, the more inclined they would be to participate in a literacy training program. It was discovered, however, that no significant correlation exists between the remaining 13 independent variables and the independent variable--willingness to participate in a Literacy Training Program (LTP). These variables provided substantial data as descriptors in providing a general profile of adult illiterates in rural Newfoundland and Labrador.

The qualitative analysis disclosed in Chapter 5 reveals that even though some diversity of opinions exist, most adult illiterates perceived having literacy skills as one of their felt needs for the future. This need for greater literacy skills was almost always coupled with more hope for the future in terms of:

1. more economic security, resulting from more job

opportunities and better money;

2. a more challenging addition to their already experienced field of work; for example, a fisherman may be working as a Steward on a boat while he desires to be more knowledgeable about navigation;

3. a more interesting life style; some adult illiterates felt that their freedom to travel, to meet and maintain friendships outside their homes and communities are stifled because of illiteracy. They felt that literacy would eliminate such problems.

4. no penalties as a result of illiteracy; the data revealed that there are penalties associated with illiteracy. One such penalty, for example, is expressed by one person who felt that relationships with peer groups, spouse, children, siblings, and/or grandparents are not as healthy as they could be because of not being able to read and write.

5. no stigma because of illiteracy; the descriptive analysis revealed that adult illiterates are aware of the stigma commonly associated with illiteracy. Their happiness and peace of mind is hampered somewhat because of this stigma even though some of them may have achieved as much or more in the work

world, for example, as their more educated neighbour.

This study concludes with recommendations regarding future research and the possible implications of the findings for the planning of adult literacy programs.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The writer would like to take this opportunity to thank the members of the examining committee--Dr. Glenn Sheppard, Dr. Lee Klas, and Dr. William Kennedy. Dr. Sheppard provided direction, helpful criticisms and encouragement throughout the planning, development, and completion of the thesis. He was also particularly helpful with the statistical analysis of the data. Thanks are also due to Dr. Wilfred Martin who offered helpful suggestions.

Thanks are extended to the adults in the study who showed their interest plus courage by taking the time to respond to the questionnaire and agreeing to have their very personal conversations tape-recorded.

Throughout the process my parents and family have taken an active interest in the progress of the thesis. They have helped me to persist by their care and loving devotion as they took time out of their busy schedule.

Above all, a special thank you to my Husband, Peter. Without his patience, support and understanding, this thesis would not have been completed. After three years we can now begin married life without a thesis!

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ABSTRACT	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	ix
Chapter	
1 INTRODUCTION	1
Statement of Purpose	3
Rationale	5
Summary	25
2 REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	26
Introduction	26
Nature of Literacy and History of Literacy Movements	27
Assumptions and Theories Underlying the Programs for Functional Illiteracy	34
Other Assumptions Concerning the Causes of and Subsequent Effects of Functional Illiteracy	41
Locus of Control and Adult Illiteracy	47
Self-Concept and Adult Illiteracy	52
Summary	57
3 METHODOLOGY	59
Population Description	59
Sampling	61
Data Collection	63
Operational Definitions	69
Instrumentation	70
4 SOCIAL, ECONOMIC, PERSONAL AND EDUCATIONAL DIMENSIONS OF ILLITERACY	89
Economic and Social Motivations	92
Summary of Occupational, Economic, Familial and Educational Characteristics of Adult Illiterates	108

Chapter		Page
4	(Cont'd)	
	Adult Illiterates and Participation in Literacy Training Programs	110
	Self-Concept and Ideal Self-Concept	114
	Locus of Control	116
	Summary	120
5	EXPRESSED ATTITUDES OF ADULT ILLITERATES	121
	Age and Illiteracy	123
	Social Roles and Educational Needs of Illiteracy	125
	Penalties or Social Consequences of Illiteracy	128
	Stigmatism and Literacy	130
	Illiteracy and Life Style	135
	Illiteracy and Dependency	138
	The Promise of Literacy	149
	Summary	151
6	CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS	153
	Discussion and Implications of the Results	153
	Methodology Employed in Recruiting	170
	Program Development and Delivery	170
	Suggestions Regarding Future Literacy Program Planning	172
	REFERENCES	173
	APPENDIX A	182
	APPENDIX B	183
	APPENDIX C	184

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1	Population of Communities Sampled and Number Interviewed From Each Community	62
2	Participation in Adult Basic Literacy Training Programs by Age, Sex and Marital Status	90
3	Adult Illiterates by Occupational Classification	95
4	Adult Illiterates by Number of Years in their Occupational Classification and Type of Occupational Training	97
5	Adult Illiterates by Source of their Income	99
6	Adult Illiterates by Source of their Spouse's Income	99
7	Participation in Literacy Training Programs by Salary and Number of People Receiving Money in each Family	101
8	Participation in Adult Literacy Training Programs by Number of Offspring and Number of Dependents	103
9	Participation in Adult Literacy Training Programs by Reported Educational Level and Grade Equivalent to the Total TABE Score	105
10	Participation in Adult Literacy Training Programs by Mother's and Father's Education Level Reported by Illiterate Adults	107
11	CHI Square Analysis of Participation of Adult Illiterates in Literacy Training Programs by Age	110
12	CHI Square Analysis for Participation of Adult Illiterates in Literacy Training Programs by Sex	111
13	CHI Square Analysis for Test of Significance Pertaining to Participation in Adult Literacy Training Programs by Marital Status	112

Table		Page
14	CHI Square Analysis for Participation in Literacy Training Programs by Income Source, Number of Children, Number of Dependents, Salary, Number of Income Recipients, Education and Grade Equivalency of TABE	114
15	Analysis of Variance of Participation in Adult Literacy Training Programs by Self-Concept, Self-Concept Stanine, Ideal Self-Concept, Ideal Concept Stanine and Discrepancy Between Self-Concept and Ideal Self-Concept Index Scores	116
16	Participation in Adult Literacy Training Programs by Locus of Control	117
17	CHI Square Analysis of Participation by Locus of Control	118
18	Participation in Adult Illiteracy Training Programs by Distribution of Variance Between the Variables of Age, Number Receiving Money, Marital Status, Highest Education Level Achieved, Self-Concept, Sex, Number of Dependents, Locus of Control Score, Number of Offspring Surviving, Salary and Income Source	119

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The ability to read and write is a necessity that increases daily in importance due to rapid changes in a modern society characterized by a proliferation of information, more complex work environments and the mounting pressures of the present day world. Adults are continually faced with problems, both simple and complex, that demand logical and appropriate decision making skills based upon relevant knowledge. As a result, a person must have the ability to select, with comprehension, immediate and future needs, to distinguish fact from fiction and appropriately deal with the problems and pressures in day-to-day living. Reading can become one of the sources to gain such relevant knowledge and one of the most important resources a person can possess. As well, reading can be a valuable activity in which an individual can engage for occupational, social and recreational benefits throughout life.

According to W. J. Gushue (1974), apart from the typical reasons for high school dropouts, Newfoundland has an additional unique explanation for its high adult illiteracy rate. This reason is associated with the Province's oral tradition. In his article entitled "The Problem of Reading in an Oral Tradition", Gushue (1974) emphasized that there is a clear demarcation between the oral tradition

and the tradition of literacy or of schooling. In the latter case, he alluded to the fact that a people may not be literate because they may not have been able to complete schooling whether they wanted to or not. On the other hand, the oral tradition, according to Gushue, seems to have a detrimental effect on the individual's motivation to become literate because of the difficulty in making the school experiences as involving as that of the world outside the school. Gushue stressed that in Newfoundland, which is predominately an oral culture, the ability to read comes with great difficulty especially for older children and adults. He elaborated upon the mental processes involved by drawing upon Claytor's (1960) stages of learning to read. He referred to Claytor before concluding that such difficulty experienced in an oral culture results because adults "cannot concentrate wholly upon audition and are hampered by habits of visualization" (Claytor, 1960; in Gushue, 1974). Whatever the reasons for Newfoundland's high illiteracy rate, perhaps, at this time, more than ever before, rural Newfoundlanders are feeling the need for literacy skills.

In the past few years, Newfoundland seems to be going through a transition period. That is, the Province seems to be changing gradually from a rural to an urban type of lifestyle. Rural communities, such as those included in the present study, are probably typical of such changes in Newfoundland. People from Northern Peninsula communities, such as Plum Point and Anchor Point (Appendix A and Appendix B)

are leaning more and more toward contemporary sophisticated modes of living. Evidence of this fact can be found in the planning of larger department stores to replace the much smaller local stores and catalogue sales. Also, larger and more modernly equipped homes (with scenic views and more spacious accommodations) are being influenced by the norms and expectations of the large society. The introduction of television and improvement in road transportation are bringing the people in contact, as never before, with the outside world.

In summary, the effects of illiteracy in a changing culture can be felt both by the individual and as a consequence by society as a whole. This appears true, particularly, since adult illiterates may not have the same resources as literate adults to exploit opportunities that society might have to offer.

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this study was to investigate a number of attitudinal, demographic and motivational characteristics of a selected group of adult illiterates in rural Newfoundland. Furthermore, the study was designed to determine if those persons with an expressed willingness to participate (potential participants) in a literacy training program differ from those who expressed unwillingness to participate (potential non-participants) on selected variables which are

to be examined as possible correlates of adult illiteracy.

More specifically, this study posed the following research questions:

(1) What are the attitudes and social-psychological motivations of a selected group of illiterate adults in rural Newfoundland?

(2) Do potential participants of an adult basic literacy training program differ from potential non-participants on such variables as Locus of Control (Boyce, 1971; Lewis, 1974; Lowenthal, 1976; Nowicki & Strickland, 1973) and Self-Concept and Ideal Self-Concept (Boyce, 1971; Friere, 1974; Robinson, 1973)?

Illiteracy in modern society is assumed by some literate adults to be synonymous with a sense of economic, social and intellectual dependency. To escape such dependency in the presently advancing rural area of Newfoundland and to fully participate requires the motivation to upgrade basic academic skills. Such motivation on the part of the illiterate adult to improve reading and writing skills would seem to require a heightened sense of confidence in one's ability. This, in turn, would appear to be related to an individual's sense of control over life events and perceptions of life.

Because it is felt that differences in sex, age and the socio-economic indices such as total family income, number of income recipients (Dutton, 1967) and size of family

(Russell, 1973) of the illiterate adult may be associated with illiteracy rates, these variables were dealt with in this study as well.

Rationale

The rationale for this study deals with a discussion of:

(1) the incidence of illiteracy;

(2) definition of functional illiteracy;

(3) illiteracy and modern life with a discussion of the prevailing assumptions regarding its causes and consequences;

(4) the selection of particular variables such as socio-economic status, age, size of the family, and finally,

(5) the correlates of illiteracy such as Felt Needs to be Literate, Internal-External Locus of Control, Self-concept and Ideal Self-concept.

The Incidence of Illiteracy

The degree of illiteracy in different cultures has been receiving increasing attention in recent years. According to various researchers, one-third of the world's population is illiterate and this percentage is steadily increasing

(Brooke, 1975; Gillette, 1972; Jefferies, 1967; Mahew, 1970). In fact, there are about 10,000,000 new adult illiterates each year in the world (Gillette, 1972). A breakdown of the statistics on the rate of adult illiteracy for various areas is worthy of note. In Europe alone, 19,000,000 people over the age of 15 cannot read and write. North America is no exception to any other world nation in terms of its illiteracy problem and yet probably not as great as third world countries. In 1964, 10 percent of the U.S. population, age 18 and over, was unable to read street signs or labels on bottles or to fill out an application for a job. There were half a million in New York City alone (Jefferies, 1967). Out of the approximately 13,000,000 Canadians in 1971, 15 years of age and over, approximately 5,000,000 or 37 percent had not gone beyond the equivalent of a Grade 8 level of education (Thomas, 1976). Newfoundland, according to a statistic table presented in 1971 by Audrey Thomas, has a very high percentage (47.92) of illiteracy. As such, the Province stood second only in Canada to the Northwest Territories. To date, in Newfoundland, there has not been evidence available to indicate the regional distribution of illiteracy. Given such evidence, it becomes easy to understand Brooke's observation that "Until quite recently, Canadians assumed that because education had become compulsory since 1912, almost everyone of educable age was literate" (Brooke, 1975, p. 2).

Defining Functional Illiteracy

The great technological revolution of the 20th century, with its associated impact on the thoughts and actions of mankind, was accompanied by the reality that illiteracy presents a grave problem. The term "functional illiteracy" has been defined in a number of ways. The lack of a uniform definition, however, constitutes a serious problem because researchers have, among other things, tended to relate statistics to make recommendations for various types of literacy training programs (Gillette, 1972; Grant, 1976; Jamieson, 1975; Lanning, 1966; Lewis, 1953; Robinson, 1971; Thomas, 1976; UNESCO, 1976, 1970, and 1971). Because a variety of definitions still exist, it is difficult, for example, to utilize research findings for direction since researchers tend to operate from different conceptualizations of illiteracy.

According to one writer (Lewis, 1953), there are levels of functional illiteracy. A low level is defined as the functioning necessary for everyday living or, more specifically, being able to read a simple passage in a newspaper or write a simple letter. A lower level of functional illiteracy again exists for those adults who can at any rate write such words as "stop" or "go" or who can even sign their name or interpret a simple sentence. Lewis (1953) coined the term "credibly illiterate" to describe such a group, and for those who cannot even sign their names the "complete illiterate". The former can possibly be placed at or below a

Grade 4 while the latter below Grade 1.

Grant (1976) defined the functionally illiterate adult for purposes of her study under the conditions used by the Adult Basic Education (ABE) Department. That is, those who read, write and compute at Grade 0 - 3 and who lack the general knowledge necessary to function effectively with the community, are functionally illiterate.

Of course, some of the difficulty is that the more complex the society the higher the required level of literacy to function effectively appears to be. This seems to be precipitated by the fact that the functional aspect of literacy is very much related to economic and social conditions.

While discussing functional illiteracy in Canada as a two-fold problem, created by both Canadian immigrants and native born populations, UNESCO (1971) could not make up its mind. It defined the native-born functionally illiterate as "a person with less than Grade 6, 7, or 8 education in either French or English".

Lewis (1974) defines the functional illiterate adult in the following manner:

> An adult who has some basic reading skills but who lacks sufficient skills for reading newspapers, instructions for job applications and other common simple printed material. (Lewis, 1974, p. 9)

As such, Lewis (1974) clearly distinguishes between a functional illiterate adult and a complete illiterate adult. He

defines the latter as an adult "who can neither read nor write, though he may have a small sight vocabulary such as "stop", "go", "cigarettes" and "exit" (Lewis, 1974, p. 9).

Functionally illiterate adults were also defined as those "16 years old or older who are reading at an instructional level between 2.5 - 4.0 grade levels" (Russell, Sheldon, Noel, 1973, p. 3).

It seems that Statistics Canada had both a formal and informal definition. There seems to be no agreed on Canadian definition for functional illiteracy. This is evidenced by the fact that, in the late 1960's, the Canadian Adult Education Association chose to adopt a standard of less than Grade 8 education for the country. This standard was adopted because of the fact that Statistics Canada, in its practice of releasing data for those with elementary schooling, preferred that definition to the one which "recognizes Grade 5 education as pertaining to functional illiteracy" (Thomas, 1976). A few years later, Statistics Canada, when publishing their census data, used the standard of Grade 5 or less of education in defining illiteracy (Thomas, 1976). Present indications are that the definition has reached full circle because the provinces, particularly the Newfoundland and Labrador Department of Adult and Continuing Education, are embracing the original definition of Grade 8 certification or less.

The definition used by the Department of Adult and Continuing Education of Newfoundland and Labrador is congruent

with the Province's legal age for leaving school. The provincial Department of Education stipulates that a youth has to remain in school regardless of his/her grade attainment level unless he/she has reached 15 years of age before the start of the academic school year (September). Should a young person cease to participate in a learning situation in school without just cause, the parents are liable to pay a monetary penalty for as long as the youth remains absent for the remainder of the academic school year. In the Province, as well, a person cannot attend a technical college, such as the College of Fisheries, Marine Navigation and Engineering, without having completed the minimal requirements of a Grade 8 education. For purposes of this study, therefore, the foregoing two conditions can perhaps be tied together in one definition similar to that currently used by the Department of Adult and Continuing Education for Newfoundland and Labrador. A functionally illiterate adult is defined as "a non-disabled individual who is 15 years of age or over and has less than a formal Grade 8 certificate or equivalent".

In summary, it seems that each definition of the concept of functional illiteracy depends on the importance of literacy in that culture and whether there are economic or social consequences which result from a certain degree of functional illiteracy. In rural Newfoundland, where occupational, economic and social demands are increasing in proportion to educational demands and changing societal

expectations, there is also increased pressure for literacy skills that are functional for Newfoundlanders to survive in the same manner as they did historically. In the past, with extremely competent oral language skills and the natural industrial resources of logging, lumbering and fishing, Newfoundlanders were economically, occupationally and socially secure regardless of their educational level. In Newfoundland's present culture, the fishing industry, for example, has become more technologically sophisticated. In this industry, navigation, sonar and radar skills, for example, are replacing what was originally a simple manual task requiring few literacy skills.

Correlates of Adult Illiteracy

Literacy in a rural and semi-bureaucratically organized modern culture is of such importance that without minimal functional skills, the individual may suffer at both a social and a personal level since there may well be social, psychological, socio-economical, political, intellectual and occupational effects.

To date, there is very little material available from the literature on adult education which deals with these potentially negative effects or other concepts such as degree of internality or externality and self-concept as they may relate to functional illiteracy. Some researchers and writers have, for example, made a case for the assumption that there is a relationship between the feeling of

powerlessness or locus of control and illiteracy (Boyce, 1970; Lewis, 1974). It may be that those adult illiterates who resist literacy programs are those who experience a sense of powerlessness and do not feel positive about themselves.

A prime example of the connection between powerlessness and locus of control or personal inefficacy that can be applied to this study was given by Breton (1972) when he discussed the attitudes of youth toward self and the future in the career world. He states:

> A sense of personal inefficacy or powerlessness results in a withdrawal or retreat, in apathy or in poor unmotivated performance.
> (Breton, 1972, p. 36)

One writer alleges that illiterate adults experience a "lack of sense of control over one's own destiny" (Lewis, 1974, p. 34). This sense of control over one's own destiny, as associated with role, status and social organization, is assumed to be weak or absent even in those who show the desire to better themselves by enrolling in adult education courses. It is suggested, as well, that even while attempting to learn, the illiterate adult endures pain as a functional member of society by creating his own problems of inferiority and anxiety about the ability to succeed in an endeavour (Robinson, 1971 in Lewis, 1974, p. 34).

Another pessimistic view is expressed by another writer who refers to illiterate adults as oppressed people who possess an unauthentic view of the world and of themselves.

The following quote suggests that for these individuals there is a lack of a healthy self-concept:

> Almost never do they realize that they, too, "know things" they have learned in their relations with the world and with other men. Given the circumstances which have produced their duality, it is only natural that they distrust themselves.
> (Paulo Friere, 1970, p. 50)

It seems that the clarity and accuracy of such assumptions may be based on different theoretical views. Lewis (1974) concentrated most of his research on the theories advocated by Goodman (1970) and Kellen (1964). Their theoretical orientations concentrated on the development of programs to teach adult illiterates from the point of view of the relevance of the programs to the individual's lifestyle and needs. Kellen (1964) in Lewis, 1974, p. 12, states that "basic to adult education is the premise that education of the adult is the recognition of his individuality." Goodman (1970) began with the knowledge and skills the adult reader brings to the task of reading and further stressed that the task of teaching the adult should not be too difficult if programs are developed from that standpoint. One researcher showed interesting results in his study of the effects of Adult Basic Education on the selected non-cognitive attributes of self-concept, internal-external control and anomia in adult illiterates. Boyce (1970) reported the conclusions made by two other researchers, Klavsner (1953) and Hawk (1967). They

suggested that the self-concept is "more homogeneous among members of the same socio-economic status group, with the disadvantaged having less rewards associated with academic behaviour, which suggests a lower self-concept". He also found further support for this concept by collating the work of Carroll (1945) and Rotter (1963) who found "the self-concepts of disadvantaged youth to be characterized by low self-esteem, self-deflation and self-depreciation" (p. 7, in Boyce, 1970). Boyce (1970) relied heavily on the self-concept theory of Super (1957). According to that theory, a well formulated self-concept takes into account the realities of the working world and makes for an easier transition from school to work than does a hazy or unrealistic self-concept. From his study, he reports that there was no significant difference found between participant pre-test and post-test self-concept scores. Therefore, no change in the participant's self-concept could be attributed to participation in the Adult Basic Education programs.

The lack of control concept was dealt with quite extensively by Boyce (1970). He noted, among other things, that education and unemployment were among the antecedents of expectancies of external control. As a result of Peters' (1968) research conclusions, Boyce (1970) justified his assumption that:

> Participation in a program that results in raising the educational level with a concomitant increase in employability should help the individual to view his environment as more amenable to his personal control. (Boyce, 1970, p. 8)

From such a statement, it becomes obvious that Boyce (1970) sees Locus of Control (I-E) as the effect, not the cause of illiteracy.

Needs of Illiterate Adults

Despite the expressed desire of many educators and social policy makers to improve literacy rates, and despite the many programs designed for this purpose, little attention has been paid to the perceptions and self defined needs of the recipients of such well intended programs. For example, one researcher, while reviewing the literature for his study, noted that the paucity of research data in adult education has handicapped many programs. He expressed concern with the lack of knowledge about the needs of the illiterate population as a basis for planning useful means and methods of instruction, for preparing effective materials for their instruction and for "testing them effectively to predict their degree of success in learning" (Robinson, 1974, p. 58).

While discussing the varied assumptions and theoretical information of adult illiteracy in his research, Lewis (1974) collated work of various writers. He relied, for example, quite heavily on the work of Knowles (1973), who contributed to the literature of adult literacy with his introduction in the United States of the presently established field of "Androgogy," defined as "the art and science of helping adults learn" (Lewis, 1974). The study concentrates on

four assumptions dealing with:

1. changes in self-concept
2. role of experience
3. readiness to learn
4. orientation to learn

Such theoretical assumptions concerning the characteristics of adult learners are relevant to this study because of their implications in providing a deeper understanding of the illiterate adult.

Characteristics of Adult Illiterates

There is no personality trait which can be said to be characteristic of illiterate adults. They can be described as intelligent or unintelligent; lazy or energetic; cheerful or morose. Indeed, illiterate adults are found who belong to really high intelligence groups. It is also assumed that all illiterate adults have one thing in common--probably a sense of inferiority, specifically when faced with academic tasks or classrooms (Lewis, 1953; Ulmer, 1969, in Robinson, 1971). Inferiorities, not unlike anxieties, seem to be created by the illiterate individual themselves about whether or not success in the classroom can be attained. According to Lewis (1953), this inferiority complex, often accentuated by the peculiar conditions of life, may manifest itself in excessive studiousness, in unreserved behaviour, or in apparent inability to concentrate, in meekness, or in many other ways. He took the idea a bit further when

he described most illiterate adults as a class of persons with one common characteristic: "they were backward at school, and they have not progressed beyond the level reached at the end of their schooling or they have even regressed" (Lewis, 1953, p. 10).

Illiteracy Reduction in Modern Newfoundland

It seems that illiterate adults situated in urban Newfoundland have endured the dire consequences of illiteracy until quite recently in a very similar manner to those living in the most remote areas such as Flower's Cove, Green Island Cove and the other areas mentioned in Appendices A and B. These people suffered under the lack of available programs, facilities or adult centers, teachers and adequate financial assistance.

In 1973, a basic adult literacy training program, called 'Teacher on Wheels', was organized and coordinated by the Adult and Continuing Education Department of Newfoundland and Labrador. Under this program, instructors went into the homes of illiterate adults and attempted to teach the basic skills of reading and writing. It met with mixed success. Following in the wake of this program another far-reaching and more comprehensive program was offered under the same name in 1977. At the time, the following methods of contacting the illiterate adult were as follows:

1. public posters and flyers

2. radio and television advertisements
3. radio and television talk shows
4. newspaper coverage
5. personal door-to-door canvassing
6. telephone blitz (each personnel member shared the load of contacting people by telephone from the alphabetical list of names in the telephone directory).

Such literacy training methods as the Laubach and Literacy Volunteers of America (LVA) were adopted for use. While some adults learned to read and write, some dropped out for various reasons and others refused to participate (Furlong and Flynn, 1977). One of the major difficulties experienced in the delivery of these literacy programs has been the disappointing low participation rate. Such experiences possibly make it more challenging to adult educators or program developers to ignore the literacy problem and/or believe it doesn't exist, especially if such programs have to be federally funded. At the same time, it would appear that many programs may not be perceived by potential clients as appropriate to meet their needs. Of course, it is also possible that many illiterate adults may not be motivated to participate in such programs since they may not feel the need to acquire the skills of literacy.

The demise of the above mentioned two programs (both federally funded) seems to have acted as a catalyst for

further action on the part of concerned adult educators in the Province. An immediate voluntary association to teach adult illiterates, called the "New Teachers on Wheels", has been on-going in metro St. John's for some time and within the past couple of years, it has branched out to encompass rural Newfoundland towns, such as Grand Falls and Happy Valley. Parallel to the movement of literacy training has been the development of a much needed new literacy training program. In the past two years, as well, basic literacy training programs have become part of the Adult Education courses offered at night for every rural community in Newfoundland and Labrador. In the areas under study in this research, such courses were taught in two of the communities, for example, Flower's Cove in 1980 and Sandy Cove in 1979. Once the initial problem of obtaining participants was overcome, another more serious problem developed in that the materials available from the Department of Adult and Continuing Education were too far advanced for the teaching of these particular groups, most of whom could not write their names. In the absence of an appropriate curriculum, success was forthcoming only from the extent that the instructor had to develop and utilize, to the best of her ability, materials that could be used to meet the immediate needs of the participants.

Because Newfoundland historically engaged in domestically based methods of producing goods and providing for their own needs by lumbering and fishing, the situation is

gradually changing so that the demand for literacy skills now becomes a prime provincial concern. Researchers agree that occupations requiring considerable higher literacy skills are replacing simple manipulative occupations (Brooke, 1975; Lanning, 1966; Mullen, 1971). According to Brooke (1975), the advancement of technology added a new dimension to the problem of the illiterate adult. He is pressured psychologically because new demands are being placed on him and adjustment to these demands required education and functionality in the widest sense. In the same vein, another writer states that in order to function in a democracy people, who are illiterate, should be able to exercise the kind of independent judgement which a representative kind of government requires and should not be swayed by trouble makers and the bombardment of the media (Lanning, 1966). If another writer is correct, then functional illiteracy has consequences such as the following:

1. Participation in economic and social development projects, either cooperative or individual, is prevented.
2. Economic progress is hindered.
3. The intention of enfranchisement is frustrated.
4. Growth of self confidence is inhibited.
5. And, in general, the ability to cope with the daily problems of life is limited.

(Mullen, 1971, p. 187)

Finally, Thomas (1970), while discussing the Canadian illiteracy situation, offered a valuable suggestion that might be a viable partial solution for the illiteracy problem faced in Newfoundland. He stressed that the Department of Adult Education should take full responsibility for insuring that adults are participating in literacy training programs. He maintained that the solution to the problem of commitment to participation in literacy training programs have to be "endogenous, i.e. come from the pupils themselves in their own contexts" (Thomas, 1970, p. 28). However, the writer neglected to add that financial support, whether from the Federal or Provincial Governments, is essential to adequately launch any wide scale campaign against the state of illiteracy.

Illiteracy-A World Problem

It would appear that the rate of adult illiteracy is an international concern (Jefferies, 1967; Lanning, 1966; Mullen, 1966; Thomas, 1970; UNESCO, 1976, 1970, 1971) and indeed every country seems to express concern about minimizing the percentage of its population that is considered functionally illiterate.

As well, there clearly are assumptions made that illiteracy is incongruent with economic and personal security and that it is not consistent with the economic and social policies of most nations. Some nations link their efforts to decrease illiteracy rates very clearly to specific

national goals. For example, (as mentioned in Chapter 2), literacy training programs in Iran were concentrated in the agricultural and industrial regions and were fairly successful (Gillette, 1972).

There is a great deal of variability regarding the types of programs for decreasing illiteracy rates (Sollie, 1966; Thomas, 1970). Such variability seems to suggest that adult illiteracy may be a multi-faceted phenomenon and consequently probably requires more complex strategies for intervention than have been used so far. It appears, as well, that most of the suggestions for programs have been based on assumptions regarding why people are illiterate and what the causes are, as well as the personal and economic consequences of adult illiteracy to society.

It has been suggested that the rate of illiteracy is so high in some countries because of immigration policies and difficulties in learning the English language (Lewis, 1974) and lack of facilities to teach illiterate adults (Brooke, 1975). Other writers allege that some adults are illiterate because of personal inadequacies such as lack of perception and intelligence (Lanning, 1966). Others suggest that poor self-concept, which creates problems of inferiorities and anxieties regarding their abilities to succeed in any endeavour, consistently maintain illiteracy and just as easily cause resistance to efforts to increase literacy skills by enrolling in literacy training programs (Boyce, 1970; Friere, 1970; Lewis, 1974). Another assumption regarding

the reason why people are illiterate seems to be that they are externally oriented or experience self inefficacy defined by one writer as:

> estimated probability of success; alienation, powerlessness; and a sense of control over an individual's destiny, future events or his environment.
>
> (Breton, 1972, p. 17)

There are assumptions regarding the consequences of adult illiteracy such that people who are illiterate are a burden to society, are not equipped to participate fully in a more complex society and are somehow disenfranchised with opportunities within their communities and feel stigmatized (Lanning, 1966; Lewis, 1974; Mullen, 1971)

However, despite speculations of this nature, which appear to concentrate so pessimistically on the characteristics of adult illiterates, some assumptions have empirical evidence and appear equitable (Altmann & Arambasich, 1982; Dutton, 1968; Foulds, 1971; Lewis, 1974; Lowe, 1975; Robinson, 1971). Lewis' (1974) study explained that the problem of illiteracy was overcome in several world nations. Robinson (1971) stressed that there is no one personality trait that can be said to characterize adult illiterates. Altmann and Arambasich (1982) showed that students who demonstrated an internal locus of control tended to participate more fully in adult education programs. However, with the exception of perhaps the last researcher, there is not a great deal of research to support the assumptions about

adult illiteracy or adults who are functionally illiterate. There seems to be a noticeable failure to discriminate in the assumptions about those attributes of adult illiterates and the culture or socio-economic circumstances in which they find themselves (Dutton, 1968; Gushue, 1974). It appears that educational intervention programs for improving the literacy of a given population have not always been successful. There are differential success rates. Some of the programs have failed to attract adult illiterates from the target groups, while others have had marginal success. To date, there is no clear picture of just how literacy training programs can be matched up with the current knowledge of adult illiterates whom the present governments hope to serve.

In conclusion, this study may further our understanding of the many diverse factors which correlate with participation in literacy training programs or, conversely, these elements which seem to maintain illiteracy. Further understanding of these variables may have implications for the individual and Newfoundland society, as well as program development and delivery.

An insight into the self-concept, locus of control, and felt needs to be more literate of the adults in rural Newfoundland should contribute to the design of more appropriate and effective programs.

Summary

This chapter presented an introduction to the thesis and the purpose and rationale of the study. It has elaborated upon the problem created by widespread illiteracy in a changing society, particularly in rural Newfoundland. The chapter dealt with assumptions made regarding adult illiterates themselves, some of which are deeply felt by these people and, consequently, seem to be detrimental to their successful daily living and otherwise healthy attitudes.

The following chapter will review in more detail the relevant literature.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

As a background to an examination of the attitudes of a group of illiterate adults in several remote communities of rural Newfoundland, this chapter reviews the relevant literature regarding the nature and history of illiteracy, theoretical and empirical perspectives and the literature relevant to the variables selected for examination in this study.

The review of the literature revealed a number of interesting themes and perspectives concerning the world's illiterate adults. However, few of these studies examined the adult illiterate's own beliefs and attitudes. As mentioned in Chapter 1, defining and consequently identifying adult illiterates has been and still continues to be a complex challenge. To date, there is no one clear-cut definition that is functional for every country. Therefore, it becomes equally as difficult to compare one country's rate of illiteracy with another. However, no nation seems to deny that illiteracy exists or that efforts have continued to reduce the number of adult illiterates. Writers and researchers have concerned themselves with the rate of illiteracy, the problems of decreasing the rate of illiteracy,

and the reasons why such high rates exist in various areas (Brooke, 1975; Gillette, 1972; Jefferies, 1967; Lanning, 1966; Lewis, 1974; Newberg, 1971; UNESCO, 1971). Most of these people seem to suggest that there is a relationship between adult illiteracy and the political policies and the social and economic conditions of each country.

Nature of Literacy and History of Literacy Movements

According to Prescott, an American historian, illiteracy in itself is one of the greatest impediments to the progress of civilization and he further notes that:

> The spread of literacy was a gradual process and, in the most highly developed societies, its extension to the mass of the people is a fairly recent innovation. Before the introduction of printing, there was not much point in literacy for the great mass of the people. Hand copied books were scarce and expensive. Even well-to-do people customarily employed trained scribes to write for them. The Hebrews, whose way of life was rooted in the scriptures, were probably as literate as many peoples of the ancient world. (Prescott in Jefferies, 1967, p. 3)

It wasn't until the sixteenth century that a literate middle class came into being. The supreme importance attached to the Bible by Protestants was an important factor in encouraging the growth of literacy after the Reformation, but even in the age of Milton and Newton, not more than a fair proportion of the English people could read and write (Jefferies, 1967, p. 5).

The work of Newberg (1971) compliments that of Jefferies

(1967) because he discussed one of the first widespread movements against illiteracy in England in the eighteenth century. Apparently, two undertakings--(1) charity school, and (2) dame school--had far reaching effects upon the structure of society in the wake of the industrial revolution. The charity schools and dame schools (establishments run by individuals to earn money) provided elementary education during that time. The latter, or basic teaching, became effective for the underprivileged especially because of the appearance at the same time of chapbooks. The chapbooks, which were described as a type of literature entirely secular in nature, became very important throughout the English countryside because of their easy access and large quantity. These chapbooks became valuable for another reason, as well, despite the widespread opposition of the society promoting Christian knowledge. They allowed the artisans to gradually become literate enough to help themselves shatter the existing regime of oppression, whereby they were expected to remain poor and accept their lot in life as hardworking and submissive. In time, literacy skills allowed them to understand the rights of man and finally recognize the value of their own accomplishment of having defied the original intention of literacy, which was to enable people to remain pious and content and in ignorance (Newberg, 1971). From such reports, it seems evident, to some degree, that political regimes may have kept people in an oppressed position by keeping them illiterate.

It seems that literacy programs are often linked to specific political or economic goals of a country or particular political regime. In democratic societies, for instance, it is generally believed that maximizing the rate of adult literacy will reinforce the democratic institutions and political process by permitting all citizens to participate more fully (i.e., vote freely). On the other hand, in some nations, characterized by political oppression, encouraging higher levels of literacy can become a threat to higher political order. In any case, most countries' literacy training is perceived as contributing to the general economic development. In Iran, for example, literacy training has concentrated on the irrigated agricultural zone of Dezful and in the industrial region of Isfaham. In Tanzania (to mention one other) the literacy training program combined literacy instruction with the promotion of cooperatives in the cotton-rich Nwanza region (Gillette, 1972). Gillette (1972) did not, however, relate whether such programs met with either mixed success or none at all.

In the United States, Lanning (1966) reflects upon the attitudes of the citizens towards their progress to educate the illiterate population (then described as those people who have less than Grade 5 education). He quotes Hensen (1956) as stating:

> For all out boasting of being an educated nation, which provides universal and compulsory education

> for all its citizens, the cold fact remains that we still have a shocking degree of illiteracy in this country which constitutes a problem of grave national importance.
> (Hensen, Kenneth, 1956, in Lanning, 1966, p. 4)

According to Lanning (1966), the above problem had not changed in 11 years. The functionally illiterate was still being described as a victim of society's inability to impart the educational skills necessary for "basic social and economic needs".

While discussing the incidence of illiteracy in the United States, Lewis (1974) collated information by other authors to demonstrate the high percentage of illiteracy in English speaking countries as opposed to almost the opposite in the Scandinavian countries and Western Europe and Japan. This is accounted for, in part, by the fact that: (1) the English language is a more complex language to learn than either Greek, Italian, Japanese or Dutch, and (2) immigrants from foreign countries speaking any language other than English increase the rate of illiteracy in English speaking countries, and, subsequently, reduce the population of illiterate adults in their native country. For example, Levin (1966, in Lewis, 1974) stressed that the rate of literacy is on the incline as one moved from England to Italy, and finally to Spanish speaking countries. According to Levin (1966), who questioned First Grade teachers in Italy, children there, who are three months into the first grade, could read material appropriate to their age level

provided they could comprehend it. Marklund (1975, in Lewis, 1974) further substantiated this point when he disclosed that both Sweden and Finland's illiteracy rate is virtually non-existent (less than one percent). With the success of the Basic Adult Education programs, Sweden was successful in imparting reading and writing skills to those 40% of the gypsy population who were considered illiterate in the mid 60's. The only exception was perhaps the oldest 50 people in the country. Finland's present literacy rate is parallel to that of Sweden because only a couple of years ago more than one-quarter of a million people immigrated from the country. Makita (1968, in Lewis, 1974) reported that Japan's literacy rate is negligible because of the mechanism of learning to read in that language. While, according to Lewis (1974), who relied on Ellis (Nineteenth Century linguist), there are more than 2,000 alternative graphemes when all the ways of printing and writing the 44 phonemes of the English language are analyzed, the Japanese language is much less complex. Elementary school children in Japan have to memorize a basic list of 10,000 symbols in order to graduate. Therefore, the process is much less complicated than the English system of learning to read. This hypothesis was proven correct when Lewis (1974) used a group of hard core San Francisco Junior High School functionally illiterate children (defined by him as individuals who lack sufficient skill for reading newspapers--simple printed material) in an experiment. He discovered that

these same students were able to learn very quickly using Chinese idiograms (Makita, 1968, in Lewis, 1974).

Peter Clyne (1972), a personal communicator to Lewis (1974), related that with the exclusion of landed foreign speaking immigrants to either country, both Great Britain and the United States have basically the same rate of illiteracy (in Lewis, 1974).

From the information concerning Canada's illiteracy problem, it is evident from the literature that during the early period there were sufficient manual and unskilled job opportunities to provide employment for these illiterate immigrants in the country. This is no longer the case, however. UNESCO (1970) expressed its concern for the country that is plagued with inflation, automation and other technological changes by quoting, for example the words of another writer as follows:

> Canada has always imported uneducated, unskilled laborers who have always remained uneducated and unskilled all their lives. During the country's early development, they were on the front lines, building railroads, new houses, streets and sewers. They man the factories.
> (Ferguson, 1956, pp. 7-8, in UNESCO, 1971, p. 33)

Prior to the early 1960's, several institutions in Canada provided some basic educational opportunities for illiterate adults. Some of these were:

1. The Frontier College of 1899, which was a voluntary organization, provided teachers, laborers

for railroad workers, fishermen and miners in isolated areas.

2. Canadian Army basic education training in the Second World War.
3. Certain school boards and church groups.

(Brooke, 1975, p. 2)

While such efforts were listed, the literature does not provide any further information regarding the approach to teaching these adults, the materials used, the qualifications of teachers or whether or not these attempts attained any degree of success.

According to one U.S. researcher, the seriousness of the problem of illiteracy in the States was recognized at the same time as in Canada (1960's) and various forms of societal activities began to take shape (Coy, 1975). So, like Canada and unlike England, most of the work to combat illiteracy fell into the hands of the literate citizens. To make a strong case for literacy training perhaps, and to appeal to the government for economic support to launch campaigns against illiteracy, many assumptions concerning adult illiterates themselves were made (Brooke, 1975; Lanning, 1966; Mullen, 1971). In addition, writers and researchers alike made assumptions which expressed no clear individual differences between individual adult illiterates or groups of adult illiterates. There was no expressed demarcation between the effects of illiteracy on

rural or urban populations. The assumptions, however, seem to be applied to all illiterate adults without distinction.

Assumptions and Theory Underlying the Programs for Functional Illiteracy

Along with providing valuable statistics of both rural and urban centers of the Western and Southwestern United States in May of 1963, Lanning (1966) stresses that "low educational attainment" is deterimental to the individual economically, socially and politically in modern society. He contends that illiterate individuals seem to be unable to adapt to changing requirements for employment. He tried to exemplify such a statement with the story of illiteracy in the United States during the Second World War. He pointed out that it was clear from the records that the largest single reason for rejection from military service was educational deficiency. Lanning (1966) also stressed that the ability of those adults to learn did not constitute a problem while helping the people to overcome their previous educational deprivation did constitute a problem because it was, among other things, both costly and time consuming. The same writer expressed his beliefs about the need for functional literacy by his use of such statements as the following:

(a) A good command of communication skills is absolutely necessary.

(b) It will broaden the horizon and increase the flexibility of our workers.

(c) It will facilitate the adjustments made necessary by technological unemployment and by the lengthened periods of retirement--give new hope to that rapidly growing group of older persons in our population.

(d) It will give impetus to the habit of lifelong learning, thus helping to "keep the mind limber that tends to become inflexible with age".

(Lanning, 1966, p. 7)

Having made the above statements, Lanning (1966) surprisingly states that uneducated people are a burden to society and, as such, are a "potential menace to our democratic way of life" (p. 7) because they cannot think logically, intelligently and/or discriminatively about anything, including political and personal matters.

At this point, it appears that Lanning (1966) capitalized on the work of a much earlier writer who described illiterate adults as a class of persons with one characteristic--"They were backward at school and they have not progressed beyond the level reached at the end of their schooling or they have even regressed" (Lewis, 1953, p. 10). Such statements show that there has been much speculation and theorizing regarding the potential stigmatizing effects of illiteracy and the social, economic and personal consequences.

From such details, as well, it appears that the illiterate adults are perceived as having been endowed with very few valuable qualities, even though their reasons for leaving or not attending school may have been unavoidable. However, as has been noted in Chapter One, several writers can be more optimistic as they contend, among other things, that there is no personality trait that can be said to characterize illiterate adults (Lewis, 1953; Ulmer, 1969, in Robinson, 1971).

In Canada, mention was made regarding a number of penalties associated with the individuals themselves and in the work world resulting from illiteracy. One foreseeable problem, according to Brooke (1975), was with the possible development of stress of the individuals. Such a concern does not just reflect the thoughts of one writer but several others. For example, Brooke's (1975) work supports that of Mullen (1971), who pointed out the dire necessity for widespread adult training and counselling for adult illiterates. She states that in the absence of literacy skills a person's:

> participation in economic and social development projects, either cooperative or individual, hinders progress economically, frustrates the intentions of enfranchisement, inhibits growth of self-confidence and in general limited their ability to cope with the daily problems of life in contemporary Canadian society. (Mullen, 1971, p. 187)

There are penalties associated with adult illiteracy, even for those who have less than Grade 8 education. They appear to affect the ability to participate fully in the

social and political life of a community. Their "knowledge of the three R's is so slight that they are badly handicapped as workers, as heads of families and as citizens" (Lanning, 1966). By continuing to describe the nature of the problem of illiteracy, Lanning (1966) tends to make concluding statements that do not have research evidence to support them. Occasionally, though, he made reference to the words or speech of a prominent citizen. For example, he used part of President Kennedy's education message while expounding upon the penalties of illiteracy. He quoted him as stating that there is no need for the fact that "the twin tragedies of illiteracy and dependency are often passed on from generation to generation". In so doing, Lanning (1966) clearly assumed that there is a relationship between dependency and illiteracy.

The assumptions made by Goodman (1970), in his step-by-step analysis of reading, provides some support for this study. Such a program begins with the skills and knowledge (a lot of which may be subconscious to the adult) that the adult brings to the learning situation. In terms of reading, Goodman (1970) stresses that the adult students have an in-built oral language fluency which is usually sufficient for his/her socio-economic status. His local dialect may, for example, be sufficient for his needs. In addition to his/her language contributions, the adult illiterate, while using his knowledge and experience (other valuable qualities of his background), forms perceptual images and makes

tentative guesses or choices about the possible meaning of a passage or a sentence on the basis of minimal cues. To such an extent, then, the author implies that the task of teaching an adult to read and write may not necessarily be a difficult task (Goodman, 1970, in Lewis, 1974).

Chall (1973) complements the previous point of view. He is fairly critical of the fact that already too much time is wasted in trying to find strengths and weaknesses that might explain lack of success in learning to read. He suggests, as does the previous author, that more emphasis ought to be placed on the fact that the students' experiences and language comprehension are already available and, as such, should be used to the advantage of the adult in an attempt to make the reading lessons more relevant to the adult learner (Chall, 1973, in Lewis, 1974).

In his writing, Lanning (1966) reflected that programs to teach adult illiterates were having limited success, because at the time they were reaching a minority of the millions in need of literacy skills. His approach to the problem covered five major areas of concern. Three of these were outlined and summarized because they are the domain of this research. They are:

1. the extent and nature of the problem (to provide general background information),
2. social implications of illiteracy and psychological factors of adult learning,

3. possible appropriate techniques for initiating and providing suitable materials and methods for the adult learner.

As other researchers dealt with the problem of adult illiteracy, several other assumptions regarding such themes as economic and social motivations and felt needs of the adult illiterate are particularly interesting. According to Philips (1970), for example, high levels of illiteracy can be attributed to a large degree of countries of low economic standing. In some poor countries, subsistence (the daily struggle to survive by obtaining food and other necessities of life) would undoubtedly come before learning to read and write. To that effect, Philips (1970) states:

> Literacy programs are only effective in the environments of the developing countries if there are economic and social motivations and if there are sufficient literature and reading time and facilities available in the communities in which the illiterate lives. (Philips, 1970, p. 14)

During the same year, UNESCO publications reflected similar ideas. They maintained that success with any program for adult illiterates cannot come unless such conditions as the following exist:

(a) The program has to be geared toward the felt need of the illiterate population as well as those of the initiators of the program.

(b) The program has to be integrated into the existing

economic and social structures, and

(c) the action that the program calls for has to be directly related to the occupational requirements.

(UNESCO, 1970, p. 27)

One of the main criticisms that these writers found dealt with the fact that already too much time has been spent working at the regional and national levels and not enough time spent at the working or local communities where the primary focus should be with the individual's needs. The preliminary studies for the preparation of programs has also further decreased in value, according to UNESCO (1970), because they were not designed to be applied directly to discovering solutions to the problems involved. All too often the studies were carried out without sufficient reference to literacy work and "have been informative in character, with no precise purpose in view" (UNESCO, 1970, p. 29). In that respect alone, it was felt that the role of evaluation was not clearly understood nor appreciated in the manner that it should have been in developing a program of any caliber for adult illiterates. Consequently, there remains considerable doubt as to the manner in which to proceed in the future.

Other Assumptions Concerning the Causes of and Subsequent Effects of Functional Illiteracy

A few researchers and writers addressed themselves to the problem of lack of commitment and participation in learning to read and write (Lewis, H., 1974; Lewis, M., 1953; Thomas, 1970; Thomas, 1976; UNESCO, 1970). In most cases, a number of contributory conditions appear to combine in making it difficult for a child to become literate. While one of the less emphasized is the complexity of the skills necessary to acquire literacy, the following constitutes some of the major predisposing conditions: absence from school, illness, lack of intellectual ability, general physical defects, emotional problems, unfavourable home conditions (Lewis, H., 1974; Lewis, M., 1953). When a person's own personal motivation becomes adversely affected by any one or a combination of such predisposing conditions, as well as a condition that predominated in the Northern Peninsula communities--lack of a school and/or lack of teachers--then the challenge of combating adult illiteracy becomes much greater. That is, it involved more than one force (a person's own for example) to motivate the people who are illiterate to come forward and seek help for themselves. Thomas (1976) addressed himself to that problem and stressed that, to begin with, broadcasting companies can, for example, be utilized to:

> attack the sense of embarrassment, shame, stigma and ignorance that are the barriers to people coming

> forward to learn, The sense of isolation and ignorance, i.e., not knowing that others have similar problems, is staggering. (Thomas, 1976, p. 28)

Along with being poorly motivated because of such predisposing conditions mentioned, adult illiterates might be further disadvantaged because they not only have reading deficiencies to overcome but also stages of educational deficiencies. Studies show that environmental and/or cultural deprivation based on a restricted home environment can lead to problems, such as lack of perceptual and auditory discrimination. Poor perceptual discrimination in illiterate adults may be precipitated by their inability to use other people (adults) as sources of information while poor auditory discrimination tends to result from the individuals not having been in a position to hear someone read to and/or speak to them in a formal way (Lewis, 1974). Subsequently, as Lewis (1974, p. 27) relates: "there is little corrective feedback regarding enunciation, pronounciation and grammar".

According to the discipline of Androgogy, the deprived illiterate adult experiences a loss of his/her abstract vocabulary. In the words of one writer:

> range and precision and his grammar and language in such language related knowledge as the number concepts, self-identity, verbalization and understanding of the physical, geometric and geographic environs in which he lives. (Lewis, 1974, p. 32)

While discussing further the varied assumptions and

theoretical information of adult illiteracy in his research, Lewis (1974) brought together the work of various writers. He relied, for example, quite heavily on the work of Knowles (1973) who contributed quite a bit to the literature of the firmly established field of Androgogy. The four main assumptions of Androgogy, which were alluded to in Chapter One, are particularly relevant to this study because they seem adequate in collating the ideas of some of the previous writers in an optimistic manner. In addition, the assumptions lend some very significant theoretical implications which would seem to lay the foundations for the rest of this chapter.

The first attribute discussed in Androgogy and classed by Knowles (1973) is that of self-concept. Androgogy assumes that as a person develops, there is a parallel development in his/her self-concept. "As a person matures, his self-concept moves from one of dependency to one of ever increasing self-directedness" (Knowles, 1973, in Lewis, 1974, p. 25). When people are somehow or other thwarted in their desire to be self-directing, they may react with resentment and resistance. The implication of this assumption seems to be directed toward the fact that adult illiterates having being unable to develop literacy skills necessary for self-directed living, may experience more frustration, disappointment and self-doubt, and this may be reflected in less positive self-perception.

For Knowles (1973), the second assumption is based on

the role of experience. The underlying philosophy rests with the fact that as a person matures, the end result is a rich resource of experience that functions as a broadening base from which he/she can relate new learnings. Such experiences, therefore, become a person's identity. Added to such information, the writer (Knowles, 1973) stressed the fact that adult educators should be concerned with each stage of development of an individual when attempting to implement plans for teaching. In other words, a 50 year old has 30 years more experience of life than a 20 year old. As such, his/her self-concept differs at varying ages because of the psychological and social forces in his/her environment with which the individual has to interact and adjust to. Knowles seems to be perpetrating the idea that the illiterate adults' abilities and skills should never be underestimated.

Within the third assumption classified as "readiness to learn", Knowles (1973) stresses that there is a distinction which can be made in societies' assumptions regarding the education of children. Pedagogy (education of children) is based on the assumption that children are ready to learn because of a given stage of biological and academic growth processes. On the other hand, Androgogy assumes that adults learn those things they should or need to because of the developmental phase they are approaching in their roles as functional members of society, for example, as workers, spouses, parents, leisure time users, members and leaders of organizations (Knowles, 1973, in Lewis, 1974).

The fourth assumption pertains to the different orientations to learning experienced by both the child and the adult. The child's education tends to have, more or less, long-term goals of learning, or, as Knowles (1973) states, "subject centered .... the child must learn things for which he has no immediate use, for example, elementary subjects in preparation for higher grade subjects" (Knowles, 1973, in Lewis, 1974, p. 25). On the other hand, adult learners are more short-term oriented, that is, they must learn things for which they have a more immediate use. It seems that adults learn better the subject which they can see use for the following day. Such perceived immediate needs constitute, according to the researcher, "problem centered learning which is primarily a result of time perspective" (Knowles, 1973, in Lewis, 1974, p. 27).

Lewis (1974) alluded to both goal theories of Kallens (1964) and Hallenbeck (1964) in his discussion of basic education for adults. Kallens stressed the adult's individuality and stated that education should be the "enabling, creating and maturing of an ongoing process of self-differentiation" (in Gables, 1974, p. 27). Hallenbeck (1964) maintained that the mature personality should be emphasized in any adult education program. He defined the mature personality as a person's ability:

> to live creatively with the persistent paradoxes of human existence; stability and flexibility, balance and activity, conviction and uncertainty, steadfastness and tolerance. (Hallenbeck, 1964, in Lewis, 1974, p. 27)

Lewis (1974) maintains in the same article that the four assumptions of Androgogy relate more convincingly to the basic principles of adult learning (as formulated by the office of Adult Education) than do the theories of Kallens (1974) and Hallenbeck (1974). The basic principles that contribute to adult learning are outlined as follows: (a) the subject learns best when there exists an awareness of his/her felt needs for learning; (b) learning is promoted when the adult learner perceives the teacher as having a personal interest in him/her; (c) an adult learns best when several senses are involved; (d) an adult learns best when his/her learning is put to use; (e) an adult learns best when a favourable physical and social environment exists and (f) when the adult can recognize his/her progress (Lewis, 1974).

Lewis (1974) reflects that good androgogical theory is also derived from the characteristics of adults which affect learning. Such adult characteristics are simply listed below as they seem self-explanatory:

1. Older adults tend to have losses in hearing and vision.
2. Adults tend to pace themselves.
3. Adults tend to expect too much too fast.
4. Adult life competes with the adult class.
5. Adults appreciate the chance to learn.

(Lewis, 1974, p. 28)

In further discussion of people's attitudes, the remaining sections of this chapter will be devoted to the related literature of illiteracy and the key variables of locus of control and self-concept (all defined in Chapter 3).

Locus of Control and Adult Illiteracy

According to researchers, such as Brown and Engin (1979), the concept of locus of control has received considerable attention in the areas of psychology and education. However, most of this research tended to focus on grade school children or college students, avoiding other populations such as those who may be participating in adult training programs. A few exceptions were Bernstein (1967, in Lewis, 1974) who briefly mentioned it and Boyce (1970) and Altmann and Arambasich (1982) who dealt with it as a construct in their research. In summary, Bernstein's work dealt with the belief that the lack of a sense of control over one's own destiny is equally as crippling to the disadvantaged learner as that of no learning, even in those who try to better themselves by enrolling in adult education classes.

With the exception of Bandura (1977), who treated the locus of control construct as analogous to self efficacy, the majority of other researchers seem to perceive the internal-external control of reinforcement (I-E) dimension as an expectancy variable included within Rotter's social

learning theory (Boyce, 1970; Lefcourt, 1976; Phares, 1976; Strickland, 1965 and 1978). According to Altmann and Arambasch (1982), Rotter's (1954) social learning theory is based on generalizer expectancy concerning the control one can exert over the consequences of his behaviour. There are two extremities on this locus of control continuum which one writer adequately defined in the following manner:

> Internal control refers to the individual's perception of an event as contingent upon his own behaviour or his own relatively permanent characteristics. External control, on the other hand, indicates that a positive or negative reinforcement following some action of the individual is perceived as not being entirely contingent upon his own action but the result of chance, fact or luck; or it may be perceived as under the control of powerful others and unpredictable because of the complexity of forces surrounding the individual. (Anastasi, 1976, p. 555)

The above definition did not vary significantly from the original one used by Rotter (1966) when he developed the internal-external Locus of Control Scale to measure the degree to which events influencing their choices of career goals, social interaction and decision making abilities. However, according to Bandura (1977), virtually all of the theorizing and experimentation has focused on action-outcome expectations with limited contributions to the notion of self efficacy. His main criticism of Rotter's (1966) contributions lay in the fact that behaviour varies as a function of generalized expectancies and is determined by one's actions or by external forces beyond one's control. As such, personal efficacy, as Bandura (1977) theorized, is

not related to locus of control. Bandura (1977) sees a distinct difference between perceived self-efficacy and beliefs about the locus of casuality. He maintains that they must be distinguished because:

> Convictions that outcomes are determined by one's own actions can have a number of effects on self-efficacy and behaviour. People who regard outcomes as personally determined but who lack the requisite skills would experience low self-efficacy. (Bandura, 1977, pp. 120-121)

Despite Bandura's (1977) speculation, Rotter's (1966) contention is substantiated by research in which a relationship between locus of control and achievement has been found (Lefcourt, 1976; Rotter, 1966). Several explanations for the sometimes inconsistent findings have been offered. Joe (1971), for example, argued that personality characteristics is one contributing factor. Other researchers stressed that strengths and weaknesses in Rotter's I-E scale precipitated such findings (Harris & Salomone, 1981; Joe, 1971; Strickland, 1965 and 1978). As well, a substantial number of researchers have shown that significant changes in an individual's locus of control is possible (Dua, 1970; Foulds, 1971; Harris & Salomone, 1981; Smith, 1970). These changes usually involve the participants moving toward a more internal locus of control.

A study by Strickland (1965) validated a dimension of internal-external control of reinforcement. He showed that persons involved in social action would be more internal in

their feelings of personal control and understanding of the events that happen to them than would a control group of persons not engaged in social action.

Altmann and Arambasich (1982) addressed the problem of the high percentage of student dropouts in most adult education programs. They noted, as did other researchers (Rotter, 1966; Lefcourt, 1976; Phares, 1976) that persistence and the ability to delay gratification is reported to be characteristic of internal individuals. In their research, Altmann and Arambasich (1982) found that "a significant relationship exists between attrition and locus of control with external students demonstrating a higher dropout rate than internal students" (p. 99). Their study, however, did not support the assumption that locus of control and achievement are related. Another researcher noted that one of the central hypotheses supported in Peters' (1968) study was that participants in occupational education are expected to be more internally oriented than those who do not participate (Boyce, 1970).

In the literature, the concept of locus of control seems to be closely allied with other psychological terms or personality characteristics. These terms, although having their own precise meaning in the general sense, tend to have some commonality. Concepts such as powerlessness, alienation, low esteem, sense of isolation and externality, for example, tend to indicate that adults are at the mercy of societies' inability to impart literacy skills or are victims

of circumstances rather than being in control of events in their lives. Lefcourt (1966) stated that powerlessness "refers to the lack of power to cause ends and is more similar to the control construct" (p. 211). Lefcourt (1966) also emphasized the connection between locus of control and alienation. He referred to external control as "lacking self-confidence or in Adler's terms suffering from inferiority feelings" (p. 207). He further noted, for example, that other researchers (Seeman, 1963; Seeman & Evans, 1962) reported differential learning between internals (low alienated) and externals (high alienated). Boyce (1966, p. 9) stressed the connection between powerlessness and external control. He frequently referred to Seeman's (1963) findings that in a learning situation reformatory inmates, who had the greatest degree of powerlessness, knew less while those who were classified as possessing more internal control knew most.

Researchers consistently indicate that the learning process of adult basic education students may be hampered by personality characteristics such as alienation, withdrawal and avoidance, apathy and fear of schools (Coy, 1975; Lefcourt, 1966; Foulds, 1971). Researchers agree that, on the other hand, the adult learner, who views his environment as more amenable to his personal control (internally oriented), is more likely to participate in a program that results in raising the education level with a concomitant increase in employability should the chance arrive (Coy,

1975; Foulds, 1971). In fact, concerns with control, in terms of man's development of mastery, with effectance and competence, now seems to mirrow this same focus of interest in personality psychology as does locus of control (Hann, 1977). In their research, Harris and Salomone (1981) strongly advocate the use of counselling and/or education programs to make significant changes in an individual's locus of control. This change usually involves the participants moving toward a more internal locus of control by being encouraged to increase control over their own environment by participating more in the decision making processes concerning their lives. In addition, other researchers tend to focus on changes in locus of control in relation to life crisis and crisis resolution (Dua, 1970; Foulds, 1971; Smith, 1970).

Self-Concept and Adult Illiteracy

The area of self-concept, like locus of control, has received tremendous attention in the literature, especially in the fields of education and psychology (LaBenne & Green, 1969; Lowenthal, 1976). However, to date, the available information on self-concept and illiteracy is very sparse indeed. The following information appears to have either implicit or explicit relevance to the population and questions under study in this research.

Boyce (1970) and Lewis (1974), who dealt with the

concept in the literature on adult education, appear to suggest, as do the previous writers, that a positive self-concept is vital to academic efforts and achievement. In his research on illiterate adults, Boyce (1970) relied quite heavily on Super's (1957) self-concept theory. According to that theory, a well formulated self-concept makes the transition from school to work much easier than does a negative self-concept. The results of his study revealed that adult illiterates' self-concept does not change as a result of their participation in adult basic education programs.

Lewis (1974) maintains that schools for the disadvantaged learners enhance their problems by reinforcing their view of themselves as prone to failure. Without reporting any empirical evidence, he states "it is a truism that adult students typically have a low self concept and adult students in detention have inordinately low self esteem" (p. 38).

LaBenne and Green (1969) state that self-concept is generally defined as "the organization of all that seems to be "I" or "me". It is what an individual believes about himself". These authors, in the development of self-concept, rely quite heavily on the four distinct social psychological theories of Adler, Fromm, Horney and Sullivan. At the same time, they seem to arrive at their own theory of self-concept that does not seem to refute either one or all of them.

According to Fromm (in LaBenne & Greene, 1969), the determining factor in personality development of an individual

comes from the opportunities and requirements of society.

In Horney's theory, basic anxiety is the concept which disrupts the security of the child in relation to his parents. She maintains that a child is not born with such anxiety, but it develops out of social interactions. Horney alleges that people adjust to their anxieties in three main ways: "by moving toward people (compliance or love), by moving against people (aggression or power), and by moving away from people (detachment or independence)" (LaBenne & Green, 1969, p. 16).

Sullivan describes personality development in terms of his/her interpersonal relationships with his/her significant others (defined by him as parents, peers and teachers). Sullivan insists that the individual does not and cannot exist apart from his relations with other people (Sullivan, in LaBenne & Green, 1969).

LaBenne & Green (1969) add to the above theories by their beliefs concerning a person's perceptions. A person who has a poor self-concept and who is unsure of himself is likely to have a narrowed perceptual field. As a result, his/her ability to think, act and make intelligent decisions is slowed down significantly. In contrast, the person with a positive self-concept is not hampered by discoveries and explorations of the personal meanings of events for him in his world. Actual approved and triumphant experiences from his/her past enables the person to move forward in the following manner: "He approaches people expecting to be

liked. He engages in activity, expecting to succeed. He feels loved and able as a result of real encounters. Merely being told that one is loved and able is not enough. Strong self-concepts are the result of actual positive experiences" (LaBenne & Green, 1969, p. 20).

According to Lowenthal (1976), a sense of personal control is an important component of self-concept, especially for a life course perspective. She coined the construct of self-concept "fluid" when she considered a model for psychosocial change across the life course. Such constructs are fluid because:

> They are antecedents to, and outcomes of, the individual's commitments at various life stages. To that extent, they are outcomes that change after a change in degree of fulfillment or frustration in any of the commitment areas; they might also be construed as measures of adaptive level.
> (Lowenthal, 1976, p. 120)

Lowenthal (1976) stresses four areas of commitment that possibly offer a framework for theory of psychosocial change across the life course. They are:

1. interpersonal commitment (focusing mainly on dyadic relationships),
2. interpersonal commitment (focusing on the symbolism of personal relationships),
3. commitment to mastery of competence (stresses the sense of control over the world of work),
4. lack of commitment in dyadic or personal relation-

ships or to mastery or competence in the work milieu or as Lowenthal (1976) puts it "commitment to survival or self-protectiveness".

Lowenthal (1976) is quick to point out that even though the fourth has been little studied, it seems to have a strong motivational component and one of obvious importance in advanced old age. William C. Wirths (1965, in Lowenthal, 1976) suggests that "It is for some a way of life and one adopted very early. They call it 'easing through life with minimum involvement'." According to a further study by both Wirth (1965) and Lowenthal (1964) "Men are more likely to adopt this style than women" (Lowenthal, 1976, p. 123). Contrary to these results, the clinical observation of Molton (1972, in Lowenthal, 1976) resulted in the conclusion that it is more common among women, partly because of socio-cultural norms sanctioning dependency for them. According to recent studies of the values and goals of people at four stages of the adult life course, "there is a marked age-linked trend toward this kind of commitment in the middle and lower middle class and especially for men" (Lowenthal, Thurnher, Chiriboga and Associates, 1975, in Lowenthal, 1976, p. 123). According to Lowenthal (1976), the issue of self-protectiveness awaits further theoretical formulations or empirical studies to develop clear concepts, descriptive categories or methodological approaches (Lowenthal, 1976).

Lowenthal (1976) expresses her conviction that the

commitment to self-protectiveness is a major factor in survival in very old age, and, among other things, she stresses that it does warrant serious analytic and phenomenological attention.

In attempting to master the complex problem of relationships between commitment and attitudes on the one hand and behaviour on the other, Lowenthal (1976) maintains that in old age, in particular, commitment without action may be a resource--especially if rewards have been forthcoming in their past behaviour. On the other hand, if the reverse is the case, then "the mere persistence of the sense of commitment" may become a burden because:

> of the restrictions in possibilities offered by the environment for continuation or restriction of commitment-connected behaviour. If there are still involvements in other commitment areas, these may allow for some satisfactory substitution.
> (Lowenthal, 1976, pp. 123-124)

Summary

This chapter presented an introduction to the related literature and a review of the nature of literacy and a historical review of illiteracy throughout the ages. People of all cultures have attempted to eradicate the problem of illiteracy and, as the discussion showed, the problem of illiteracy has been widespread and assumptions regarding illiterate adults and programs designed to eliminate the problem are numerous. Illiteracy is still prevalent in

the western world where technological changes appear to have been greatest. Unable to solve the problem, North Americans have attempted to deny its existence. There are a few on-going programs but people tend to blame illiteracy on the individual illiterates themselves, but, obviously, adult illiterates cannot be ignored.

Recently changes have occurred in North America which show that adult illiterates are worthy of further consideration, and studies, such as Philips (1970) and UNESCO (1970), maintain that some of the impetus to programming should be concentrated in the communities where these people live. Assumptions regarding adult illiterates' abilities have also been questioned (Altmann & Arambasich, 1982) and, consequently, attitudes regarding illiteracy appear to be going through a transition period.

This chapter also looked at attributes such as self-concept and locus of control in adult illiteracy. It was shown that most studies revealed that adult illiterates experienced a low self-concept and, for the most part, this concept tends to change as people progress through the various life stages. With regard to locus of control, some studies, particularly that of Altmann and Arambasich (1982) show that the students who are internally oriented tend to participate in educational functions.

The following chapter will give a description of the population, the sampling techniques, data collection procedures, and a definition of the variables used in the present study.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter is concerned with a description of the population, sampling techniques, data collection procedures and operational definitions of the variables.

Population Description

There is, at present, no data available as to the total number of illiterate adults residing in the section of the Northern Peninsula (Plum Point to Eddy's Cove East, indicated on the map in Appendix A) in rural Newfoundland where this study was conducted.

The population of adult illiterate respondents selected for this study included two groups:

1. participants (which, for purposes of this study, included those who verbally indicate on an interview schedule a willingness to participate in a literacy training program if one existed in the community) and,
2. non-participants (those who indicate verbally no willingness to participate in a literacy training program for adults should one be made available in their community).

In addition, each illiterate adult had to meet the following criteria for selection:

1. Each subject had to be a volunteer who verbally expressed to the researcher, in a structured interview schedule, willingness to cooperate in answering questions.
2. Each subject eligible for the investigation had to have below formal Grade 8 certification or its equivalent.
3. Each subject had to be 15 years of age or over. This 15 years of age cut-off was used because of the Department of Education's regulation concerning a young person's legal age for leaving school.
4. Each subject's hearing ability had to be such that he/she could clearly distinguish ordinary conversational tones.
5. Each subject's articulation and speech had to be such that he/she could clearly present himself/herself well enough to be understood in ordinary conversation.
6. In order to assess the level of literacy, all respondents were administered the Standardized Test of Adult Basic Education (TABE) prior to continuing the interview.

Sampling

The researcher used a probability sampling technique referred to by Manheim (1977) as "snowball sampling". This approach is an extension of the familiar simple random sampling procedure designed to represent a sample of the total population. The "snowball sampling" procedure was effective in the Northern Peninsula communities because it allowed the present researcher to contact well-known approachable adult illiterates initially and from them to obtain the name(s) of friends, workers, neighbours and/or relatives who were also illiterate adults. These individuals, in turn, provided additional names of potential subjects for this study. Once these individuals were located demographically, personal contact was made by telephone or, more frequently, by a home visit before consent to answer the questions was forthcoming. "Snowball Sampling" is, according to Manheim (1977), a particularly useful and interesting way of dealing with a particular kind of data collecting problem. In this research such a problem was posed by the absence of any kind of list of names of illiterate adults or documented evidence, such as a map, to show all the areas where the population of illiterate adults reside.

The sample of the illiterate population identified in this way consisted of a group of seventy-eight (78) adults from 14 small rural communities on the Northern Peninsula. Table 1 provides statistics on the population (1976) and the

Table 1

Population of Communities Sampled and Number Interviewed From Each Community

Community	Population (1976)[1]	Number Interviewed
Eddy's Cove East	106	3
Green Island Brook	237	3
Shoe Cove East	306	2
Green Island Cove	228	9
Sandy Cove	281	4
Savage Cove	307	2
Nameless Cove	124	9
Flower's Cove	436	14
Bear Cove	256	16
Deadman's Cove	33	2
Anchor Point	329	9
Plum Point	163	2
St. Barbe	77	1
Pine's Cove	50	2
Total	2,933	78

[1]Source: 1976 Census of Canada Population: Geographic Distributions, Federal Electoral Districts, Catalogue 92-801 (Bulletin 1.2) Table 2.

number interviewed (1980) from each of these communities.

Data Collection

The primary method of data collection was face-to-face interviews. This type of research was recommended by various researchers. Kerlinger (1964), for example, states that:

> The best examples of survey research use the personal interview as the principal method of gathering information. This is accomplished in part by the careful and labourious construction of a schedule or questionnaire. (p. 412)

For this research, an interview schedule was prepared with a set of questions typed and duplicated. The interviewer asked the questions and recorded the answers directly on the prepared answer sheet, as well as audio-tape recording each interview. This type of data collection seemed appropriate because of specific difficulties inherent in research with individuals with limited literacy. It was anticipated, for example, that most respondents would experience problems with a paper and pencil approach since it would require basic reading and writing skills.

The interview followed a structured format. Several researchers have verified that the structured interview format is the most appropriate. Schwab and Henerman (1969, p. 214), for example, by conducting their own experiment verified that structured interviews are superior to less

structured ones. Their study followed in the wake of three other researchers and their reported results. Mayfield (1964), for example, found that published interview studies reporting the greatest interrator aggreement tended to imply structured interview formats. Ulrich and Trumbo (1965) and Wagner (1949) concluded that the greatest interview reliability and validity resulted when structured interviews were used (in Schwab and Henerman, 1969, p. 214). In this research, the questions, wordings and sequence were fixed and structured so as to obtain the following sources of data (Kerlinger, 1973):

a. face sheet (identification) information
b. consensus type (sociological) information and
c. problem information.

The primary focus of the interview schedule was on obtaining information concerning the illiterate adult's attitudes, feelings and needs (consensus-type data).

The interview schedule was constructed according to both the open-ended and the fixed-alternative (or closed) item format as well as a third type of item, having fixed alternatives, called scale items. Kerlinger (1973) defined open-ended questions

> as those that supply a frame of reference for respondents' answers but put a minimum of restraint on the answers and their expression. While their content is dictated by the research problem, they impose no other restriction on the content and manner of respondents answers. (p. 483)

According to Kerlinger (1973) the fixed-alternative questions offer the respondent a choice among "two or more alternatives". He maintains that two alternative answers such as yes-no, for example, are the commonest form of fixed-alternative (or closed) item. Kerlinger (1973) also defined the scaled questions

> as a set of verbal items to each of which an individual responds by expressing degrees of agreement or disagreement or some other mode of response. Scale items have fixed alternatives and place the responding individual at some point on the scale (p. 485).

A special type of open-ended question, utilized in the structural interview, was the funnel. According to researchers, the funnel questions start with a broad question that is open and free from leading or biasing factors and narrows down progressively to the important specific point or points (Cannell & Kahn, 1957; Kerlinger, 1964). In other words, the examiner's questions (prompting) builds on the response which precedes it. By using the funnel technique, the examiner was able to elicit other information with probe questions. The funnel technique, according to Cannell and Kahn (1957), allows the examiner "to cut off the (respondent's) repetition of previously obtained information" (p. 265).

Several procedures were followed in the construction and implementation of the interview schedule to increase the appropriateness and comprehensiveness of the questions in the schedule. Firstly, the schedule was piloted with a small

sample of illiterate adults prior to the final construction of the schedule to obtain feedback as to its potential accuracy in obtaining information on illiterate adults and their needs. Secondly, the interviewer utilized the reliability and validity reports by experts in the field as to the potential weaknesses and strengths of the standardized measurements such as Locus of Control and Self-concept. Thirdly, in the implementation of the interview schedule, the interviewer used careful phrasing and asking of questions and skillful handling of the interview to insure maximum response from the illiterate adults. Fourthly, to insure maximum efficiency in the interview mehtod, maximum efforts were made to audio tape record all interviews with illiterate adults, solving some of the problems of recording verbatim responses for the qualitative as well as the quantitative data collection. The final procedure was to transcribe every taped interview.

The Locus of Control, Self-Concept, Ideal Self-Concept, Purpose in Life, TABE, and Felt Needs to be Literate measures were prepared for administration during the interview session and every effort was made to follow standardized procedures. Prior to administering the same (pilot) survey, carried out on the initial ten subjects, the directions for the purpose in life instrument, for example, had to be adapted to read as follows:

> For each of the following statements which would be nearly true for you. The number always extends from one extreme feeling to its opposite kind of feeling. Try to use neutral as little as possible. The scale goes from one to five.

The previous mode of response, ranging from one to seven, had to be changed because the examiner suspected that it would create problems prior to beginning the data collection or the sample survey. For one thing, the Purpose in Life Test (PIL) in its original form consisted of 20 items rating from 1 (low extreme feelings about life) to 7 (high extreme feelings about life). The total score, therefore, ranged from 20 (low purpose) to 140 (high purpose).

Midway through the sample survey, the researcher discovered problems. It was found that the PIL component of the interview schedule was difficult to administer, particularly where the response mode (1-5) was not well understood by the adult illiterate respondents. They seemed to find it increasingly difficult to follow the trends of thought explored by the questions. Frequently, one key word in a question, for example, "bored", would stimulate them to begin their own conversation while disregarding the question already asked. Consequently, the examiner would be required to begin the question all over again. Frequently, as well, a word or phrase had to be repeated and explained before eliciting an appropriate response. This process used up excessive periods of time which made it almost impossible to use the scale effectively. As well, the adult illiterates

tended to use the "I don't know" response more than seemed appropriate at that time. However, for all of the remaining five interviews in the sample survey, the directions read:

> For each of the following statements, which would be nearly true for you?

and in these cases, an example of a question follows:

> You are usually bored or exuberant (enthusiastic or joyful)?

If the individual response was "bored", then the examiner immediately attempted to further qualify the answer by asking:

> Completely bored or somewhat bored?

Cutting down the response mode from 5 to 4, eliminating neutral altogether, however, did not appear to eliminate the problems with the overall administration of the instrument. Consequently, it was decided to remove the PIL component from the protocol. Even though the PIL component was eliminated, it was discovered that the fixed alternative questioning approach was, however, congruent with the structure format of the interview. This structure format was used for the rest of the interview schedule when appropriate. As such, it is advantageous to the extent that the respondents were forced to select from among a limited number of possibilities.

An appointed time and locale for the interview was made prior to its taking place in order to avoid interruptions. Of course, there was a need for flexibility within these arrangements in order to allow for sufficient rapport and accommodation of the respondent.

Operational Definitions

The variables in this study have been operationalized as follows:

Internal/External Locus of Control

Felt Needs to be Literate

Self-Concept and Ideal Self-Concept

Internal/External Locus of Control

For purposes of this study, Internal/External Locus of Control was defined as the degree to which a person feels control over life events as measured by the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale. This instrument was used to measure the variable presently being discussed because it measures locus of control as it was defined for purposes of this study.

Self-Concept

Self-Concept and Ideal Self-Concept were defined as the orally expressed attitude of the illiterate adults in the

study as measured by Form 1 of the Self-Perception Inventory (SPI Form 1). Self-Concept is defined as:

> The internal frame of reference within which the individual describes himself in relation to others (Fitts, 1965, in Boyce, 1970, p. 24) and Ideal Self-Concept was defined in terms of the "kind of person the individual would like to be" (Soars and Soars, 1976, SPI, 1975 Revised, p. 2).

Felt Needs to be More Literate

Felt Needs to be More Literate was defined by the type of responses received from the subjects in the study as measured by the section of the interview schedule entitled "Felt Needs To Be More Literate".

Instrumentation

The following section of this chapter provides a description of the instruments, justification for their use, their reliability and validity, and the number where each instrument is covered in the interview schedule.

The Norwicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale

The Norwicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale is a 40 item paper and pencil test that has a yes-no response mode. Originally developed with an item pool of 102 items, this test was given to a group of nine clinical psychology staff members who were asked the items in an external direction. Forty-three of these items were not judged in complete

agreement, thereby leaving 59 solid items. The test was further reduced to its present 40 items after item analysis (Robinson & Shaver, 1973).

For purposes of this research, the scale was further reduced by eight items, thereby leaving 32 items. The eight items that were not seen as appropriate for this research are listed as follows:

4. Most of the time, do you feel that getting good grades means a great deal to you?
11. When you get punished, does it usually seem it's for no good reason at all?
17. Do you believe that most kids are just born lucky at sports?
18. Are most of the other kids your age stronger than you are?
22. Do you often feel that whether you do your homework has much to do with what kind of grades you get?
23. Do you feel that when a kid your age decides to hit you, there's little you can do to stop him or her?
31. Most of the time, do you find it useless to try to get your own way at home?
35. Do you feel that you have little to say about what you get to eat at home?

(Nowicki & Strickland, 1973, pp. 148-154)

In the absence of an I-E instrument, designed for adult illiterates, such changes seemed appropriate. In fact, Nowicki and Strickland (1973, p. 153) state that their scale has been "revised and adopted for college and adult subjects by changing the word 'kids' to 'people' and deleting items about parents". They saw their modifications as being useful for direct comparison between the responses of adults and children. They rationalized as well that the low level of reading skill required and the lack of politically tinged items make it appropriate for use in a wide number of populations. Consistent with such modification, the present reseracher felt justified in further adapting the scale and for the remaining thirty-two (32) items, slight changes were made in several of them because illiterate adults constituted the sample. The original wording of No. 6 (in the 40 item test) which read "Do you believe that if somebody studied hard enough, he or she could pass any subject?" was changed to "Do you believe that if a person tried hard enough, he/she could pass any course?". The changes of the words in the previous sentence from 'studied' and 'subject' to the more appropriate words 'tried' and 'course' for adult illiterates posed less threat to them because learning to read and write does not imply that they would have to study different subjects. The original wording of No. 14 (in the 40 item test) which read "Do you feel that it's nearly impossible to change your parent's mind about anything?" was changed to "Do you feel that it's nearly impossible to change

your parent's (and/or significant others, i.e., spouse, children, friends) mind about anything?". 'Spouse' was used as an option, for example, when the illiterate adult was married, while 'parents' was used when the illiterate adult respondent was single and still under the influence of one or both parents. 'Children' was used appropriately when the spouse was no longer alive. Finally, 'friends' was used when the illiterate adult respondent was living alone and not in any contact with siblings or parents. Finally, No. 37 from the same item pool which read "Do you feel that it's almost useless to try in school because most children are just plain smarter than you are?"-was changed to "Do you usually feel that it's almost useless to try to learn to read and write (or in cases where the individuals could read to a degree, read and write better) because most other people are plain smarter than you are?"

A standard answer key was available for the researcher's use. On it, each question was already marked 'yes' or 'no' to show the external orientation of the meaning. If an individual's response corresponds with this 'yes' or 'no' answer already present, then he/she obtained one point. The higher the score, the more external the orientation. Even though the present researcher could not discover from the literature any available data, dealing with one standardized method of scoring the instrument, it seemed reasonable to (i) make assumption concerning scoring and (ii) take the following course of action. If every individual scored full

points, then he/she was obviously classified as being highly external and conversely, if on the lower end of the scale, then low external or internal. There did not seem to be any cut-off point for internality or low externality. The instrument did not appear to be strong enough to classify the grey area in between. Therefore, for purposes of this research, those people whose score fell in this grey area (score of 16 out of a possible 32 for externality) were excluded from the quantitative analysis section.

Despite this problem with scoring and although this instrument was designed for use with children (from Grades 3 - 13), it was also considered to be quite an adequate measure for the purposes of this study, for a number of reasons. Firstly, the questions were short and concise, therefore, were assumed to be fitting for the attention span of illiterate adults. Secondly, the responses simply called for a 'yes' or 'no' which were also appropriate for the people in the sample who, for the most part, were not verbally inclined. Thirdly, the questions were easy to understand, stated in language that was not above the level of the illiterate adult, and, as such, could be understood by most illiterate adults. Fourthly, the grade levels for which this scale was designed was fitting for the illiterate adult because it was unlikely that the illiterate adult had an oral comprehension level that was less than Grade 3 or above a Grade 12, and fifthly, the test offered flexibility in administration because it could be administered orally.

The Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale has been used with a variety of samples ranging from third grade through college. According to Robinson and Shaver (1973), the main sample included 1,017 children ranging from grade three to grade 12 in four different communities. Researchers provide evidence to support the reliability of the Nowicki-Strickland Scale. Robinson and Shaver (1973), for example, used an approximate sample of 300, divided into three groups of students (range from Grades 3 to 11), and a group of 87 for Grade 12. The results are reported as follows:

> Estimates of internal consistency via the split-half method correlated by the Spearman Brown Prophesy Formula are: r = .63 (Grades 3-5); r = .68 (Grades 6-8); r = .74 (Grades 9-11); and r = .81 (Grade 12). (Robinson & Shaver, 1973, p. 206)

Although the same number was not reported, these researchers completed test-retest reliabilities at three grade levels six weeks apart. This resulted in .63 (third grade), .66 (seventh grade) and .71 (tenth grade). For all intents and purposes, the availability of such results indicate that this scale has sufficient internal and temporal consistency.

Also, encouraging is the reported data relevant to the validity of the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale. A correlation of .41 with the Bialer-Cromwell Scale was found in a sample of 28 children--nine through 11 years of age (Bialer, 1961, in Robinson & Shaver, 1973). Other evidence of convergent validity was given by Crandall, et

al., (1965, in Robinson & Shaver, 1973) when they correlated the scale with the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire for 182, third grade and 171, seventh grade blacks and discovered the following results: "Correlations with I+ were significant for both groups: $r = .31$ and $r = .5$ respectively" (Robinson & Shaver, 1973, p. 207).

Although the statistics were not reported, it has been revealed that internality and higher grade point averages are significantly related. This evidence was derived from a sample of twelfth graders and another of college students (Robinson & Shaver, 1973). These same researchers also cited a dissertation study (Roberts, 1971) which found that internal locus of control and reading achievement for both sexes, and mathematical achievement for males but not females, are significantly correlated.

In terms of discriminant validity, Robinson and Shaver (1973) state that there is a non-significant correlation within each grade level with an abbreviated form (odd-numbered items only) of the Childrens Social Desirability Scale (Crandall, et al., 1965). Even though no statistics for the Nowicki and Strickland (1972) study are reported, Robinson and Shaver (1973) showed that a nonsignificant relationship was found between their scale and intelligence in one sample of twelfth graders and another sample of college students.

Felt Needs to be More Literate

In the absence of any instrument designed to isolate the felt needs for literacy with illiterate adults in rural Newfoundland, this instrument was designed to give a greater insight into the type of flexibility that is needed to be built into an adult's literacy training program for the illiterate population on the Northern Peninsula.

The inventory consisted of 16 items in question format with an inbuilt flexibility to modify the questions in order to (if necessary) obtain the desired response. A follow-up to each response was sought in the form of the question, why?, or why not?, as an extra measure of how these people feel.

The responses to each question fall into one or five categories on a scale of 1 - 5 with the total score ranging from 16 (definite need) to 80 (definitely no need) for literacy training skills program.

Use of the Felt Need to be More Literate Scale

The Felt Need to be More Literate Scale was used for the first time in this study. It was designed to recognize and assess the needs that are most keenly felt by the adult illiterates interviewed because of the absence of sufficient literacy skills.

The items in the Scale were written in a simplified manner so as to gather information that would be valuable in designing a literacy training program that these people would be interested in taking advantage of.

The instrument was appropriate for use with the sample of illiterate adults because of the language used and the flexibility that the administration of it entails. Also, these illiterate adults would feel that they themselves have contributed to their own cause of becoming literate.

Because the reliability and validity of the Felt Need to be More Literate Scale has not been formally demonstrated, it was not used as a standardized measure of the felt needs of illiterate adults in the structured interview protocol. Therefore, its results were used as qualitative data to be dealt with in Chapter 5 as they were not intended for use as quantitative data. It was decided to include the scale in the structured interview schedule after the sample survey was completed, even though the interviewer experienced difficulties in administering it to the adult illiterate population. The nature of the questions elicited repetition in responses by the adult illiterates. It seemed that their responses to most of the questions revolved around their having more job opportunities because of increased literacy which would mean, for example more economic security and which, in turn, would mean that they would feel happier and healthier. To obtain comprehensive responses, the researcher frequently had to request more and more information, which put most of the adult illiterate respondents under more pressure. However, despite such problems, the researcher decided, after the sample survey, to include the scale but to present the questions in such a way that they would be

more accommodating to the people's initial responses rather than pressing for finer distinctions by supplementary questioning. This meant that the adult illiterates were less apprehensive about discussing what they saw as the reasons to be more literate. In fact, the instrument provided an opportunity for further study of the characteristics of these people as well as ample qualitative data.

It was felt that the integration of the Felt Needs to be Literate Scale into the structured interview schedule would be helpful in gathering meaningful detailed accounts of each adult illiterate's attitudes, feelings, perceived beliefs concerning stigmatization, dependency, embarrassment and being handicapped because of illiteracy. The additional question, why?, was posed after each response to enable the respondent to verbalize in a relaxed atmosphere, their perception of the function of literacy in a variety of areas. They discussed how they felt in terms of working, helping others, relating to siblings, peers, spouses and politicians and taking part in passive activities such as viewing television and listening to the radio. The illiterate adults' responses to numbers 51 - 67, for example, gave a clear indication of the perceptions of the value of literacy.

The Test of Adult Basic Education (TABE, Level M, Form 3)

The Test of Adult Basic Education (TABE) was administered to determine the degree of congruence between the

subjects' self-reported level of educational attainment and their educational level as measured by this instrument, which has received wide use as an educational measure with illiterate adults. The TABE is a battery of tests designed to measure achievement in reading, mathematics and language. Such are the three basic skills "required to function in a society that demands their constant use. The test items are those adapted from the 1970 edition of the California Achievement Test" (Tiegs and Clark, 1976, p. 1). According to the manual, the test items reflect, among other things, appropriate language and content for the adults and "measure the understanding and application of conventions and principles. It is designed for use in a variety of educational settings to fill a number of assessment and instructional needs" (Tiegs & Clark, 1976, p. 1). The TABE consists of three levels--E (Easy), M (Medium) and D (Difficult). Subsequently, these three levels are appropriate to measure continuous skill progress in the learning skills.

For purposes of this study, two of the achievement tests, Section 1 (vocabulary) and Section 2 (comprehension) from Level M, were employed because the application of language skills are emphasized in them (Tiegs & Clarke, 1976). Neither Level E nor D were employed because they did not seem appropriate and also because of the time-consuming task of administration. In addition, as Tiegs and Clark (1976) emphasized, the lower level (E) judges reading

and mathematics as the areas most useful in assessing instruction needs and this research did not need to test mathematics for assessing instructional needs. Level D was felt to be inadequate for purposes of this research because it measures far greater advanced skills than the researcher suspected would exist among the greater number of adult illiterates to be interviewed. Consequently, Level M, Form 3, was employed for purposes of this research in the absence of a more appropriate instrument.

Since the first two sections in Level M, vocabulary and comprehension, constitute the first area with a combined time of 82 minutes for the administration of them both (that is without a pause between each), then the remaining eight sections of the same level would be almost impossible to carry out with so large a population. Any attempt to provide further test results would probably be unrealistic.

The reading vocabulary section contains 40 items. Each item consists of a stem word and a list of four alternative words. From the four alternatives provided for each item, the student is to choose the best meaning to suit the stem word. The student's ability to choose one of the possible meanings of a word to fit a particular context is measured (Tiegs & Clark, 1976).

The comprehension section contains 42 items, the first six of which measure reference skills. The 36 items remaining, based on four reading passages, measure the student's ability to recall specific facts presented in the

passages, to understand the main ideas in the passages and to make reasonable inferences based on information presented in the passages (Tiegs & Clark, 1976).

The reading vocabulary and comprehension section of Level M (as are all other sections) are equipped with the self-scoring answer sheet called the SCOREZE. The SCOREZE is attached and sealed to the back of the answer sheet so that all the examiner has to do at the end of the testing time is count the number of correct responses to obtain the score. This score can then be converted to a grade equivalency score from the table conveniently located in the manual of TABE.

It is interesting that the grade equivalent to the total raw scores range from Grade 3.0 (lower limit) to Grade 10.0 (upper limit). There is no further breakdown below Grade 3. For purposes of this research, however, a raw score of 0-26 refers to less than a Grade 3 equivalency. A raw score of 27 meant Grade 3, while, as the manual specifies, a raw score of 28 can mean a grade equivalency of 3.1 or 3.2.

Self-Concept and Ideal Self-Concept Scales

Both the Self-Concept and the Ideal Self-Concept constructs were measured by the student form of the Self-Perception Inventory. This inventory consists of three forms: student forms--the only one used for this research, the adult forms and the teacher forms. Each of these forms

have a forced-choice type of semantic differential containing four categories maintained along with a continuum between two terms opposite in meaning. The questions delivered in sentence format allows for 20 bipolar pairs of traits to be measured. Each form of the inventory was designed to measure different components of perceptions of the self as a person.

The teacher forms measure eight components of perceptions of the self while the adult form measures seven components and the student form measures 10 components, which are listed as follows:

1. Self-Concept (SC) - how the individual sees the self as a person;
2. Reflected Self-Friends (RS_F) - how the individual thinks friends look at him/her as a person;
3. Reflected Self-Teachers (RS_T) - how the individual thinks teachers look at him/her as a person;
4. Reflected Self-Parents (RS_P) - how the individual thinks parents look at him/her as a person;
5. Ideal Concept (IC) - what kind of person the individual would like to be;

6 & 7. Perceptions of Others

(O.P.-A/M & O.P.-A/F - significant people in the individual's life rate him/her as a person on the same traits as those used to rate the self (both male and female forms).

8. Student Self (SC_S) - how the individual sees himself/herself as a student.

9 & 10. Perceptions of Other/Student Self (O.P. - S/R_M and O.P. - S/R_F) - how others see the individual as a student (both male and female forms).

(Soares & Soares, 1975, pp. 2-3)

For each component of each form, the sentences were changed as variants of the same traits in order to make them form appropriate. An item in the Self-Concept component, for example, "I am relaxed" becomes "I wish I were relaxed" in the Ideal Self-Concept index.

For purposes of this research, the student forms designed for use with Grades 1 - 12 were implied. The Self-Concept and Ideal Self-Concept components of this form were selected for several reasons. First, the authors of the test argue that these are separate indices, can be scored separately and permit the calculation of an index score. They report, for example, on the student form that the correlation between the Self-Concept and the Ideal Self-Concept is .13 (Soares & Soares, 1975, p. 19). Second, these two indices are consistent with one of the assumption that illiterate adults may experience less self-esteem and are more likely to have a greater discrepancy between their perceptions of self and how they would ideally like to see themselves. Third, it was felt by the researcher that the administration of all 10 indices of the student form of the

Self Perception Inventory would have been too time consuming and demanding of the subjects. Fourth, the questions were short and concise, particularly upon completion of the minor changes in administering them during the sample survey alluded to in a later section. Fifth, the semantics, which referred to school attendance, interaction with teachers, classmates and/or parents, was changed when appropriate for the adult illiterates in the study who were expected to respond to the questioning. Sixth, and one which ties in very closely with the last reason, each item was stated in language that was not above the level of the illiterate adults and, as such, could be understood by them without intimidation. As well, the researcher felt that more difficulty would have been forthcoming in this regard had the adult form been employed rather than the student form. Words, such as "pessimistic", "optimistic", "impulsive" and "enthusiastic", for example, found in the adult form, would probably have been more labourous to administer. Seventh, the level for which this form was designed (Grades 1 - 12) did not pose a problem because it was administered orally and the adult illiterates' oral skills were advanced enough to adequately respond to the questions posed in sentence format. Eight, it allowed for oral administration which was easy and appropriate. The responses were quickly obtained, which was reflected in the ways these people seemed to enjoy that section of the interview schedule.

Although the instrument responses initially called for

one of four choices, the examiner experienced difficulty during the sample survey in presenting each item smoothly and, at the same time, obtain the desired responses without confusing the respondent. After this discovery, the administrative procedures were modified and required that the respondent choose one of two on the continuum. For example, "I am strong or I am weak" was presented first. If, for example, the person saw himself/herself as weak, then he/she was then asked to choose between the categories of (1) very weak or (2) more weak than strong. This process was then repeated for each of the 20 items in both the Self-Concept and the Ideal Self-Concept components. After the sample survey, the researcher could easily administer the scale to obtain the desired response.

A standard answer sheet was available for the researcher's use. For each respondent, one of four choices was verbally given and the researcher could accurately and very quickly tabulate which of the four categories was chosen. The tape recording of each respondent also provided for further accuracy in recording the answers. With the four spaces of distance between the two ends of the continuum, the "very" positive position received a score of +2 when checked; the "more" positive position, a score of +1; "more" negative, -1; and "very" negative, -2. The algebraic sum of these individual dimension scores yields an index score for each measure of the Self-Concept and the Ideal Self-Concept.

No data bearing on internal consistency is reported,

even though research provided by the two scale developers (Soares & Soares, 1967, 1972; revised 1975) does give support for the reliability of the Self Perception Inventory. In the manual, the authors of the inventory report test retest reliability coefficients of .88 for the Self-Concept Index and .84 for the Ideal Self-Concept Index (Soares & Soares, 1975, p. 19). An example of the response mode used for each is as follows:

HAPPY				UNHAPPY
Very Happy	More Happy than Unhappy	More Unhappy than Happy	Very Unhappy	

The data reported by Soares and Soares (1967, 1972; revised 1975) concerning the validity was also encouraging. According to them, all forms of the SPI correlates well (.68) with the Coopersmith Inventory, using an unspecified sample. Other researchers also found evidence of convergent validity. Getsigner, et al., (1972), for example, reported a correlation of .63 with the Coopersmith Scale. To date, no data appears to be available on discriminant validity of the instrument. The only evidence of predictive validity could be found in a published report by the authors who found disadvantaged children to have higher esteem (Soares & Soares, 1969). High esteem is always the accumulated answers left of the scale.

In the structured interview schedule (Appendix C) conducted on the adult illiterates, the answers to the

questions concerned with age, community, sex, marital status, leisure time activities, sources of family income and the approximate gross annual income per family were derived from question numbers 1 to 09. Thus, the age, leisure activities and socio-economic status of each family could be established. Numbers 10 - 11 dealt with family size and numbers 12 - 14 dealt with a breakdown of their different occupations, that of their parents and spouses, and the length of time spent at these occupations. Numbers 15 - 18 included questions that pertained to levels of education of various family members and also dealt with the reasons why schooling stopped. The Internal/External Locus of Control questions were found in numbers 19 - 50. The Felt Needs to be More Literate Scale was administered in numbers 51 - 57. The Self-Concept Scale was delivered in numbers 68 - 87. The Ideal Self-Concept Scale was given in numbers 88 - 107.

CHAPTER 4

SOCIAL, ECONOMIC, PERSONAL AND EDUCATIONAL DIMENSIONS OF ILLITERACY

It is sometimes speculated that adult literates differ from those who are illiterate on a number of important attitudinal, familial and personal attributes. However, it is possible that in any rural community with a limited economic base and minimal employment opportunities, plus a fairly homogeneous life style, these two groups may not be distinguishable on such dimensions. Even though this study did not undertake to compare adult illiterates with those who are more literate, it did, however, attempt to determine the various attitudes, familial and other background variables of the illiterate population interviewed. Such data provide some interesting and possibly useful information for those who are planning literacy training programs for rural Newfoundland.

As Table 2 shows, the highest percent (37% of the adult illiterates interviewed for this study are generally found in the middle age group. As well, the majority (65%) were males. Also, the majority (69%) of these people interviewed are more likely to be married than single, widowed, separated or divorced. Of course, this is related to the fact that most of the people interviewed are older and are most likely to be married. In fact, the highest percent

TABLE 2

PARTICIPATION IN ADULT BASIC LITERACY TRAINING PROGRAMS
BY AGE, SEX AND MARITAL STATUS

Group	AGE								SEX				MARITAL STATUS				Row Total	
	17 - 30		31 - 40		41 - 55		56		Male		Female		Single, Widowed Divorced		Married			
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Part	13	87	12	67	16	55	5	31	27	53	19	70	12	75	34	55	46	59
N Part	2	13	6	37	13	45	11	69	24	47	8	30	4	25	28	45	32	41
Column Total	15	19	18	23	29	37	16	21	51	65	27	35	16	21	62	69	68	100

(81%) of the people in the study were thirty-one years old or older, with 58% being above forty-one. The fact that there were more male than female illiterates in the families contacted is also interesting. This would appear to be precipitated by both historical and cultural factors. Historically, girls went to school longer than boys. Historically, in Newfoundland society, with its traditional fishery and subsistence economy, there were jobs for 11, 12, or 13 year old boys to do. Consequently, they could leave school, whereas girls, except for household chores, became employed later in life. Unless females were forced to leave school for economic reasons, they were at leisure to remain there even if they were not encouraged to do so. Therefore, boys were more an economic asset whereas girls were somewhat of a liability. Such appears to be related to the fact that culturally in Newfoundland, there has always been a division of labour. Boys were of more benefit in the work world because the family then received extra income. Women, if at home, did not receive an economic income but they helped with the work by drying and salting fish, for example. They took more responsibility for domestic tasks, did most of the paper work, the household accounts and generally handled most of the correspondence while their husbands, who were employed in the fishery, for example, usually relied on them. Of course, as a result of such traditional roles and expectations of the women folk, it is also almost entirely possible that they tended to maintain and

consistently increase their basic literacy skills while the men did not. In addition, there is empirical evidence that females, particularly in the earlier school years, do better with schooling than boys. Many reasons are advanced to explain this phenomenon. Included among them are:

(a) differences in development;

(b) a lack of compatibility between typical male behaviour and the expectations of the school; and

(c) the view that boys experience tension and anxiety and consequently are more frequently diagnosed as learning disabled children than is the case for girls around the same age (Bentzen, 1966; Davis & Slobodian, 1967).

Thus far, several important personal characteristics of the adult illiterates in this study have been identified. To establish a profile, it is interesting that the typical adult illiterates were characterized as likely to be males who are over 30 years old and who are more likely to be married.

Economic and Social Motivations

To further establish a profile of the adult illiterates interviewed from the various Northern Peninsula communities, information was accumulated regarding variables such as:

reasons schooling stopped as recalled by those persons interviewed, felt needs to be literate, possible stigmatizing effects of illiteracy, dependency resulting from it and their expressed independence despite illiteracy. This information was analyzed as qualitative data and included in Chapter 5. As well, during the structured interview, data was sought on a variety of occupation, economic, educational and familial variables. Such information, however, is represented in the following categories:

1. Occupational
   (a) those classifications that the adult illiterates saw themselves in;
   (b) the number of years in these occupations and
   (c) the type of occupational training.

2. Income Sources
   (a) the source of their own personal income and
   (b) that of their spouses;
   (c) their salary and
   (d) the number of people receiving money in that family.

3. Familial
   (a) the number of offspring and
   (b) the number of dependents.

4. Educational
   (a) reported educational level of the illiterate

adult;

(b) grade equivalent from the total TABE score;

(c) mother's education level and

(d) father's education level.

The occupational classifications used in this study and shown in Table 3 were not predetermined by the researcher but rather emerged from the responses given by the illiterate adults to the question posed concerning their occupational title. Another qualifier was the way in which these people perceived their own occupational category, even though they might be currently unemployed and receiving social assistance for some time. It is interesting that the highest number (16) classified themselves as domestic workers. Such a proportion (21%) is not surprising when one considers that most of the females interviewed considered themselves as having a domestic type occupation. Forty percent classified themselves as either small boat or inshore fishermen or labourers. In fact, this is probably fairly typical of occupational patterns within the total community. Despite the level of illiteracy, a significant number (14 or 18%) of the population studied identified themselves as having fairly challenging occupations such as longliner captains and/or owners or skilled workers, in particular, carpentry. As well, nine percent reported that they were in longliner fishing which demanded more skill and, according to them, offered a greater opportunity for economic success than the

TABLE 3

ADULT ILLITERATES BY OCCUPATIONAL CLASSIFICATION

	OCCUPATIONAL CLASSIFICATIONS																	
	Small Boat Fishing		Long Liner Fishing		Long Liner Captain and/or Owner		Skilled Worker (ie Carpenter)		Clerical		Laborer		Domestic		Hospital Maintenance (eg. Aid, Janitor)		Total	
Adult Illiterates	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Part	9	60	4	57	3	75	5	50	2	40	10	67	11	69	2	40	46	60
N Port	6	40	3	43	1	25	5	50	3	60	5	33	5	31	3	60	31	40
Column Total	15	20	7	9	4	5	10	13	5	6	15	20	16	21	5	6	77	100

inshore fishery. The remaining 12 percent worked in a clerical capacity or in hospital related occupations such as maintenance, janitorial work or nurses aide, all of which constituted semi-skilled occupations.

In a breakdown of the number of years in their occupations, the results show that the highest number (34) of the adult illiterates interviewed remained in the same occupation for most of their working lives while a smaller number remained from five to ten years (Table 4). Such results seem to be understandable when one realizes the limited variety of available employment in these communities. Then again, for those adult illiterates who remained in their occupations for less than or equal to one year (13%) and for those who remained between two and five years (17%), it is also possible that circumstances might have required them to move away from their respective communities and work away from home for indefinite periods of time. The nature of their occupations required them to move to more industrial centers in Newfoundland and Labrador where jobs of their calibre were available. Such occupational mobility is a very common practice in these rural communities and as such appears to be consistent with traditional occupational patterns in Newfoundland.

As Table 4 shows, out of the total number who responded to the question posed concerning their type of occupational training, a significantly high number (68) said that they were self-taught while the remaining number (9) received

TABLE 4

ADULT ILLITERATES BY NUMBER OF YEARS IN THEIR OCCUPATIONAL CLASSIFICATION AND TYPE OF OCCUPATIONAL TRAINING

	NUMBER OF YEARS IN OCCUPATION												TYPE OF OCCUPATIONAL TRAINING*					
Adult Illiterates	One		≥ 2 and ≤ 5		> 5 and ≤ 10		> 10		Most of Life		Total		On the Job		Self-Taught		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
	10	13	13	17	14	18	7	9	34	43	78	100	9	12	68	88	77	100

some type of on-the-job training for their professed occupation. Even though the greatest proportion (88%) reported that they were self-taught in their varied occupations, it seems likely, especially for the boys who are carpenters, for example, that they did so in their early teens when they left school and received a man's wages while they were working and training simultaneously. This would again be consistent with the Province's occupational tradition.

To describe the economic background of the illiterate adults interviewed, Tables 5 to 8 were used.

On a study of the sources of income of the adult illiterates interviewed, Table 5 shows that the highest number (43) were unemployed and receiving unemployment insurance benefits, while a much smaller proportion (17%) were employed at the time of the interview. It is possible that the lack of winter seasonal employment was a precipitating factor to there being so many unemployed. Eleven percent were receiving old age security or social assistance and the remaining proportion (17%) of the total number interviewed were not receiving any income but were depending on other family members for their support.

Table 6 reveals the sources of their spouse's income. It is interesting that the highest percent (41%) were not receiving any income and were depending on other family members for their livelihood. Since most of this number (32) would be females, this number is not surprising when one considers the historical and cultural tradition of the

TABLE 5

ADULT ILLITERATES BY SOURCE OF THEIR INCOME

Group of Illiterate Adults	SOURCE OF INCOME									
	Employment		Unemployment		Old Age Security and Social Assistance		Dependent on Other Family Members		Row Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Part	5	39	28	65	3	33	10	77	46	59
Non-Part	8	61	15	35	6	67	3	23	32	41
Column Total	13	17	43	55	9	11	13	17	78	100

TABLE 6

ADULT ILLITERATES BY SOURCE OF THEIR SPOUSE'S INCOME

Group of Illiterate Adults	SOURCE OF SPOUSE'S INCOME									
	Employment		Unemployment		Old Age Security and Social Assistance		Dependent on Other Family Members		Row Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Part	7	50	16	70	4	44	19	59	46	59
Non-Part	7	50	7	30	5	56	13	41	32	41
Column Total	14	18	23	30	9	11	32	41	78	100

distribution of labour for income in these rural communities. Less than one-fifth (18%) of the spouses were working at the time of the interview. Thirty percent of the spouses were receiving unemployment insurance benefits while the smallest percent (11%) were receiving social assistance or old age security.

As a result of the question posed regarding their total family income, Table 7 shows some interesting information. It is not surprising that the highest percent (31%) said that their family received between $11,000 and $15,000 per year, especially when one considers their occupational classification. It seems likely that these adult illiterates would be involved in the higher fishing industry (long-liner) or in some semi-skilled occupation such as a carpenter. For those (13%) who reported their approximate earnings of between $15,000 and $20,000 per year, it seems likely that they would classify themselves as long-liner captains and/or owners who may also employ some other family member for an indefinite period of time during the fishing season. It is also entirely possible that some of these illiterate adults are working all year round as a general maintenance man, for example, and gaining the extra salary through working overtime. Forty-five percent of the total respondents (74) reported earning $10,000 or less and, out of that proportion, slightly over one-half (23%) earned $5,000 or less for one year. Of course, a percentage of the latest figure would be accounted for by those who are receiving old age security or

TABLE 7

PARTICIPATION IN LITERACY TRAINING PROGRAMS BY SALARY AND NUMBER OF PEOPLE RECEIVING MONEY IN EACH FAMILY

	SALARY												INCOME RECEIPIENTS IN FAMILY							
	5,000		5,000 and 10,000		11,000 15,000		15,000 and 20,000		Unknown		Total		One		Two		Three-Six		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Part	7	41	13	81	15	65	5	50	4	50	44	59	19	73	16	50	11	55	45	58
Non Part	10	59	3	19	8	35	5	50	4	50	30	41	7	28	16	50	9	45	32	42
Column Total	17	23	16	22	23	31	10	13	8	11	74	100	26	33	32	41	20	26	77	100

social assistance.

Table 7 demonstrates that out of the total number (77) who responded to the question concerning the number of people in their family receiving money, the highest number (32) reported having two income recipients. A smaller number (26) were single income families while the remaining proportion (26%) of the total had between three to six income recipients.

To present some measure of family size, the question regarding the number of offspring surviving was posed and the results are presented in Table 8. Almost one-half (47%) of the illiterate families in this study reported having four or more children. A smaller percent (31%) said they had one or no children, while the remaining and smallest proportion (22%) said they had two or three children.

As Table 8 also shows, the highest percentage (37%) said they had one or no dependents. This might be related to the fact that the majority of the adult illiterates in the study are in the older age group and their offspring are grown up and are economically independent. For those who reported having four or more dependents (35%, it seems likely that they are in a younger age category and/or have a fairly large number of children. The smallest percentage (28%) reported having two or three dependents.

Each illiterate adult in this study was asked to verbally indicate the grade he had completed prior to leaving school. Difficulty was experienced for many of

TABLE 8

PARTICIPATION IN ADULT LITERACY TRAINING PROGRAMS BY NUMBER OF OFFSPRING AND NUMBER OF DEPENDENTS

	NUMBER OF OFFSPRING (NCH) (D)								NUMBER OF DEPENDENTS (NDEP)							
Group	One or None		Two or Three		Four or More		Row Total		One or None		Two or Three		Four or More		Row Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Part	17	71	10	59	19	51	46	79	15	56	14	70	13	52	42	58
N Part	7	29	7	41	18	49	32	41	12	44	6	30	12	48	30	42
Column Total	24	31	17	22	37	47	78	100	27	37	20	28	25	35	72	100

the respondents, especially in the older age group because, even though they may have attended school for indefinite periods of time, they had, for example, used the "Royal Reader" and may have progressed through either the 1st, 2nd or 3rd one. Consequently, grades frequently had to be inferred from the type of curriculum used at that time. Therefore, some of the grades reported in Tables 9 and 10 were discussed and agreed upon by the researcher and the particular illiterate adult being interviewed. As a result, the reliability of the reported grades, particularly those less than Grade 3, may be questionable.

As Table 9 shows, a fairly high percent (60% reported having completed between Grades 4 to 8 level of schooling. Out of that percent the highest proportion (35%) reported that they had completed Grade 4 or 5. This overall picture appears accurate and is probably representative of those people who are in the younger age category of seventeen to forty. Forty percent of the remaining adult illiterate respondents reported having completed Grade 3 or less and out of that percent, the largest proportion (27%) are said to have completed Grade 1 or less or even none at all. It was in this latter area that difficulty arose because, while some adult illiterates could write their names and read street signs and labels on bottles, etc., others could not even legibly sign their names even though they all attempted to do so. In addition to the question posed regarding their grade level completed, the adult illiterates were administered

TABLE 9

PARTICIPATION IN ADULT LITERACY TRAINING PROGRAMS BY REPORTED EDUCATIONAL LEVEL AND GRADE EQUIVALENT TO THE TOTAL TABE SCORE

	REPORTED EDUCATIONAL LEVEL								GRADE EQUIVALENT TO TOTAL TABE SCORES															
	Adult Illiterates		Grade 1 or less		Grade 2- Grade 3		Grade 4- Grade 5		Grade 6- Grade 8		< Grade 3		= Grade 3		Grade 3- Grade 4		Grade 4- Grade 5		>Grade 5- Grade 7		Row Total	
Part	12	57	4	40	16	59	14	70	29	51	3	75	5	83	5	83	4	80	46	59				
Non Part	9	43	4	60	11	41	6	30	28	49	1	25	1	17	1	17	1	20	32	41				
Column Total	21	27	10	13	27	35	20	25	57	73	4	5	6	8	6	8	5	6	78	100				

the Test of Adult Basic Education (TABE). The results of that test are disclosed in Table 9 as well.

On a breakdown of the grade equivalency of the total TABE scores, 14 percent of the adult illiterates in this study achieved between Grade 4 and Grade 7. Out of that percent, the highest proportion (8%) scored between Grades 4 to 5 which coincidently was the same proportion (8%) for those scoring between Grade 3 and Grade 4 equal to Grade 4. These results are interesting, particularly when a comparison is made between the reported grade achieved and the actual TABE score. In fact, all of the TABE scores appear significantly lower than the reported or inferred educational level at the Grade 3 and above categories, whereas in the TABE score table, the highest and significant proportion (78) is at the Grade 3 level or less, with the highest (73%) percent scoring below Grade 3.

The question regarding the parents' educational level was posed to determine if adult illiteracy begets illiteracy. These results are not unlike the inferred educational level of the illiterate adults themselves already discussed. In fact, they are probably less accurate for the older generation whose parents probably had a very sparse curriculum, few teachers and very poor schooling facilities and where the sole transportation mode was through dog teams, particularly during the winter months in these Northern Peninsula communities. As Table 10 shows, 69 percent of the mothers and a slightly higher proportion (71%) of the fathers were

TABLE 10

PARTICIPATION IN ADULT LITERACY TRAINING PROGRAMS BY
MOTHERS AND FATHERS EDUCATION LEVEL REPORTED BY ILLITERATE ADULTS

Adult Illiterates	Less than Grade 3				Grade 3				> Grade 3 and ≤ Grade 8				None Write Name and/or Read by Sight				Row Total	
	Mothers		Fathers		Mothers		Fathers		Mothers		Fathers		Mothers		Fathers		Mothers and Fathers	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Part.	16	50	15	50	6	67	5	71	11	73	12	80	13	59	14	54	46	59
Non Part.	16	50	15	50	3	33	2	29	4	27	3	20	9	41	12	46	32	41
Column Total	32	41	30	38	9	12	7	9	15	19	15	19	22	28	26	33	78	100

said to have less than Grade 3 education. Less than one-half of that proportion (28%) of the mothers and 33% of the fathers were described by the adult illiterates in the study as having no formal education but could write and/or read their own names and/or read by sight street signs and labels on bottles, for example. It is also interesting that it was reported that 31% of the mothers and 28% of the fathers had Grade 3 or greater than Grade 3 and less than or equal to Grade 8. Out of these percentages, 19% for both the mothers and fathers were reported by people in this study as having greater than Grade 3 or equal to or less than Grade 8 formal education.

Summary of Occupational, Economic, Familial and Educational Characteristics of Adult Illiterates

Based on the statistics (from Tables 3 to 10), several important characteristics seem valuable in further developing a profile of the adult illiterates interviewed. These occupational, economic and familial qualities are outlined and summarized as follows:

Occupational Characteristics

The people in this study and their spouses were characterized as being unemployed at the time of the interview and perceiving themselves as having a domestic type occupation, particularly the females, while the majority of the males saw themselves as fishermen or labourers. They

were in the same job for most of their working lives because, for the most part, their occupational mobility only meant lateral movements (moving to various communities and working in occupations of basically the same skill level and the same salary) instead of progressing with experience and expertise to more challenging and higher paying jobs. These adult illiterates interviewed were also characterized as being self-taught in their professed occupation.

Economic Characteristics

The majority of adult illiterates in this study are living in double income families with an annual family income of between $11,000 and $15,000.

Family Characteristics

The statistics reveal that the majority of adult illiterates interviewed have four or more children; however, at the time of the interview, the majority revealed having only one or none of these offspring who are dependents.

Educational Characteristics

They were likely to report that they completed Grade 4 or 5 before they stopped going to school and yet scored Grade 3 or less on the Test of Adult Basic Education (TABE). They were inclined to report that their mothers and fathers achieved less than Grade 3 education but that some of them could write their names and/or possessed a slight vocabulary despite illiteracy.

Adult Illiterates and Participation in Literacy Training Programs

One of the objectives of this study was to determine the relationship between the variables selected and the subjects' expressed willingness to participate in literacy training programs.

It appears from Table 2 (p. 90) that there is a relationship between age and the expressed willingness to participate, such that the older the person the less likely the expressed willingness to participate.

This apparent difference was tested by a chi square and, as Table 11 shows, the relationship is significant at the .05 level.

Table 11

Chi Square Analysis of Participation of Adult Illiterates in Literacy Training Programs by Age

	Test of Significance		
Variable	x^2	Degrees of Freedom	P.
Age	10.451	3	.05*

*Significant at .05

It appears also, from Table 2, that there is a relationship between the sex of the illiterate adult and the expressed willingness to participate in a literacy training program, such that 70% of the females expressed an inclination to participate and 53% of the males expressed no willingness to become involved in a literacy training program. A chi square analysis (Table 12), however, failed to reach significance.

Table 12

Chi Square Analysis for Participation of Adult Illiterates in Literacy Training Programs by Sex

	Test of Significance		
Variable	x^2	Degrees of Freedom	P
Sex	2.218	1	.20

From the descriptive analysis and Table 2 (p. 90), it appears that there is a relationship between marital status and participation. It seems that a willingness to participate in a literacy training program would most likely be expressed by those who are single, widowed, separated or divorced (75%). It was speculated that these illiterate adults, especially if they have one or more dependents, may

more keenly feel the need for more formal education and literacy since they are more likely to have the sole responsibility for management of the family unit. The chi square reported in Table 13, however, shows that there is no significant association found between participation and the marital status of the illiterate adults. The results of P = .14 does, however, suggest that this question needs further research with possibly a larger population.

Table 13

Chi Square Analysis for Test of Significance Pertaining to Participation in Adult Literacy Training Programs by Marital Status

Characteristic	Test of Significance-Chi Square Values		
	x^2	Degree of Freedom	Probability
Marital Status	2.136	1	.14

Apart from serving to characterize the adult illiterates in this study, several other variables were studied as they appear to be related to expressed willingness or no willingness to participate in literacy training programs. These variables are presented in previous tables and are listed here as: (1) source of income; (2) number of children; (3) number of dependents; (4) salary; (5) number of people

earning money in the family; (6) reported educational level and (7) grade equivalent to the total TABE score.

With regard to source of income, the majority (43) of the adult illiterates in this study were unemployed and out of that number, almost two-thirds (65%) expressed a willingness to participate. As Table 5 shows, almost the reverse is true for those who were employed. Overall, the gist of such results would seem to indicate that the demand for literacy training intensifies for those who are unemployed, particularly since they have time as well with which to concentrate on improving their literacy skills. When the chi square test of significance, shown in Table 14, was completed, however, the apparent relationship failed to reach statistical significance.

When their salaries were examined as a possible motivating factor for participation, it was discovered (Table 7) that, out of those who were earning a modest income of between $11,000 and $15,000 per year, almost two-thirds (65%) indicated a willingness to participate in a literacy training program. Such results as those are interesting. It appears that there is a relationship between income and participation. It is possible that this salary which seems close to Canada's national average means a greater feeling of independence and status within the community. It is possible that they might reason that literacy would bring consistent economic security and if such is the case, then economic and social motivations do indeed exist. When a

chi square test of significance of the variable was completed, Table 14 reveals no significance. In fact, as the Table 14 shows, none of the above mentioned variables were significantly related to participation.

Table 14

Chi Square Analysis for Participation in Literacy Training Programs by Income Source, Number of Children, Number of Dependents, Salary, Number of Income Recipients, Education and Grade Equivalency of TABE

Variable	x^2	Degree of Freedom	P
Income Source	7.108	3	.06
Number of Children	2.284	2	.32
Number of Dependents	1.785	3	.62
Salary	7.851	5	.16
Number of Income Recipients	3.333	2	.19
Education Level Reported	2.523	3	.47
Grade Equivalent to TABE	5.825	4	.21

Self-Concept and Ideal Self-Concept

Two components of self perception--self-concept and ideal self-concept were used in this research to further our understanding of adult illiterates and to provide some

insight into their attitudes and values. For ease of presentation, the researcher standardized each person's total score in terms of the range for each individual score which is -2 - +2 derived from the range for the student forms of -40 to +40. This figure is arrived at by simply dividing each person's total score by the number of items that made up that score and presenting them as a frequency distribution curve. However, when these standardized raw scores indicated that a positive self-concept and ideal self-concept exists for the majority of adult illiterates, they were not presented in graph form for observation in this research. In summary, therefore, adult illiterates in this study are characterized as having a positive self-concept and ideal self-concept.

Soares and Soares (1965) suggest in their manual that a profile of the stanines for the components of the self-perception inventory would be useful in visually noting the strength and direction of the various index scores for standardized comparison. Because there is only minimal discrepancies between the two components of self-concept and ideal self-concept with both being positively oriented, such did not seem beneficial for this study either. When an analysis of variance was completed (Table 15) between the variables, none of them were significantly related to participation.

Table 15

Analysis of Variance of Participation in Adult Literacy Training Programs by Self-Concept, Self-Concept Stanine, Ideal Self-Concept, Ideal Concept Stanine and Discrepancy Between Self-Concept and Ideal Self-Concept Index Scores

Source of Variance for Participation/Non-Participation

Variable	Mean Square	Degree of Freedom	F	P
Self-Concept	59.88	1	.90	.34
Self-Concept Stanine	1.78	1	1.14	.29
Ideal Concept	.892	1	.02	.90
Ideal Concept Stanine	.252	1	.16	.69
Discrepancy between Self-Concept and Ideal Concept	46.15	1	.47	.49

Locus of Control

In a further attempt to describe adult illiterates, a measure of locus of control was used. As Table 16 shows, a high number (51) of the adult illiterates in this study were internally oriented while the smaller number (2) were externally oriented. Such results characterize adult illiterates as likely to be low external or internal individuals who feel that they possess some control over their own lives.

Table 16

Participation in Adult Literacy Training Programs by Locus of Control

	Locus of Control					
Adult Illiterates	Internal #	Internal %	External #	External %	Row Total #	Row Total %
Part.	34	66	8	40	42	59
Non-Part.	17	34	12	60	29	41
Column Total	51	72	20	28	71	100

The I-E measure was also used to study what factors may serve to discriminate between those who are willing to participate in a literacy training program and those who are not.

As Table 16 shows, out of the demonstrated internal adult illiterates, over two-thirds (66%) indicated a willingness to participate in a literacy training program while the remaining proportion (34%) expressed no willingness to participate. These results appear to show that locus of control is directly related to expressed willingness to participate in literacy training programs such that the more internally oriented an illiterate adult is, the more inclined he/she is to express willingness to become involved in a literacy training program. Indeed, as Table 17 shows, the chi square analysis reveals significance at the .05 level.

Table 17

Chi Square Analysis of Participation by Locus of Control

Variable	x^2	Degree of Freedom	Probability
Locus of Control	5.272	1	.05

The remainder of this chapter deals with the multiple regression analysis of the data. Table 18 shows the step-by-step distribution of variance of some of the independent variables upon participation. As can be seen from the Table, age alone explains 16.2% of the variance. Almost 4% (.034) of the remaining 9% of the quarter variance is explained by the independent variable of number receiving money in the families. Close to 2% (.015) of the variance is explained by marital status while the sex of the adult illiterates has a slightly less effect (.004) on willingness to participate. Approximately the same amount (.002) of the variance is accounted for by both the number of dependents and number of children while locus of control explains even less (.001) of the variance. The gist of such findings reveal that, except for age, the remaining variables contribute very little to predicting participation in literacy training programs. The low predictive values of each of the following: -.103 for high education level; -.108 for self-concept; -.065 for salary and -.046 for income source is

TABLE 18

Participation in Adult Illiteracy Training Programs by Distribution of Variance Between the Variables of Age, Number Receiving Money, Marital Status, Highest Education Level Achieved, Self Control, Sex, Number of Dependents, Locus of Control Score, Number of Offspring Surviving, Salary and Income Source

	Source of Variance.			
Variables	Multiple R.	R. Square	RSQ Change	Simple R
Age in Years	.40276	.16221	.16221	.403
Number receiving Money	.44357	.19675	.03454	.158
Marital Status	.46058	.21213	.01538	.076
Highest Education Level Achieved	.48271	.23301	.02088	-.103
Self Concept Raw Score	.48873	.23886	.00585	-.108
Sex	.49253	.24259	.00373	.169
Number of Dependents	.49419	.24422	.00163	.075
Locus of Control Score	.49574	.24575	.00153	.080
Number of Offspring Surviving	.49805	.24805	.00230	.090
Salary	.49958	.24958	.00153	-.065
Income Source	.50003	.25003	.00044	-.046

interesting. These values indicate that all four are progressively slightly less likely than the previous independent variables to predict participation in a literacy training program.

Summary

This chapter contains the quantitative analysis of the data. Some demographic characteristics of the sample were presented in the first section and a brief summary was given of these. Economic and social motivations also contributed to the overall picture of the characteristics of the adult illiterates in the study.

Since the adult illiterate group was on the whole varying in age characteristics, further analysis was carried out on the basis of age, for example. It was found that there is a significant relationship between age and participation in a literacy training program.

The following chapter will discuss the qualitative findings of the study.

CHAPTER 5

EXPRESSED ATTITUDES OF ADULT ILLITERATES

Aside from the data analyzed thus far, the interviews point to a number of interesting themes concerning the experiences, perceptions, feelings, beliefs and attitudes of adult illiterates in their respective communities. The nature of the interviewing, that is, allowing the residents under study to freely express their attitudes, provides for additional analysis. The people who were interviewed answered the standardized questions voluntarily and yet, whenever an opportunity arose, they were prompted to share spontaneous responses. The transcription of the tapes makes for some interesting observations and provides a very rich source of impressions and valuable insights in addition to providing quantifiable data. As well, the illiterate adult's ability to communicate orally and non-verbally became evident.

The authenticity of their expressions and concerns was verified throughout the interviews because the illiterate population interviewed were anxious to answer the standardized questions, and, at the same time, they were contented to give lengthy unprompted explanations about their long history of not being able to read and write. The purpose of the present chapter, then, is to summarize impressions and explore the ideas and themes

which adult illiterates expressed in their own colloquial language. For example, they often used such dialect or regional speech as "me" instead of "my" or used "gotta" instead of "got to", as is the case in grammatically correct English.

In the situation where the illiterate adult seemed to be experiencing some difficulty in finding the appropriate words to express himself, the interviewer prompted the individual. That is, words were suggested that helped the individual verbalize what he/she wanted to say in a more meaningful manner. In line with the literate which addresses the issues of concern in using qualitative data (for example, Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Johnson, 1975), this chapter isolates salient themes from a content analysis of the interviews. These themes are illustrated with selected comments made by the illiterate adults in the study. This approach indicates that the core (central) attitudes of the illiterate adults may be discussed under headings such as the following: (1) age and illiteracy; (2) social roles and educational needs; (3) penalties or social consequences of illiteracy; (4) stigmatization and illiteracy; (5) illiteracy and life styles; (6) illiteracy and dependency; (7) the promise of literacy.

Before focusing on these themes, it is interesting to note that approximately one-quarter of the adult illiterates in the present study terminated their formal education because of the need for them to go to work and help support

their families. Another quarter, mostly female, said they quite school because their help was needed at home.

Age and Illiteracy

The content analysis of the tapes provided some very worthwhile information that is of benefit in explaining some of the beliefs, assumptions and attitudes that the illiterate adults expressed in a very sincere manner. For example, while talking about their perceived appropriate age, that is, the age that they felt as being the most appropriate for learning to read and write, there seemed to be a commitment to learning during adulthood. In fact, most individuals felt that adulthood might be a more appropriate period for a number of reasons. For example, one older adult suggests that age 30 is more appropriate because: "learning would be easier, maybe would learn in just one year". A second older adult suggested age 17 because students are "not interested at age 22". On the other hand, a significant number of adult illiterates gave valuable and worthwhile information as to why their perceived age is appropriate for learning to read and write. For example, the following two reasons given by elderly illiterates suggest that the optional ages of 30 and 25 respectively would be appropriate ages to go to school because: "you'd probably pay more attention or you'd know what was going on" and "more mature at that age; the

childish things should be put away". The latter seems to suggest that motivational and attitudinal factors are seen as being optimal for learning or for taking full advantage of schooling during young adulthood, particularly during the ages of 20 to 30.

Some illiterate adults considered their own ages (whether age 36, 56 or 65) as the most appropriate because they realize the value of literacy and what it means to live without it. A large percentage of the population made statements similar to one respondent who said: "...I've experienced more so I'm ready now... It's never too late to learn". This seems to suggest that there is a strong commitment to learning plus a fuller experiental background.

The responses given by a number of adult illiterates interviewed seem to suggest that they felt there was a relationship between age and the rate of learning. The individual is more motivated at middle age to learn and subsequently is likely to learn a lot faster. This is indicated by a middle aged man's statement:

> I think if I went to school now, and I could do it, I think I could learn more now in a year than I could in five then (at age 17) because I've had a hard experience.

The comments of others give the distinct impression that there is not only a relationship between learning and age, but that there is a more specific link characterized by definite qualities. Another middle aged illiterate male

suggests, for example, that age 30 provides one with a stronger mental ability and alertness and subsequently a greater capacity to learn:

> I think I'd learn better if I was back in that age (30). More time for learning and also more mind for learning. Now, at my age, perhaps I got no mind for learning. I don't think I can learn now at my age because me mind is not so good.

In contrast to this observation, there are individual illiterate adults who look ahead to the future even if they are 65 years old now. For some such people their own age (65) means that they: "... could have another 10-20 years in the world and know what it is not to have any learning all that time". The spirit of these people for learning is far from dead.

Social Roles and Educational Needs of Illiteracy

A number of statements suggest that some differences exist in the way that young and old adult illiterates see the social roles and educational needs of men and women. This discrepancy of opinion primarily exists between younger and older male members of the illiterate population interviewed, and they may reflect cultural norms and attitudes which are probably not unique to just the illiterate adults. In terms of the existence of female educational and social roles, one male youth feels that it is important for a woman to learn to read and write because: "She's gotta go cooking.

She might also get a job as a typer". Such, however, does not seem to be the case for the majority of male youths who responded to the question. This is especially true when they thought of the feelings of members of the opposite sex. For example, one youth stated:

> Same as a man I suppose because of a lot of stuff. if she wants to know something, she feels the same way as a man. I suppose she can learn things.

A second youth pointed to the importance of a woman's education in the following manner:

> It is important because she wants to know as much as a man. They're getting out in the world now as much or more than a man. Women (prompted) could take over the world.

While impressions such as the above seem to be realistic and more reflective of modern day thoughts on education and social roles as everyones' right, the attitudes of a few middle aged and older adult males are not quite as generous toward members of the opposite sex, and, as such, are probably not related to adult illiterates but are reflections of cultural norms and attitudes common to the older generation of people in rural Newfoundland. Such evidence, as the following comments, suggest that sex role stereotyping is still a reality in the minds of these people and, as such, may simply reflect a long history during which sound roles of men and women were clearly defined, albeit, unfairly in the light of present values and attitudes. One

middle aged man stated: "She'd know something I suppose if she could read and write". A second middle aged adult stated: "It is more important for a man (who) can do better than a woman". Finally, the attitude of another older adult remains as follows: "A woman is kinda tick (thick) in da (the) head, you know, a woman is" (a local expression meaning being slow to learn or of limited ability.

The sex role stereotyping of occupations, as well as life styles and education, seems to be no less evidenced in the attitudes regarding the importance of reading and writing for a man. In fact, a number of adults from various communities came remarkably close to using the same language and thoughts as this respondent: "It is important for a man because he is the head of the household. He supports the family and his wife".

Another facet of family life, that of family size, was explored in the interview conducted for this study. The question about family size was posed in an attempt to delineate the extent of which the adult illiterate perceived, it as a contributory factor in illiteracy. From the research it was discovered that the majority of adult illiterates perceived that family size is irrelevant when considering its importance for learning to read and write. Even though the majority of illiterate adults came from large families, typical of most traditional rural Newfoundland households, nobody felt that it was more important to learn to read and write if you are from a large or a small family. It turned

out that the opposite situation was true for a number of people. They saw strength in the large family. For example, one adult states: "There's more people to feed and, therefore, more people should have learning to help themselves". A second adult saw the benefit of the large family having literacy skills in a more negative light evident in his statement: "Well, they'd have more problems getting through school, eh"? It was also discovered that even if the illiterate adult came from a small family, it was still more important for a large family to learn to read and write because: "There are more (people). There would be more help--better than being alone like I was". Finally, another illiterate adult, a father of a large family, expressed the sentiment that a large family means a greater responsibility because more learning means more money to support the large number of people.

Penalties or Social Consequences of Illiteracy

In an effort to portray the degree by which illiterate adults felt handicapped, several areas were explored in the section called Felt Needs to be Literate. It dealt with economic and social questions, for example. It also dealt with questions pertaining to establishing helping relationships with other members of society. An example of the latter type of question follows: "If you could read and write better, would you feel more useful among your family

and friends"?

It was discovered that every illiterate adult interviewed felt that reading and writing would foster healthy relationships with peer groups, spouses, children, siblings, and/or grandchildren, as well as mere acquaintances. One individual, for example, stated:

> You'd understand them a lot better in what they're talking about and everything would be much easier for meself; (prompted) understand manners, speech and concerns to them and be able to help.

Another penalty of illiteracy is expressed as not being able to write a letter to friends and relatives. For example, one woman states:

> Lots of friends I'd like to write and pass time. You'd know them so much longer when you're keeping in touch with them if you could write em.

It would appear that the skills of literacy to an adult illiterate tended to be perceived in economic terms despite the fact that such skills were also seen as valuable for personal development or self-worth. It was discovered that a large proportion of the illiterate adults interviewed felt that more people would earn a salary in their family if they could read and write better. For some, it meant that the woman (wife or mother) would have no problem getting jobs outside the home; therfore, she could earn a salary. For others, it meant that families would not have to depend on just seasonal occupations. For example, one woman stated:

"definitely (son) could have a permanent job". To another, literacy would mean that a man might have "a better chance of getting a good job and keeping it", and a third man reflects the sentiments of a large proportion of the illiterate population when he states: "I could be doing a pencil job--permanent job--instead of fishing". So it seems that literacy would mean increased occupational options which would mean that they would be less a victim of part-time unskilled work. For other individuals, if nothing else, the skills of literacy would be a personal asset because they would know "how everything is averaged out and exactly what to spend money on. You wouldn't have to waste money". One individual relates that he would save money (as he states) "I'm tight, so to speak, so I can save money enough now (laughs)". As such, it seems that since this man feels vulnerable as a result of his illiteracy, and since he doesn't understand monetary matters, he tends to keep a close rein on his money.

Stigmatism and Literacy

It seems that the negativism associated with illiteracy by the illiterate adults themselves has resulted partially from society's push for education. The Compulsory Education Act, designed to educate as many people as possible, may have only served to stigmatize those people who are illiterate. It seems that the more society comes to value formal education,

the more stigmatized the illiterate adults may feel. The responses given by a large number of the people interviewed indicate that these people have indeed become aware of the social stigma attached to illiteracy. They seem to be saying that society should hesitate to infer that these people are calling themselves 'stupid' or in the words of a few 'stund', but rather the opposite.

Many respondents felt compelled to protest what they perceive as the all-too-common assumption that illiteracy means a lack of intelligence. For example, one successful fishing vessel captain states:

> It is a bad kind of life to be living, having to depend on other people. Anyone who cannot read you're always lost, especially on a boat unless you know the coast like ABC. On our fishing ground now, we don't need no learning. If I could read though, I'd be able to mark me chart, the drag-net and how far off the land and what depth of water it is in.

A second individual seems to agree with this observation only to the extent that illiteracy acts as a slowing down process in the world of work. He maintains that if he had literacy skills earlier in life, he might have become a captain "long ago if I could". A resentment of what they see as society's tendency to associate low intelligence with low academic performance seems to pervade through the illiterate population. One individual, for example, states: "A lot are stunder (more stupid) than myself around here now. If I had more learning than them (family, friends and

neighbours), I would, I think, help them". A defensive statement such as this may be seen to convey the message that this individual's plight in life is no worse because of illiteracy than anyone else living within the narrow confines of the community.

In efforts to perhaps stifle any presumptions that are likely to be made in connection with an illiterate adult's intelligence, or lack of it, because of their being illiterate through no fault of their own, different individuals made remarks or observations such as the following:

> My father now, he could read every hymn in the Hymnbook.
>
> I'd drive anywhere but reading would help me with the map.
>
> Now there are some things I can read, picked up on me own me dear, and this year I'm learning a lot (Adult Basic Education in Literacy Classes). I wish you had come here before my dear.

There seems to be a deep, almost tangible reaction against the stigma associated with illiteracy and the world of work. This reaction is expressed by the attitude of one fisherman who uses laughter to cover his embarrassment of having to relate the type of work he does and, at the same time, subject himself to being classified by others as a menial worker. He states that reading and writing would definitely help him in his work because "(laughs) I'm not a fish splitter". Yet, regardless of this man's education level and, particularly with such minimal employment

opportunities as exist on the Northern Peninsula, it is conceivable that if the same individual were to become literate, he might feel more comfortable and proud in working for a living and even more justified in doing a so-called menial job.

Another individual gives more circumstantial evidence to suggest that illiteracy is a mark of disgrace or discredit and that an illiterate individual is stigmatized whether he is working or not. This individual adequately describes his social embarrassment:

> Lots of times even if I could write me own name (pause), that would help me in me work (small-boat fisherman). Times I been driving the truck and go into the station (with) a credit card and you have to sign for fuel and you can't do it, eh! That makes it bad for you, you know (prompted); makes you feel embarrassed.

A quote of another individual expresses as: "I wouldn't feel ashamed", clearly emphasizes, along with the last passage, that the stigma attached to illiteracy is acutely felt by the individual. In response to the leading question about future happiness and literacy, one individual states, for example:

> I'd be proud to know how to read and write. I wouldn't feel like covering up you know. Like when someone give me a note (to go to the store), I pretend to them I've forgotten or then I have to give it to the shopkeeper and walk around looking busy until they got things for me. Sometimes, I'd rather take (my wife) with me to pick up things.

Because they cannot read and write, and because they

are aware of the stigma associated with their illiteracy, people seem to have experienced tremendous anxieties or fear reactions characterized by avoidance of situations which make obvious their lack of reading and writing skills or generally threaten to make them feel uncomfortable regarding their illiteracy. This fear of other people is expressed by the statements of one individual: "I don't go to no houses, eh. Can't mix with no one, can't even go to the hospital--I can't relax". Another illiterate adult verbalized her fear, which also influences her behaviour, in the following manner:

> Like when you go to a meeting and there's things you want to say but just don't and you think well if you say something wrong, a lot of people are just gonna laugh at you so you just got to sit down and keep your mouth shut as you don't want to feel ashamed.

The stigma of illiteracy is not only restricted to work environments, being a patient in a hospital, attending social events, and attending community meetings, but also is felt in church itself, even though church activities are at the center of many of their lives. For example, one woman observed:

> Going down to church (distressed voice), sticking up and watch and can't look at your book is something more shameful. Yes, I feels right ashamed. I never goes up near to where the minister can look at me because I feels too ashamed. I always go back so far as I can.

For other individuals, this deficiency associated with lack of literacy skills seems to culminate in their feelings of

intimidation with people from political spheres. For example, one individual states:

> Understanding those big shots like government coming around here, using big words and someone with no education don't understand them.

In summary, there was consistent reference made to the stigma which is experienced because of illiteracy. Such feelings, sometimes referred to by these respondents as "shame", are often felt more keenly, apparently, when participating in the routine social events such as going to the supermarket, attending a meeting and going to church.

In conclusion, there is a considerable belief among illiterate adults that a panacea for the stigma they feel would be to allow each individual illiterate to feel happy, secure and competent in an environment where an opportunity to learn to read and write, along with other privileges of human life, exist. Subsequently, they might be permitted to show dignity in work and in their social life and, as one individual adequately states: "Feel proud (prompted), feel more confident, feel better about meeting people and travelling more. Yes, in many ways".

Illiteracy and Life Styles

One of the areas explored in the interview conducted for this study was the extent and nature of what the individuals could identify as their recreational or leisure time activities

in their style of life. For many of the adults interviewed, the responses to the researcher's questioning of this issue proved to be quite challenging. It appears that, for many individuals, living in this social milieu and engaged in seasonal and sometimes work tasks which keep them at home, such as repairing fishing gear and boats, there can be great difficulty making a distinction between work and recreation. On reflection, it would seem that such a clear distinction makes more sense for those engaged in an occupation which has a particular time frame such as 9 to 5 o'clock and takes one to the office or some specific work place away from home. A man who is at home repairing his lobster pots or his fishing boat, for example, is not working for an employer and, therefore, is free to pause when a fellow fisherman or a neighbour comes by to chat about the weather or any community or personal happening. As such, work becomes a part of the individual's life style itself, not separated from it.

In an attempt to determine the extent to which illiteracy was perceived as restricting leisure or recreational activities, several representative or typical statements will be used for discussion. One statement, such as the following: "Oh yes, more things to do outside work" shows that working is a mainstay in their lives and there is some confusion as to how to get away from it. A second adult, again in response to a leading question concerning literacy and leisure time, would want to fulfill a personal desire by

reading "more about a sport like skidooing". Literacy to some means that they could have hobbies and recreational activities such as learning "to play a musical instrument" or, more specifically, as another relates: "I could learn to play the piano. I love piano". Each of these statements concerning leisure time (sports, politics and music) and illiteracy seem to contain the same essential message. All individuals look upon leisure time as not being central to their existence but as a tool that each can use to enrich their lives and make it more interesting.

A number of adult illiterates gave statements that indicate that they also lack the skills to direct or develop their interests or leisure time activities. In this regard, one individual said: "to be able to read (and write), to do your own sort of hobbies, create your own way of doing things to spend your free time". When responses are forthcoming that have to do with the individual's concerns such as "getting along more" or coping with stress in life, such statements as the following make more sense in portraying that illiteracy was keenly felt by them:

> Read a book to help relax more, to sit down more.
>
> I could definitely read more, enjoy life (voice raised), not want to die nor get as depressed.

In conclusion, it would be fair to say that illiteracy was seen as limiting or denying certain recreational activities, particularly reading. Reading was seen as a

form of relaxation and enjoyment was seen as being denied because of the illiterate adult's inability to read and write.

Illiteracy and Dependency

Since a number of illiterate adults gave the impression that illiteracy sustains dependency, then it is not surprising that the state of happiness and being economically stable depends, at least for some people, on whether or not an individual is literate. This dependency might have been exaggerated by their possible desire to respond to questions posed; however, given the consistency of their responses, it is obvious that these people felt genuinely handicapped. The illiterate adult's freedom to be mobile is curtailed in many ways by the absence of simple literacy skills. While travelling, for example, it is a necessity to seek help from others and in some cases even mildly harrass them by seeking and finding assistance and still getting lost. Such dependency of situation is more pronounced when a person feels the need to explain his/her feelings in statements such as: "You'll feel boring about bothering somebody else". Such curtailed independence, as expressed by another individual, is also reflecting the related experiences of others from different communities who, at sometime in their lives, have to move away from home to seek a job or to simply shop. He states:

> Like if I travels, goes around with no education, I'm going around looking at signs and I don't know what they're fer (for) or nothing.

Apart from travelling, there are numerous statements given to the effect that the individual suffers in his day-to-day language or communications with illiteracy. For example, one person relates that there are "lots of words I can't understand you know; I don't know what they means".

Other people gave evidence to support the idea that there is a relationship between education and performance at work and even quality of that performance. In that respect, it seems that literacy skills are also looked upon as agents of change and, without such skills, it becomes more difficult to accommodate change. This is pointed out by one respondent who observed:

> You take (for example) if I'm at carpenter work or something like that, the old way like using tapes have gone metric like, and I don't understand anything about it. Oh (strongly expressed) there are lots of reasons you know like figuring out things (numbers for example) and you know you could figure it out a lot easier.

The statement, "I'd know more (education)", frequently given but rarely qualified any further, is open to any interpretation, be it psychological, social or some combination of psycho-social domain. However, some of the the responses indicate that literacy would promote healthy psychological growth in motivating people to work. For example one respondent said: "Because sometimes I loves to and I can't

read (pause) when I picks up something, see I don't feel too good about working or nothing".

A feeling of dependency with illiteracy is manifested in social relationship as well. From the data analysis, the desire to foster human relationships with, for example, a member of the opposite sex, seems to be thwarted for one young man because he cannot write a letter to her himself. He thinks he has to call on others to help: "to read and write the things that I have to and I can't do now".

A housewife gives her explanation for her feelings of alienation from society in the following manner:

> If I wanted to move outside the house, well I mean like lots of times there's stuff going on that if you had more education, you (referring to interviewer) know what they means (while talking or doing something) while I don't know. I don't understand the meaning of the words, no, I don't know.

The dependency born from little literacy training is explained by another's feelings of incompetence in doing simple household chores such as: "Math and looking after me money and stuff like that, I'm a bit backwards. If I could read, it would help me in shops and in buying a few groceries".

One man emphasized and managed to verbalize his thoughts and impressions of the majority of illiterate adults who were interviewed. His impression seems to be that literacy skills are seen as very important, and they want the opportunity to learn but, at this stage in their lives, the skills of

literacy would act as a pacifier for continuing and perhaps enjoying work more. He states that he would be "more at ease in fishing for a lifetime". For other citizens, as explained by one individual, for example, literacy would combat boredom where a person "wouldn't have to sit around half the time waiting for something to happen". Another individual expresses herself in much the same vein as she states:

> It would be me company, as a housewife, it would be a past time. You take for me sure a cooking book I can't read it.

This feeling explains how learning to read and write would offer a diversion from the humdrum of doing daily domestic chores and where perhaps an exciting hobby could be developed.

There is ample evidence to support the contention that adult illiterates would feel, and, of course, be less dependent if they possessed the skills of literacy. The following statements, each from a different adult, represent a fraction of the number given through the taped interviews:

> I wouldn't feel uneasy but be able to relax more.
>
> I'd never be embarrassed or never feel ashamed or stupid.
>
> I'd be more confident in myself.
>
> I'd be able to do things on me own.
>
> I'd simply feel better.

I wouldn't have to depend on others.

I'd know what I'd be doing .(at work).

I wouldn't need others to help me.

Well, I wouldn't be beholden to somebody else.

To cook, wouldn't have to watch someone else; that makes me feel like a child.

Although such brief explanations for feeling dependent because of illiteracy were readily forthcoming, there were, as well a number of long detailed replies. These replies indicate that the psychological and social inhibitions caused through illiteracy have almost become a part of their lifestyle. For example, one individual states:

> I don't know how to explain it to ya (you) but I think I would feel a lot better if I could read and write. You know I'm going around now, I'm more-or-less like a dummy. You let me in with different people and that doesn't do your mind any good in terms of being strong (prompted) mentally.

Along with being socially and psychologically inhibited because of illiteracy, there are many indications that the illiterate adult does not feel altogether economically independent. In fact, it seems that the gist of the data analysis of the question: "Would there be an increase in your earning power if you could read and write better"? culminated in statements such as the following given by one illiterate adult:

> You'd see a chance to get ahead faster, therefore, you'd earn more money.

Another individual expresses basically the same idea but with more specification in terms of jobs when he states:

> If I could read and write, I'd be handling navigation on the boat with experience I got now I'd have more money sure.

Relatedly, one adult illiterate explains how he has felt disadvantaged in working and earning money in the past in the following manner:

> I've had offers of jobs I had to turn down because I had no learning. Now well if I had learning, I could have a better job maybe even in an office (prompted) doing blue print and reading.

The ultimate desire of most members of the work world is not only experienced by an illiterate population but by a large proportion of any society. One adult illiterate, for example, states his desire for independence as follows:

> I might be at something (working) on me own like a gas station, a barber shop. It's frustration when you can't read and write. You got to depend on others for everything.

Because of their expressed desires and uninhibited oral expressions to be independent, relaxed and knowledgeable about the world of business and transportation, it is not surprising that the majority of people spoke so freely about a topic that obviously deeply concerns them, personally and, as well, the rest of society. Subsequently, when given an opportunity to seek something like literacy, such people give the impression that they are prepared to go to

extreme lengths to get it. Even though the people interviewed have lived with all of the problems created by illiteracy, they are still capable, perhaps better than most of the literate population, of making some accurate observations of a lifestyle with literacy skills.

In an attempt to balance some of the perceived disadvantages given by the adult illiterates, observations were made dealing with the apparent reality of their lifestyles and the fact that these people have succeeded to wrestle a comfortable and satisfying living. Indeed, many have managed to live competent and effective lives despite their many drawbacks. Maybe these setbacks were only acting as catalysts for each individual to work that extra little bit harder to prove himself/herself, to be, as one person states: "as good as anybody else". However, despite this success, they still feel keenly the stigma of being illiterate in a large society which increasingly values literacy. A number of these people have developed skills throughout their lives which allowed for their employability and thereby sustained themselves and their families.

For example, one respondent proudly proclaimed:

> I've never seen a day without work. Worked as a carpenter in Labrador City for 8 - 10 years, fished for the best part of me life while at the same time worked with Bowaters for about 20 years.

Self-efficacy, despite illiteracy, becomes evident with statements to the effect that each individual's coping skills

became almost indispensable. Skills, such as handicrafts of any calibre for example, only need to be displayed and/or orally explained in order for another to replicate. Thus, knowing how to read and write was not essential for people to produce material goods. This is explained in the following manner by one illiterate adult who is well known for her hand worked seal skin moccasins and boots:

> If I had it there to look at now, I could do it just like that stuff supposing I never seen it done before.

The economic well being and the subsequent healthy psychological state of the illiterate adult is explained in a variety of ways. A few suggest that if it were necessary to survive, reading and writing, just like anything else, would have been self-taught. One individual explained how he managed to survive in the work world:

> I learned a lot on me own you know. Trained me ownself in the lumberwoods and at carpenter work. I have operated me own longliner for 10 years now. Well, the money is good.

For those individuals who believe that other people are no smarter than they are, a fair number expressed feelings similar to the respondent who said: "I think we can do it (learn to read and write) if we mind to try".

The positive attitudes of some adult illiterates is demonstrated by their perseverance and persistent ability to try to overcome any obstacle. To that effect some

illiterate adults attempted to transfer how it feels to accept a challenge no matter what the cost. One philosophical view is as follows:

> I feel that you should never give up anything regardless of anything. You got to try hard whether you makes it or not.

The expressed pride of the illiterate adults with their attempts and eventual successes of avoiding any financial compensation easily expresses the extent of their independence despite illiteracy. It is expressed by one individual who revealed:

> Anyway, I never went to the welfare to get no help (prompted) never went to the government for anything.

Along with the independence which the adult population interviewed exhibited, there were hardships associated with that pride which gave another distinct impression which could be looked upon as a criticism of society's present social assistance and unemployment policies. For example, one woman states:

> I never knowed what an unemployment cheque was. I never ever had much money me maid - had to work day and night to get me living.

Despite illiteracy there is ample evidence that some of these people are also active in business and social ventures. They are aware of the uses and benefits of buying Home Owners and Registered Retirement Saving Plans, for

example. Some are involved in business transactions such as buying and selling land. Others are able to conduct all of the household and social transactions such as ordering clothes from catalogues. One woman who studied at a Grade 2 level with the use of the Royal Reader states:

> I can write a letter you know, but I mighten (might not) be able to spell all the words right and when I want to send after anything to Eatons or Simpsons, I always send after it meself. I keeps it up you know.

There is also evidence that suggests that some illiterate adults can function in society as effectively as any literate person. Some illiterate adults also learn to be just as independent as literate adults. In matters such as dieting and understanding the implications of such, it seems that the illiterate adult is just as active as others. One woman, for example, attests to such matters dealing with her health by stating: "I watches me diet. I have a diet plan and I try to keep down". Most illiterate adults feel that they have much to contribute to the community where they live. They are zealous church supporters and church goers and are active in fund raising expeditions for anything that is needed in the schools or community. All of these activities give them satisfying social status in the community. Illiteracy, for example, does not prevent one woman from social participation in activities:

> I goes to bingo four times a week, goes to church fairs and bake sales.

Throughout the data collection as well, there were some indications that strong family ties exist despite illiteracy. For example, this pride is shown by a man's statement made before in an earlier section of the chapter about how his father, who couldn't read or write, "knew every hymn in the hymnbook". Another individual from a very large family states: "Well, now me mother she's a very smart lady. She reared us up all alone 'cause father was dead', eh"! Along the same trend of thought, another individual emphasized his numerous feats which seem to render him independent despite illiteracy. He states:

> I can do all the rest like cash me own cheques, drive me own car, read most of me personal mail except the odd stuff that I don't understand - then I ask someone.

In summary, the verbalizations of most of the illiterate adults seem to indicate that one should not assume that illiteracy means stupidity.

It seems that the skills of literacy are needed more on a psychological domain than in actually doing things in society. For some, their well-being is subjected to stress because of illiteracy, be it at work, at social gatherings or in travelling. Even then, it seems that the people only feel thwarted because of the stigma associated with illiteracy and not because of a tangible need to be

literate. Being aware of these matters, as indeed the adult illiterates are, necessitates the population to want to change to meet the demands of society and that means for them to become literate.

The Promise of Literacy

This section on the Promise of Literacy centered on the illiterate adults felt needs to be literate. The felt need, expressed as desires for the future, are all coupled with the illiterate adult's expressed desire for literacy skills. In terms of future prospects, it is not surprising that most of the adult illiterates would seek a more challenging addition to their field of work. For example, a long-liner fisherman, who had worked at the same job for several years, with a relative degree of success, aspires to becoming more knowledgeable about chart reading and other navigational skills. His desire is explained in this way:

> Definitely help me in moving ahead in life from one job in fishing to a better one. Well, I can see meself doing lots of things like the charts and modern equipment such as radars.

Another individual aspires to a similar goal but one that is also coupled with a feeling of security in the quality of work output. He stated that with literacy skills, he would "have a better chance of getting ahead in work. It's bad when you don't know what to touch".

A number of statements by illiterate adults point to a feeling that literacy skills would provide some needed reassurance about the future. For example, one adult stated: "I'd feel more relaxed" while a second states: "when things come up, I'd understand it better, like what might happen in the future; I'd be able to go along much happier". Along the same lines, another illiterate adult speculates:

> I don't suppose things will get any worse in the future. You don't know but I hope not anyway. I'd feel better for the next 10 years if I could be fitted into a program to teach me how to read and write.

Another individual offers a realistic view of our changing society by commenting:

> Well, everything is getting different. It's not like it was one time. Well, now you almost got to change, and I think there is more of a demand for reading.

The expressed view of another illiterate adult complements this view of societal change and points to the subsequent realistic demands of such changes. It is evident that future happiness would result from learning to read and write because, as that person relates:

> The world is getting more difficult than ever. For example, this what they call the metric system, you could read better in that. I want to understand and learn about that.

Combined with individual's awareness of a changing

society, the illiterate adult also believes that gaining knowledge is essential for future plans, and they seem to be saying that being able to read and write would suffice to provide that knowledge. One person claimed:

> Well, if you're listening to news, you know what's going to happen, you'd understand it better and then you know what to aim for in the future.

The response by another illiterate adult seems to indicate that learning to read and write would be much more than a convenience for the future or as simply a means for happiness and independence but as a crutch to insure mental growth and stability:

> Well, it would help me out you know and me mind out a bit too. I'd love to read, eh! Sometimes perhaps I can't do nothing, and I'd be able to read. I'd pass the time away better. I'd not have to depend on others to cash me cheques or drive me around. I would do for meself.

Another illiterate adult concludes "You'd have more choices open to you in ways to live (if you were to become literate)".

Summary

This chapter contains the qualitative analysis of the data. It expresses the obvious diversity in the attitudes of illiterate adults concerning age, social roles and educational needs, penalties or social consequences of

illiteracy, stigmatization of illiteracy, life styles, illiteracy and dependency and the promise of literacy. Their comments illustrate the complexity of the issues involved as they relate to individual adjustments in their communities and their speculation on what their life styles would have been if they had not been victims of the circumstances preventing them from continuing, or, for some, even beginning their basic education in literacy.

Implications arising from the findings of both Chapters 4 and 5 will be discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Discussion and Implications of the Results

This chapter presents a discussion of the conclusions and implications arising from the results and further suggestions regarding future adult literacy program planning.

The purpose of this research was to study a group of adult illiterates from several rural communities of Newfoundland and Labrador by investigating their familial, personal and motivational characteristics. Selected independent variables were analyzed, both quantitatively and qualitatively, to determine the general profile of the adult illiterates in Newfoundland and Labrador. A comparative analysis was also conducted on those adult illiterates who indicated a willingness to participate in a literacy training program with those who did not. Independent variables such as age, sex, marital status, locus of control and self-concept were examined as possible correlates of illiteracy. Many of the themes, findings and expressed attitudes that arose could not be dealt with quantitatively but had to be covered qualitatively in a separate section.

The remainder of this chapter will contain a discussion of the findings and their relationships to current assumptions about the nature of adult illiteracy and the characteristics of adult illiterates. It will also describe any implications

for the nature and design of adult literacy training programs for individuals similar to those in this study.

The results of this research regarding age revealed that the largest number of adult illiterates interviewed were male and were found to be in the middle age group and understandably were more likely to be married than single because of that age factor. As mentioned in the beginning of Chapter 4, these results appear to be related to a number of factors, notably the Province's historical and cultural traditions. As well, the empirical evidence supplied by Bintzen (1966) and Davis and Slobodian (1967) tends to lend further support for the fact that one would more likely find a larger number of males than females who are functionally illiterate.

Chapter 4 in this study showed that there is a significant relationship between age and the expressed willingness to participate in a literacy training program. It would appear that the younger an adult illiterate is the more likely he/she is to become involved in a literacy training program. This evidence tends to lend support for the work of Lowe (1975) who noted that younger people are more likely to participate in training programs, particularly since younger people do not find it as difficult to compete and tend to learn more quickly than do older adults. However, the findings as reported in Chapter 5 suggest that most of the individuals in the study believed that age was not an impediment to participation in literacy programs. This fact

may suggest that the middle and older adult illiterates were most appropriate because of certain assumed motivational and experiential advantages. This apparent contradiction between this qualitative data and the quantitative results leads one to speculate that maybe the older people may not participate in literacy programs as currently offered because such programs are not seen to be sufficiently directed to their needs rather than for reasons having to do with age. Certainly, it may suggest that older adult illiterates, with appropriate programs, are motivated to participate.

The majority of adult illiterates classified themselves as domestic workers. However, when the fishing industry is generalized to encompass every type of fishing such as small boat or inshore fisherman, long-liner fisherman, long-liner owner and/or captain or even labourers, the number becomes even greater. It is also interesting that the highest number of adult illiterates who were interviewed for this study remained in the same occupation for most of their working lives. It would appear that the majority of fishermen and/or labourers, who remained in their occupation for most of their lives, did so because of their need to support their families in a community where alternate job opportunities were scarce. In fishing, as with other occupations such as carpentry, the adult illiterates could move away from home to seek work in the same or similar occupation in another community or industrial center and,

in such instances, the value of the same amount of work rarely changed. Salaries, for example, did not increase by number of years of experience. Then again, since the majority of adult illiterates, such as a carpenter, reported that they were self-taught and have held the same occupation for most of their working lives, the fact that they did not receive higher wages for their demonstrated skills is consistent with Newfoundland's occupational tradition.

With regard to the socio-economic conditions of the adult illiterates, this study revealed that the highest number were unemployed and had, as their source of income, unemployment insurance benefits. It was speculated by the researcher that the lack of winter seasonal employment may have been a precipitating factor since this study was conducted during winter. In terms of the source of their spouse's income, the highest number of adult illiterates in this study reported that their spouses were not receiving any income and were depending on other family members for economic support. In this regard, the researcher speculated that most of this number would be females and in line with the Province's cultural and historical tradition concerning the distribution of labour for income, the results should not be surprising. The next highest percentage of the spouses were receiving unemployment insurance benefits while the smallest percent were receiving some type of long-term or short-term social assistance or old age security. Less than one-fifth of the spouses were working at the time

of the interview, and it would be realistic to assume that a proportion of that working population were males. In this case, as before, the Province's occupational trends seem to be manifested.

In terms of the approximate annual family income, the greatest number of people reported that their family received between $11,000 and $15,000 per year. Considering the fact, as well, that most of the families have two income recipients, such earnings do not appear unrealistic.

To the effect of the above, there was no indication that adult illiterates tend to be unable to adapt to changing requirements for employment as Gillette (1972), Lewis (1953) and Mullen (1971) maintained. In fact, as one individual stated in Chapter 5, "I've never seen a day without work. Worked as a carpenter in Labrador City for 8 - 10 years, fished for the best part of me life while at the same time worked with Bowater for about 20 years". The results of the research into family size revealed that most of the adult illiterates had fairly large families of four or more children. Such evidence again seems typical of most rural Newfoundland families where a family's economic security and subsistence, particularly in fishing and farming, frequently depended on having more family members involved.

In terms of their reported educational level, a fairly large proportion reported having completed Grade 3 or less of formal schooling, while out of that percentage a fairly

high number said that they had Grade 1 or less or even none at all. While 60 percent reported having completed between Grades 4 and 8 level of schooling, greater than one-third of that proportion said that they had completed Grade 4 or 5. These grades, which were reported by the adult illiterates themselves were, in some cases, derived in conjunction with the researcher's inferred grades from the curriculum existing at that time. The results of the Test of Adult Basic Education (TABE) proved interesting, particularly, as they revealed significantly lower grade equivalencies in the same grade classifications. It was discovered from the TABE that the highest proportion (78%) were at the Grade 3 level of less with almost three-quarters of the total population interviewed scoring below Grade 3. It would appear that such results lend support to the assumption of such writers as Lewis (1953, p. 10) who stated, among other things, that adult illiterates "have not progressed beyond the level reached at the end of their schooling or they have even regressed". However, despite such tenable assumptions the present researcher feels that such an assumption still does not have enough empirical support to be conclusive, particularly because of the inferred educational grade agreed upon by the older adult illiterates and the researcher. There was difficulty in offering an appropriate grade as well because a fair proportion of these adult illiterates reported rarely receiving a full academic year of schooling. As has been noted in Chapter 1 and in

Chapter 5, some of the adult illiterates did not have a teacher for the full academic school year and in situations where there were one, a fairly large number reported that they did not attend for the full year because of the following reasons:

1. They needed to go to work and help support their families.
2. They quit school, notably females, because their help was needed at home.

The question regarding the parent's educational level does not seem reliable as is outlined in Chapter 4 and the results reported do not appear accurate enough to predict whether or not illiteracy begets illiteracy. To that extent, the results do not refute nor lend support to the supposition made by Lanning (1966) that "the twin tragedies of illiteracy and dependency are often passed on from generation to generation". It is conceivable, however, that for those adult illiterates who attended school for indefinite periods of time there is some support for Lewis's (1974) belief that there is no habit of reading to imitate in the family or no reading matter in the home.

The results of this study comparing adult illiterates who indicated a willingness to participate in Adult Literacy Training (ALT) programs with those who did not, as outlined in Chapter 5, provided for some interesting data, particularly in view of the findings of other writers. The results

of the CHI square analysis in this study shows that there is no significant association between expressed willingness to participate in ALT and whether the adult illiterate is married or single (widowed, separated or divorced).

Further results of the chi-square test of significance between each variable and expressed willingness to participate in an adult literacy training (ALT) program revealed no significant relationship between:

1. source of income and expressed willingness to participate in ALT;
2. number of children and expressed willingness to participate in ALT;
3. number of dependents and expressed willingness to participate in ALT;
4. salary and expressed willingness to participate in ALT;
5. number of income recipients and expressed willingness to participate in ALT;
6. reported education level and expressed willingness to participate in ALT;
7. grade equivalent to the TABE and expressed willingness to participate in ALT.

Such results seem to differ substantially from the arguments promoted by such writers as Lower (1975) and Dutton (1967).

According to Lower (1975), in nearly all countries

there are prominent differences between the socio-economic status and educational attainment characteristics of adult illiterates who participate in adult education and those who do not. He maintained that statistical inquiries have revealed that participation, especially in more formal educational activities, is a middle class phenomenon. He further states that the more significant fact is that:

> A positive correlation generally exists between the inclination to participate and the previous level of educational attainment.
> (Lowe, 1975, pp. 40-41)

Earlier empirical evidence regarding the socio-economic status of adult illiterates seems to differ from the results of this study. For example, Natter (1941, in Dutton, 1967, p. 19) concluded from his study that "the higher the social status, the greater is the participation in formal organizations".

Such differences in the findings of this study and those of Dutton (1967) and Lower (1975) regarding the attributes, motivations and consequences of adult illiteracy may suggest that researchers need to be more cognizant of the economic, social and personal histories of adult illiterates prior to making any assumptions.

The results of this study, however, do provide empirical support for some of Dutton's (1965) research. The results of the chi-square, for example, showed that a positive relationship exists between the expressed willingness to

participate in a literacy training program and the age of the adult illiterate. It seems that the inclination to participate increased among the late 20's to 40 year olds while a drop in participation occurred as the 60's were approached. These findings tended to support those of Dutton (1965) except her results further revealed that the participation age differed between older male and female adult illiterates. She revealed that some studies showed that there was an erratic drop in participation for the males but for the females, 75 years of age and older, there was rather a sharp rise in participation (Mayo, 1951, in Dutton, 1967). The results of the chi-square analyais regarding the sex of the adult illiterates in this study and their expressed willingness to participate in ALT programs, however, revealed no significant relationship. Such results (p. 20) suggests that this particular question might very well need further research. It is also entirely possible that this study failed to show significant results regarding sex and participation because it dealt with a very small population of adult illiterates. In addition, it was not an experimental study and the researcher had very little control over the number of males and females interviewed. Maybe a more experimental study with more control over the variable of sex might have afforded more consistent findings with other writers. It would seem, as well, that the theory advocated by Lowenthal (1976) and outlined in Chapter 2 regarding "commitment to survival or

self-protectiveness" across the life course, has some foundation. According to her, men more so than women are more likely to "ease through life with minimum involvement".

This study revealed that the self-concept and ideal self-concept of adult illiterates is quite positive. There was very little discrepancy discovered between these two components which seems to suggest normal adjustment according to the assumptions behind the author's use of their instrument. It is interesting as well that this high self-concept is not eroded despite the fact that when confronted with tasks related to schooling, some of them tend to describe themselves in derogatory terms such as "Oh, I am to stund" (Newfoundland colloquel term for having limited academic ability). When the tests of significance were conducted between the components of self-perception, self-concept and ideal self-concept and expressed willingness to participate in an Adult Literacy Training program, it failed to show any significant relationship. Such results seem to differ from Boyce's (1970) study which showed a significant self-concept relationship between participants and non-participants in an Adult Basic Education (ABE) course at the time of pre-testing. This difference, however, was not evident at the time of the post-test.

Despite such findings, most studies seem to indicate that adult illiterates are all alike. For example, Lewis (1974) assumed in his study that a positive self-identity and self-concept is weak or absent in adult illiterates

and Lowe (1975) stressed that adult illiterates tend to lack self-confidence. In contrast, this study suggests that there are considerable differences within the group as a whole.

This research reveals that there is a significant relationship between the locus of control concept and expressed willingness to participate in a literacy training program. This means that the adult illiterates in this study, who have an internal locus of control, consequently believe that they themselves have some control over life events and personal circumstances. They feel that they themselves can exert some change and influence their lives. They may feel less stigmatized and less inclined to leave things to chance and, as a result, may be less likely to resist participation in a literacy training program. On the other hand, those with an external locus of control, a significantly lower number in this research, are seen to be individuals who feel that their life events or personal circumstances are determined by forces and conditions outside their influence. Such individuals may, in fact, feel that they are victims of circumstances or, as Strickland (1965) notes, lack feelings of personal control and understanding of the events that happen to them. If such is the case, and if researchers such as Coy (1975), Dean (1980), Dua (1970), Gilbert (1976), Joe (1971) and Phares (1978) are correct, then it is not encouraging that those adult illiterates who expressed no willingness to participate in

literacy training programs are externally oriented.

This study revealed that a distinct difference exists with locus of control and none with self-concept with regard to participation in literacy training programs. Such evidence would lead one to question whether or not those statements by researchers such as Coy (1975), Joe (1971), and Phares (1976) that adult illiterates tend to have low self-concepts or low self-esteem, may not be the case with adult illiterates in this study. Then again, it could be that illiterate adults in this study, given their particular kind of life style and their feelings of self worth, may not be dissimilar to their literate compatriots who also live in their community. In other words, there does not appear to be a pronounced difference in life styles between illiterate adults and those who attended school longer. Not only their life styles but also their ways of making a living (fishing, for example), in such communities as those under study, rarely differ. Both groups fish because that is what the economy provides. Consequently, life styles and economic pursuits tend to show that employment is independent of the literacy background of most individuals. Such results would also tend to reflect that there may be less stigma associated with illiteracy in societies of similar socio-economic classes. So it may well be then that some of the themes and assumptions reported thus far in the literature relate more to adult illiteracy and its consequences in more urbanized societies

with complex economies and where employment requires more sophisticated technical skills.

Every adult illiterate interviewed felt that illiteracy presented barriers in communicating and developing helping relationships with peer groups, spouses, children, siblings and/or gradnchildren as well as mere acquaintances. This does not appear to suggest that these barriers are insurmountable but rather are stumbling blocks that one has to work a lot harder to remove. One individual adequately sums up such a penalty by stating, for example:

> You'd understand them a lot better in what they're talking about and everything would be much easier --understand manners, speech and concerns to them and be able to help.

To the extent that illiteracy causes the person to feel uncomfortable in communicating with other people, it also acts as a slowing down process in achieving desired goals. One adult illiterate attempts to explain that illiteracy does not mean that a person is unintelligent. This he does by his illustration concerning a fisherman who may feel threatened sailing on a coast unless he/she could recognize particular landmarks as guides to safety. He further states that if fishermen had the necessary literacy skills to be able to mark charts and measure distances from sophisticated sonar equipment, then speed and accuracy would provide more basis for confidence and that fishermen would find their goal more quickly. Such an

illustration adequately conveys the message given by every illiterate adult in the study that people should not associate illiteracy with low intelligence. Of course, while some people do not feel threatened because of illiteracy, some others feel socially inhibited because of it, particularly in front of people like a minister or priest or politician whom they feel are more educated than they themselves. For example, one individual states:

> Understanding those big shots like government coming around here using big words and someone with no education don't understand them.

Such results as the above, as well as the multiple statements given in Chapter 5, certainly suggest opposition to some of the current assumptions. The results refute those given by Lanning (1966), for example, that adult illiterates are a "potential menace to our democratic way of life because of their impaired ability to think logically, intelligently and/or discriminatively about anything including political and personal matters". Lewis (1974, p. 27) adds to Lanning's ideas by stating that adult illiterates are incapable of using other adults as sources of information because they are environmentally and culturally deprived. Among other things, he suggests that "they lack language range and precision in grammar and understanding of the physio-geological environment in which they live". Assumptions of this nature seem to be made in countries of different cultural and economic circumstances. However, there was no

evidence found in this study to suggest that they can be applied to this population studied. The adult illiterates interviewed demonstrated adequate oral language and comprehension skills which further showed their mature personalities despite illiteracy. They could quickly identify and state their own felt needs for literacy training. The steps of Androgogy, outlined by Lewis (1974), tends to lend support for the authenticity of such expressed felt needs which appear to be fairly short-term oriented. The following are a few of the immediate needs for literacy expressed by some of the illiterate adults in this research which were also mentioned in an earlier section:

1. being able to read and write their own names so that a credit card, for example, would not pose a problem at a gas station;
2. to add and subtract enough to be able to count the correct change from grocery shopping;
3. in carpentry work, know how to calculate in metric rather than the old method;
4. know the alphabet;
5. be able to spell some words;
6. to be fitted into a program, maybe for as long as 10 years until able to read and write.

Although the data was obtained from several small rural communities on the Northern Peninsula of Newfoundland and Labrador, it appears that many of the findings can be

generalized to other rural communities where adult illiterates reside insofar as they are similar to the population that was studied. Based on the findings of this study, the researcher believes the following implications are generally applicable to other adult illiterates with similar rural economic, social circumstances:

1. The general profile shows that adult illiterates are found who are usually older males around middle age, are married with four or more children, receives an income of between $11,000 to $15,000 per year and who classified themselves as having a fishery-type or labouring occupation.
2. People who indicate willingness to participate in literacy training programs differ (only on some variables) from those who indicate no willingness. Contrary to the studies that indicate that illiterate adults are all the same, this study reveals that there are considerable differences within the group as a whole. This implies that various aspects of programming for adult illiterates should be considered to prevent them from resisting participation. It would appear that in order to reach adult illiterates who tend to resist participation in literacy training programs, a specific methodology would need to be considered and applied.

Methodology Employed in Recruiting

(a) Obtain essential financial support to provide for personal contact by interviewing the adult illiterates in their homes if necessary.

(b) Enlist the assistance of one or two prominent adult illiterates in each community as a facilitating leader to engage the others in programs designed to teach adult basic education skills. This would eliminate any feelings of threat or uncertainty which occasionally appears to precipitate resistance to such programs.

(c) Provide an opportunity for that facilitator and program developer to assess the felt needs of the population for different age groups so that participation becomes more meaningful by meeting the immediate needs of these people.

Program Development and Delivery

(a) Enlist the aid of other agencies such as social security, medical doctors and hospital staff, bank personnel and police agents and shopkeepers to help locate adults who are illiterate as part of a full scale advertising campaign.

(b) Prior to involving the adult illiterates in long or short-term goals for literacy training, it would seem

appropriate to build in a component that measures first of all whether or not the adult illiterates are externally or internally oriented. Even though researchers (Dua, 1970 and Strickland, 1978) have already established that there are degrees of internality and externality, it would appear that a special kind of outreach to those people who are externally oriented to become more internally oriented would be beneficial. If successful, this would mean that all adult illiterates would be internally oriented and, as has been established in this research, would be, as a consequence, more likely to become involved in a literacy training program.

(c) Even though the adult illiterates in this study had a high self-concept, a few of the people in the study seemed to see themselves as having a limited ability to cope with school. This might be especially true for adult illiterates who may never have attended school or, if so, have had repeated experiences of failure. Whatever its origin, it may suggest that for such a group a special effort needs to be made to build up their self-confidence since simply advertising an ALT program would tend to be met with resistance by such individuals.

Suggestions Regarding Future Adult Literacy Program Planning

(a) Programs, in the future, should be unbiased of any assumptions regarding illiteracy and the characteristics of adult illiterates unless supported by empirical studies at least.

(b) The programs should be reflective of the already expressed and tabulated felt needs of the specific population already examined.

(c) Program planners should adhere to suggestions, such as those by Lewis (1974), regarding planning, staffing and insights into the particular segment of society already studied.

(d) Adult illiterates should have some input into the creating, the implementing and, finally, the establishing of a literacy training program for themselves in any community.

(e) Finally, the results of this research regarding age and locus of control specifically, should be considered prior to developing programs of any magnitude in rural Newfoundland communities.

REFERENCES

Adamson, J. W. The Illiterate Anglo-Saxon and other Essays on Education Medieval and Modern. Cambridge: The University Press, 1942 (originally published 1954).

Altman, H., & Arambasich, L. A study of locus of control with adult students. Canadian Counsellor, 1982, 16, No. 2, 97-101.

Anastasi, A. Psychological Testing (4th ed.). New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, Inc., 1976.

Bandura, A. Self efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. Psychological Review, 1977, 84, No. 2, 191-215.

Barrow, R. Radical Education A Critique of Free-Schooling and Deschooling. London: Martin Robertson and Company, Ltd., 1978.

Bentzen, F. Sex ratios in learning and behavior disorders. National Elementary Principal, 1966, 46 (1), 13-17.

Berke, N. D. An Investigation of Adult Negro Illiteracy: Prediction of Reading Achievement and Description of Educational Characteristics of a Sample of City Core Adult Negro Illiterates, (Doctoral dissertation, New York State University, 1967), Dissertation Abstracts, 1967, 28 (3-A).

Bernstein, B. Class, Codes and Control. London: Rutledge and K. Paul Company, 1971.

Bertstein, B. Social-Psychological Factors in H. Passow, M. Goldberg and A. Tannerbaum (Eds.), Education of The Disadvantaged. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967, p. 233.

Bourren, F., F/Zintz, M. V. Teaching Reading in Adult Basic Education. Iowa: William C. Brown Company, 1977, p. 112.

Boyce, V. M. The Effect of Adult Basic Education on Selected Non-Cognitive Attributes, (Doctoral dissertation, State University of North Carolina, 1971), Dissertation Abstracts International, April, 1971, 31 (10-A), (University Microfilms 5192).

Breton, R. Social and Academic Factors in the Career Decisions of Canadian Youth. Information Canada, Ottawa: Manpower and Immigration, 1972.

Brigham, B. W. A Study of Reading Achievement and Certain Characteristics of Adult Males Convicted of Felonies, (Doctoral Assertation, Temple University, 1968), Dissertation Abstracts International, 1968, 28, (10-B), University Microfilms 4279).

Brooke, W. M. Canadian Adult Basic Education, An Overview. British Columbia: Pacific Association for Continuing Education, No. 4, March 3, 1975.

Brown, D. H., Engin, A., & Walbrown, W. F. Locus of control and reading attitude. Psychology in the Schools, July, 1979, 16, No. 3, 336-338.

Buros, K. O. Personality Tests and Reviews. New Jersey: The Gryphon Press, Highland Park, 1970.

Cannell, C. F., & Kahn, P. R. The Dynamics of Interviewing. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1958.

Carr, L., & Roberts, S. O. Social action as related to verbalized attitudes, self-concept and background factors. American Psychol., 1963, 18, 381.

Coleman, Relational analysis: The study of social organizations with survey methods. Sociological Methods, ed. Norman K. Denzin, Chap. F. Chicago: Aldine, 1970-B.

Cottrel, F. Aging and the Ages. U.S.A.: W. C. Brown Publishers, 1974.

Coy, J. J. Initial Validation of the Adult Learning Rate Test, (Doctoral dissertation, University of Northern Colorado, 1975), Dissertation Abstracts International; August 1975, 36 (2-A), 663-664.

Davis, O. L., & Slobodian, J.J. Teacher behavior toward boys and girls during the first reading instruction. American Educational Research Journal, 1967, 4, 261-269.

Dean, D. G. Alienation: Its meaning and measurement. American Sociological Review, U.S.A., April 22, 1966, 753-758.

Dua, P. S. A comparison of the effects of behaviorally oriented action and psychotherapy reeducation on introversion-extroversion, emotionality and internal-external control. Journal of Counselling Psychology, 1970, 17, No. 6, 567-572.

Dutton, M. D. A Description and Analysis of Selected characteristics of Participants in Adult Basic Education in Hillsborough County, Florida, (Doctoral dissertation, State University of Florida, 1967), Dissertation Abstracts, 1968, 28 (12-A), 4868.

Esdorfer, C., & Lawton, P. The Psychology of Adult Development and Aging. Washington, D. C.: American Psychological Association, Inc., 1973.

Foulds, M. L. Changes in locus of internal-external control: A growth group experience. Comparative Group Studies, August 1971, 2, pp. 293-300.

Friere, P. Pedagogy in Process. New York: The Seabury Press, 1978.

Friere, P. Pedagogy of the Oppressed. New York: The Seabury Press, 1974.

Getsinger, S., Kunce, J., Miller, D., & Weinberg, S. Self-esteem measures and cultural disadvantagement. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1972, 38, 149.

Gilbert, L. A. Situational factors and the relationship between locus of control and psychological adjustment. Journal of Counselling Psychology, 1976, 23, No. 4, 302-309.

Gillette, A. Youth and Literacy You've Got a Ticket To Ride. Paris, New York: UNESCO, 1972.

Glaser, B., & Strauss, A. The Discovery of Grounded Theory Strategies for Qualitative Research. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company, 1967.

Grant, R. The Development of a Behavioral Observation Checklist for Identification of Learning Difficulties of Functionally Illiterate Adult Basic Education Students, (Doctoral dissertation, Temple University, 1976), Dissertation Abstracts International, October 1976, 37, (4-A), 1934.

Gushue, W. J. Dr. The problem of reading in an oral tradition. The Morning Watch, MUN Faculty of Education, 1, No. 4, May 1974.

Harris, R. J. Jr., & Salomone, P. R. Toward an abbreviated internal-external locus of control scale. Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance, January 1981, 13, No. 4, 229-234.

Hajda, J. Alienation and integration of student intellectuals. American Psychological Review, U.S.A., April 22, 1966, 758-780.

Henerman, H. G., & Schwab, D. P. Relationship between interview structure and inter-interviewer reliability in an employment situation. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1969, 53, No. 3, 214-217.

Jamieson, G. H. Functional literacy: A field study of instructor and instructional variables. Int. Rev. App. Psychol., 1975, 24, (No. 1), 37-47.

Jefferies, C. Illiteracy: A World Problem. London: Southamptom: Camelot Press Ltd., 1967, pp. 3-24.

Joe, V. C. Review of the internal-external control construct as a personality variable. Psychological Reports, 1971, 28, 619-640.

Johnson, J. M. Doing Field Research. London: Collier Macmillian Pub., 1975.

Jones, V. The Relationship Between Academic Self-Concept and Variables. Canada: Memorial University of Newfoundland, 1972.

Kerlinger, F. N. Foundations of Behavioral Research. U.S.A.: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964.

Kidd, J. R. How Adults Learn. New York: Association Press, 1973.

Kish, L. Survey Sampling. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1965.

Kraft, W. F. A Psychology of Nothingness. Philadelphia: The Westminister Press, 1974.

Labenne, W. D., & Greene, B. Educational Implications of Self-Concept Theory. California: Goodyear Pub. Co. Inc., 1969.

Lanning, W. F., & Wesley, N. A. Basic Education for Disadvantaged Adults: Theory & Practice. New York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1966.

Lefcourt, H. M. Internal versus external control of reinforcement: A review. Psychological Bulletin, 1966, 65, No. 4, 206-220.

Lewis, H. Increasing fluency of reading for disadvantaged adults: A second-step program of reading, (Doctoral dissertation, University of Miami, 1974), Dissertation Abstracts International, December 1974, 35, (6-A), 3381.

Lewis, M. M. The Importance of Illiteracy. London: George Harrop and Co. Ltd., 1953.

Logan, F. A. Fundamentals of Learning and Motivation. U.S.A.: William C. Brown Company Publishers, 1975.

Lowe, J. The Education of Adults: A World Perspective. The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 1975.

Lowenthal, M. F. Toward a Sociopsychological Theory of Change in Adulthood and Old Age, In R. H. Binstock, Ethel Shanas and Associates (Ed,), Handbook of Aging and the Social Sciences. New York: Van Nostrand Runhold, 1976, 116-127.

Maheu, R. Functional Literacy Why and How. France: UNESCO Publishing Company, 1970, 27.

Manheim, H. L. Sociological Research: Philosophy and Methods. Homewood, Illinois: Dorsey Press, 1977.

Mezerow, J. et al., Last Gamble on Education. U.S.A.: Adult Education Association, 1975.

Mullen, D. A Plan for Fluency First. Saskatchewan: Newstart Inc., Prince Albert, 1971.

Newberg, U.E. (Editor), Literacy and Society. London: The Walburn Press, 1971.

Nowicki, S., & Strickland, B. R. A locus of control scale for children. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1973, 40, No. 1, 148-154.

Phares, E. J. Locus of Control in Personality. New Jersey: Silver Bundett Co., 1976.

Phillips, H.M. Literacy and Development. UNESCO Pub. Co., 1970.

Robinson & Berke, H. The Standard Achievement Test in Reading. In Buros, Oscar (Ed.), The Fifth Mental Measurements Yearbook. Highland Park, New Jersey: Gryphon, 1959, p. 656.

Robinson, J. P., Rusk, J., & Head, K. Measures of Political Attitudes. U.S.A.: Institute for Social Research, August 1968.

Robinson, J. P., & Shaver, P. R. Measures of Social Psychological Attitudes (Revised Edition). Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan Institute of Social Research, 1973.

Robinson, R. An Investigation Into the Use of the Cloze Procedure with a Group of Functionally Illiterate Adults, (Doctoral dissertation, University of Georgia, 1972), Dissertation Abstracts International, January 1972, 32 (7-A), 3572).

Rochester, D., & Bodwell, A. Beta Waid comparisons for illiterate and indigent male and female Negroes. Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance, U.S.A.: Southern Illinois University, 1970, 3, 164-168.

Rotter, J. B. Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. Psych. Monographs, 1966, 80, 609.

Rotter, J. B. Social Learning and Clinical Psychology, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1954.

Russell, S. N. Error Pattern Relationships of Developmental Readers and Functionally Illiterate Adults, (Doctoral dissertation, Oklahoma State University, 1973), Dissertation Abstracts International, April 1974, 34 (10-A), 6274 (University Microfilm No. 7408966).

Scaggs, W. F., & Ulmer, C. Guide to Adult Education Counselling. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prenctice Hall, Inc., 1972.

Soares, A. Dr., & Soares, L. Dr. Self-Perception Inventory Test Manual. Bridgeport, Connecticut: 1975, R, 1976, pp. 1-23.

Sollie, J.H. Teaching Reading to Functionally Illiterate Adult Prison Inmates using the Initial Teaching Alphabet, (Doctoral dissertation, Alabama University, 1966), Dissertation Abstracts, 1966, 27 (5-B), 1645.

Smith, R. E. Changes in locus of control as a function of life crisis resolution. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 1970, 75, No. 3, 328-332.

Strickland, B. R. Internal-external expectancies and health-related behaviors. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1978, 46, No. 6, 1192-211.

Strickland, B. R. The prediction of social action from a dimension of internal-external control. The Journal of Social Psychology, 1965, 66, 353-358.

Thomas, A. M. Continuous Learning. January-February 1970, 9, No. 1.

Thomas, A. M. Canadian Adult Basic Education and Literacy Activities: A Digest. Toronto, Ontario, July 1976.

Tiegs & Clark. Test of Adult Basic Education (Manuel), Examiner's Level M, 1976, McGraw-Hill, Del Monte Research Park, Monterey, California.

Ulmer, C. Remediation as a lifelong learning activity. Journal of Research and Development in Education, (University of Georgia, Call of Education), Summer, 1974, 7 (4), 45-46.

UNESCO, Functional Literacy: Why and How. France: Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, 1970.

UNESCO, Illiterate immigrant workers in industrialized countries. Literacy Discussion. (Pub. quarterly by International Institute for Adult Literacy Methods), 11, No. 4, Autumn, 1971.

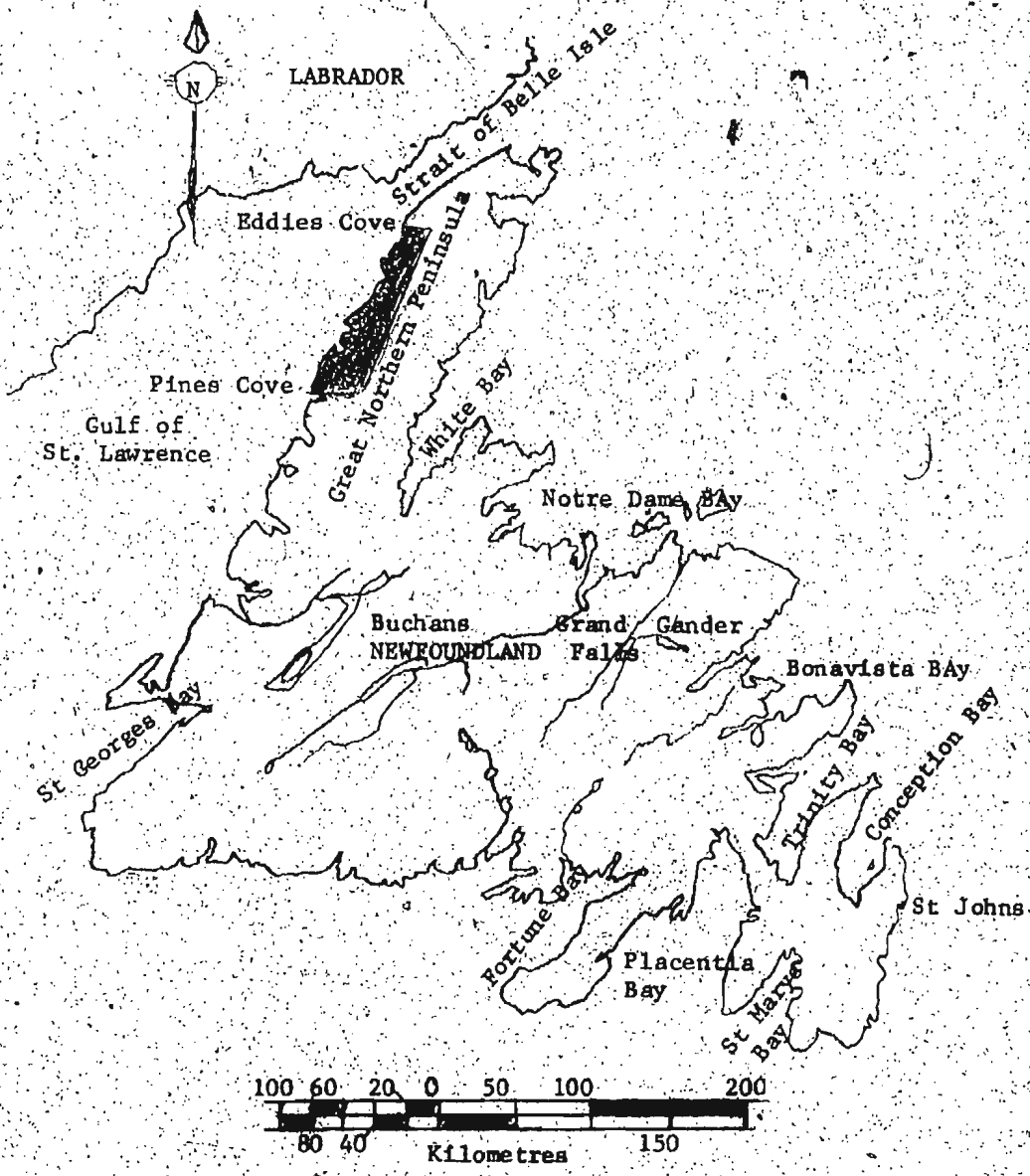
UNESCO/WOALPP, Characteristics of Participants in Functional Literacy Courses, Evaluation Study No. 3. Isfahan, Iran: UNESCO Pub. Co. 1970.

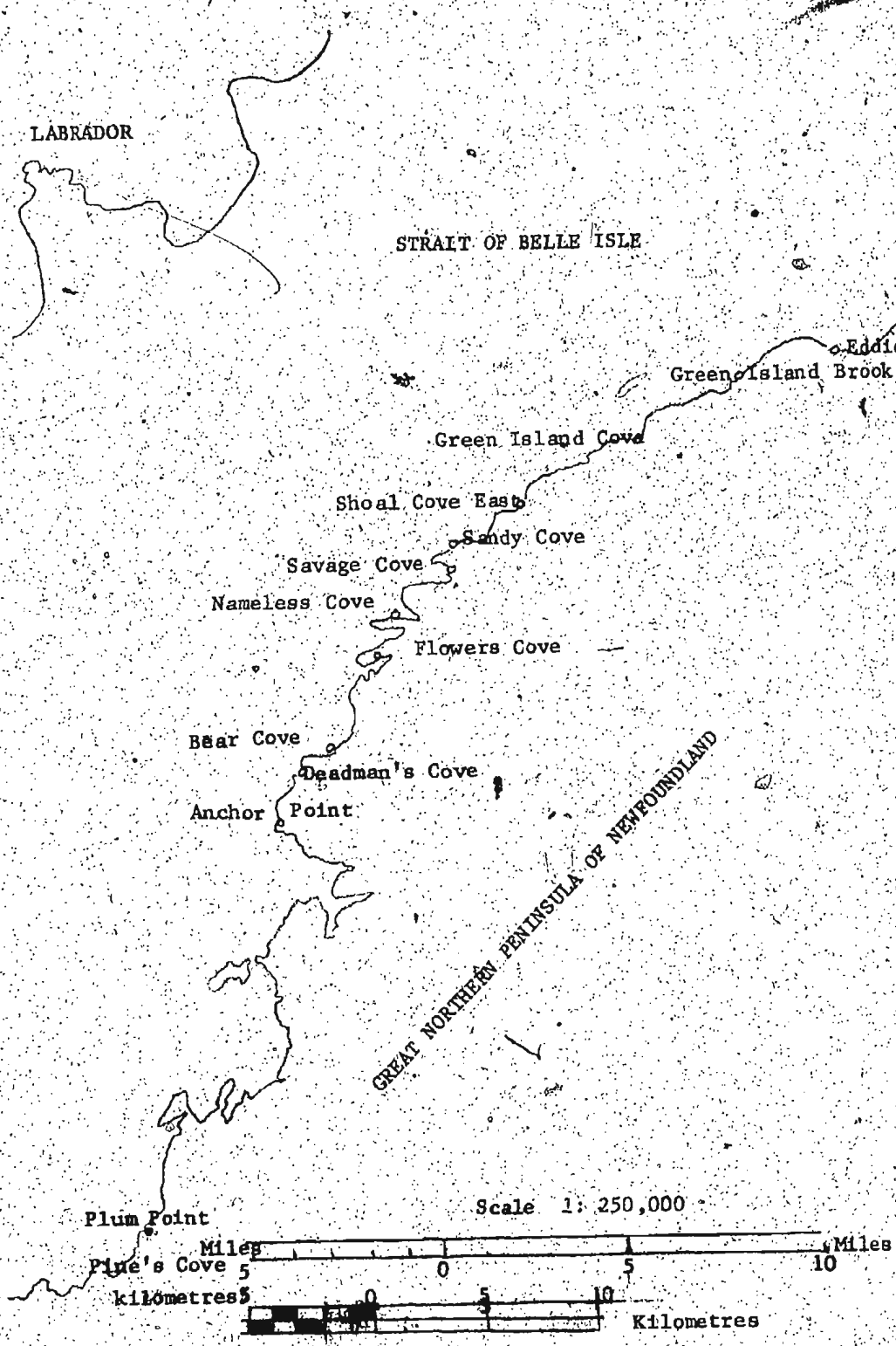
Warsh, H. E. Behavioral Modification of Adult Illiterates and Functional Illiterates who Learned to Read. (Doctoral dissertation, Wayne State University, 1969), Dissertation Abstracts International, September 1970, 31 (3-A), 1002.

Zurcher, L. A. Jr. The Mutable Self A Self-Concept for Social Change. London: Sage Library of Social Research, 1977.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A


N
LABRADOR
Strait of Belle Isle
Eddies Cove
Great Northern Peninsula
Pines Cove
Gulf of
St. Lawrence
White Bay
Notre Dame Bay
Buchans
NEWFOUNDLAND
Grand Falls
Gander
Bonavista Bay
St Georges Bay
Trinity Bay
Conception Bay
St Johns
Fortune Bay
Placentia
Bay
St Marys
Bay
100 60 20 0 50 100 200
80 40 Kilometres 150


LABRADOR
STRAIT OF BELLE ISLE
Eddies Cove
Green Island Brook
Green Island Cove
Shoal Cove East
Sandy Cove
Savage Cove
Nameless Cove
Flowers Cove
Bear Cove
Deadman's Cove
Anchor Point
GREAT NORTHERN PENINSULA OF NEWFOUNDLAND
Plum Point
Pine's Cove
Scale 1: 250,000
Miles
5 0 5 10
Miles
kilometres
5 0 5 10
Kilometres

APPENDIX C

STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

OFFICE USE ONLY

Tape # and/or subject number _____

Name (Abbreviated) _____

Expressed willingness/no willingness to participate in a literacy training program if one existed in the community

Yes _____

No _____

Test of Adult Basic Education
Raw Score (TABE) _____

Grade equivalent to TABE Score

(1) < Grade 3 _____

(2) = Grade 3 _____

(3) > Grade 3 and ≤ Grade 4 _____

(4) > Grade 4 and ≤ Grade 5 _____

(5) > Grade 5 and ≤ Grade 9 _____

APPENDIX C
(Continued)

Interview

1. Sex _____

2. Age _____

3. What is the name of the community you live in? _____

4. What is your marital status? Married _____

Other (single, widowed, separated, divorced) _____

5. What is the source of your income?

Employment _____
Old Age Security _____
Social Assistance _____
Unemployment _____
Other (please specify) _____

6. What is the source of your spouse's income?

Employment _____
Old Age Security _____
Social Assistance _____
Unemployment _____
Other (please specify) _____

7. How many people are earning money in your immediate family? _____

Appendix C (Continued)

8. What are your free time (leisure, recreational) activities?

Television Viewing _____

Time/Day _____

Listening to Radio _____

Time/Day _____

Listening to Music _____

Time/Day _____

Card Playing _____

Time _____

Bingo _____

Time _____

Playing Musical Instrument _____

Time _____

Type of Instrument (i.e., accordian) _____

Participating in Community Activities (i.e., sports, guides, legion, club, church, talking to neighbours) _____

Time _____

9. Approximately how much money is brought into this household?

Amount/ 2 week period _____

Amount/month _____

Amount/year _____

10. What is the size of your family? _____

11. How many children depend on you for their livelihood? _____

Appendix C (Continued)

12. What is your occupation? (i.e., type of fisherman, clerical, labourer, etc.)

Occupation _____

Number of Years _____

13. What type of training have you had?

On The Job _____

Time _____

Off The Job _____

Time _____

Other (i.e., self-instruction) _____

Time _____

14. What is your spouse's occupation?

Occupation _____

Number of Years _____

15. What was the highest level of education that your father had?

Grade _____

Other (i.e., special education) _____

16. What was the highest level of education that your mother received?

Grade _____

Other (taught at home, self-taught) _____

17. What was the highest level of education that you achieved?

Grade _____

Other (i.e., special education) _____

Appendix C (Continued)

18. Why did schooling stop for you?

Home Help (i.e., sickness in family) _____

No Teacher _____

Go to Work _____

Didn't Like School _____

Why? _____

Other (please specify)

INTERNAL-EXTERNAL LOCUS OF CONTROL

19. Do you believe that most problems will solve themselves if you just don't fool with them?

Yes _____

No _____

20. Do you believe that you can catch yourself from catching a cold?

Yes _____

No _____

21. Are some people just born lucky?

Yes _____

No _____

22. Are you often blamed for things that aren't your fault?

Yes _____

No _____

23. Do you believe that if a person studied hard enough, he/she could pass any course?

Yes _____

No _____

Appendix C (Continued)

24. Do you feel that most of the time it doesn't pay to try hard because things never turn out right anyway?

Yes _____
No _____

25. Do you feel that if things start out well in the morning, that it's going to be a good day no matter what you do?

Yes _____
No _____

26. Do you feel that most of the time parents listen to what their children have to say?

Yes _____
No _____

27. Do you believe that wishing can make things happen?

Yes _____
No _____

28. Most of the time do you find it hard to change a friend's mind (opinion)?

Yes _____
No _____

29. Do you feel that cheering more than luck helps a team to win?

Yes _____
No _____

30. Do you feel that it's nearly impossible to change your (parent's, spouse's) mind about anything?

Yes _____
No _____

31. Do you believe that when you do something wrong, there's little you can do to make it right?

Yes _____
No _____

Appendix C (continued)

32. Do you believe that your (parents, spouse) should allow you to make most of your decisions?

Yes _____
No _____

33. Do you feel that one of the best ways to handle most problems is just not to think of them?

Yes _____
No _____

34. Do you feel that you have a lot of choice in deciding who your friends are?

Yes _____
No _____

35. If you find a four-leaf clover, do you believe that it might bring you luck?

Yes _____
No _____

36. Have you ever had a good luck charm?

Yes _____
No _____

37. Do you believe that whether or not people like you depends on how you act?

Yes _____
No _____

38. Will your (parents, spouse, children) usually help you if you ask them?

Yes _____
No _____

39. Have you felt that when people are mean to you, it was usually for no reason at all?

Yes _____
No _____

Appendix C (Continued)

40. Most of the time, do you feel that you can change what might happen tomorrow by what you do today?

Yes _____
No _____

41. Do you believe that when bad things are going to happen, they just are going to happen no matter what you try to do to stop them?

Yes _____
No _____

42. Do you believe that people can get their own way if they just keep trying?

Yes _____
No _____

43. Do you feel that when good things happen, they happen because of hard work?

Yes _____
No _____

44. Do you feel that when somebody your own age wants to be your enemy, there's little you can do to change matters?

Yes _____
No _____

45. Do you feel that it's easy to get friends to do what you want them to do?

Yes _____
No _____

46. Do you feel that when someone doesn't like you, there's little you can do about it?

Yes _____
No _____

Appendix C (Continued)

47. Do you usually feel that it's almost useless to try to learn to read because most other people are plain smarter than you are?

Yes _____
No _____

48. Are you the kind of person who believes that planning ahead makes things turn out better?

Yes _____
No _____

49. Most of the time, do you feel that you have little say about what your family decides to do?

Yes _____
No _____

50. Do you think it's better to be smarter than to be lucky?

Yes _____
No _____

FELT NEEDS TO BE MORE LITERATE

The responses should fall into one of five categories on a scale of 1-5. (1) Definitely, (2) Probably, (3) Don't Know, (4) Probably Not, (5) Definitely Not.

51. If you could read, would it help you in your work?

1.____ 2.____ 3.____ 4.____ 5.____

Why?_____

_____

52. If you could read, would it help you in your hobbies?

1.____ 2.____ 3.____ 4.____ 5.____

Why? _____

_____

Appendix C (Continued)

53. If you could read and write, would it help you in saving more money (marketing, budgeting, income tax)?

1.____ 2.____ 3.____ 4.____ 5.____

Why? _____

_____

54. If you could read, would you be happier?

1.____ 2.____ 3.____ 4.____ 5.____

Why? _____

_____

55. If you could read, would it help you feel healthier? (i.e., plan meals that have the best nutritional variety or value prevent you from smoking or eating too much)

1.____ 2.____ 3.____ 4.____ 5.____

Why? _____

_____

56. If you could read, would it help you in getting ahead in life? (e.g., move from hand-line fishing to long-liner fishing or if at home most of the time to do something more than work as a housewife)

1.____ 2.____ 3.____ 4.____ 5.____

Why? _____

_____

57. If you could read, would it help you feel better about yourself? (e.g., more confident in meeting people and/or travelling more)

1.____ 2.____ 3.____ 4.____ 5.____

_____

_____

Appendix C (Continued)

58. If you could read and write, would you feel more useful around your family and friends? (e.g., help children at school, read newspapers and letters, etc.)

1.___ 2.___ 3.___ 4.___ 5.___

Why? _____

_____

59. If you could read and write, would you feel happier about the future? (e.g., not have to depend on sons and daughters or neighbours to cash your cheques, drive you around, explain everything that is written in your personal mail, etc.)

1.___ 2.___ 3.___ 4.___ 5.___

Why? _____

_____

60. Given your present age, when do you think you'd benefit most from a reading program for adults?

AGE _____

Why? _____

_____

61. Is it important for a woman to learn to read and write?

1.___ 2.___ 3.___ 4.___ 5.___

Why? _____

_____

62. Is it important for a man to learn to read and write?

1.___ 2.___ 3.___ 4.___ 5.___

Why? _____

_____

Appendix C (Continued)

63. Which is more important: for a man to read and write or for a woman to read and write?

Man _____ Woman _____ Both _____

Why? _____

_____

For the following numbers, please use the scale of 1 - 5 explained in the section dealing with FELT NEEDS TO BE MORE LITERATE.

64. If you are a member of a large family, do you think it would be more important for you to learn to read and write than if you are from a small family?

1.____ 2.____ 3.____ 4.____ 5.____

Why? _____

_____

65. Would more people in your immediate family earn a salary if they could learn to read and write better?

1.____ 2.____ 3.____ 4.____ 5.____

Why? _____

_____

66. Would more people in your immediate family have an increase in their earning power if they could read and write?

1.____ 2.____ 3.____ 4.____ 5.____

Why? _____

_____

Appendix C (Continued)

67. Would learning to read and write help you in your recreational activities?

1.____ 2.____ 3.____ 4.____ 5.____

Why? _____

_____

SELF CONCEPT SPI FORM SC

AGE/GRADE: _____ NAME: _____

SEX: _____

We are all different in the ways we think about ourselves. There is nobody else like you in all the world. What kind of person do you think you are right now? Give a picture of yourself as you think you are now, by choosing one of the two categories as I read them to you in a sentence. Each category tells how well the words agree with how you look at yourself as a person.

68.	I am masculine	very masculine	more masculine than feminine
	I am feminine	very feminine	more feminine than masculine
69.	I don't mind changes	Never mind changes	I like things to change more than for them not to
	I don't like things to change	I never like things to change	I like things to remain the same rather than change
70.	I stick up for my rights	I always stick up for my rights	I stick up for my rights more easily than I give up
	I give up easily	I give up more easily than stick up for my rights	I always give up easily

APPENDIX C (Continued)

71. I think of others

I always think of others	I think more of others than of myself

I think only of myself

I think of myself more than others	I always think of myself

72. I do well in school work

I do very well in school work	I do well rather than poor in school work

I do poorly in school work

I do poor rather than well in school work	I always do poorly in school work

73. I am relaxed

very relaxed	more relaxed than nervous

I am nervous

very nervous	more nervous than relaxed

74. I think before I do anything

always think	think before doing anything more than do things before thinking

I do things without thinking

always do things without thinking	do things before thinking more often than think before doing things

75. I stand on my own two feet

always stand	stand on my own two feet more than go along with the gang

I go along with the gang

always go along with the gang	go along with the gang more than stand on my own two feet

76.	I am a happy person	always	more happy than unhappy
	I am not a happy person	always unhappy or never happy	more unhappy than happy
77.	I can wait for things	can always wait	I wait more often than want things right away
	I want things right away	always want things right away	I want things right away more than wait for things
78.	I am sure of myself	always sure of myself	more sure than unsure of myself
	I am not sure of myself	always not sure of myself	more unsure than sure of myself
79.	I make friends easily	always make friends easily	make friends more easily than not
	I do not make friends easily	always I do not make friends easily	don't make friends more easily than I make them
80.	I like people as they are	always like	I like people as they are more than find fault with them
	I find fault with people	always find fault	I find fault more than I like people

Appendix C (Continued)

81. I can take it when people say bad things to me

can always take it	I can take it more than get hurt when people say bad things to me

I am easily hurt when people say bad things to me

always easily hurt when people say bad things to me	I am more easily hurt than able to take it when people say bad things to me

82. I trust people

very much	trust more than mistrust people

I don't trust people

very much	I mistrust (don't trust) more than I trust people

83. I am satisfied with myself

very much	more satisfied with myself than sorry for myself

I feel sorry for myself

very	more sorry for myself than satisfied with myself

84. I am kind to people

very kind	more kind than harmful

I hurt people

very much	more harmful than kind

85. I am not afraid of things

not very	more afraid than unafraid of things

I am afraid of things

very	more afraid than unafraid

Appendix C (Continued)

86. I like to work with others

very much	like to work with others more than by myself

I don't like to work with others

very much	like to work by myself more than with others

87. I'm somebody

very much	a somebody more than a nobody

I'm nobody

very much	a nobody more than a somebody

SELF-PERCEPTION INVENTORY
IDEAL CONCEPT

What kind of person would you like to be if you could change? Give a picture of the kind of person you wish you could be by again choosing one of the two categories as I read them to you in a sentence.

88. I would like to be a person who is masculine

very masculine	more masculine than feminine

I would like to be a person who is feminine

very feminine	more feminine than masculine

89. I would like to be a person who doesn't mind changes

I would like very much to be a person who doesn't mind	more than to be a person who would like things to remain the same

I would like to be a person who doesn't like things to change

very much like a person who doesn't like things to change	more than to be a person who like things to change

Appendix C (Continued)

90. I wish I could stick up for my rights

I wish very much I could stick my for my rights _____ more than give up easily

I wish I could give up easily

I wish very much I could give up easily _____ more than stick up for my rights

91. I wish I could think of others

very much _____ more than of myself

I wish I could think of myself

very much _____ think only of myself more than of others

92. I wish I could do well in school work

very well _____ I wish I could do well more than poorly in school work

I wish I could do poorly in school work

very poor _____ I wish I could do poorly more than do well in school work

93. I wish I were relaxed

very _____ relaxed more than nervous

I wish I were nervous

very _____ nervous more than relaxed

94. I wish I could think before doing anything

very much _____ more often than do things without thinking

I wish I could do things without thinking

very much _____ more than think before doing anything

Appendix C (Continued)

95. I wish I could stand on my own two feet

very much wish I could stand on my own two feet	wish I could stand on my own two feet more than going along with the gang

I wish I could go along with the gang

very much	go along with the gang more than stand on my own two feet

96. I would like to be a happy person

very much like to be a happy person	would like to be a happy person more than an unhappy person

I would like not to be a happy person

very much	would like to be an unhappy person more than a happy person

97. I wish I could wait for things

very much wish I could wait for things	I wish I could wait for things more than have them right away

I wish I could have things right away

I wish very much I could	I wish I could have things more right away than wait for things

98. I wish I were not sure of myself

I very much wish I were sure of myself	more sure than unsure of myself

I wish I were not sure of myself

I wish very much I were not sure of myself	I wish more unsure than sure of myself

Appendix C (Continued)

99. I wish I made friends easily

I wish very much I made friends easily	more easily than not make them

I wish I could not make friends easily

I wish very much I would not make friends easily	I wish I didn't make friends more easily than make them

100. I wish I could like people as they are

very much	I wish I could like people as they are more than to find fault with them

I wish I could find fault with people

I wish very much that I could find fault with people	find fault with people more than like them as they are

101. I wish I could take it when people say bad things to me

very much	I wish I could take it more than get hurt when people say bad things to me

I would like to be hurt when people say bad things to me

very easily hurt when people say bad things to me	I wish I could get hurt more easily than be able to take it when people say bad things to me

102. I would like to trust people

like very much to trust people	would like to trust people more than mistrust them

I would like not to trust people

like very much not to trust people	would like to mistrust more than trust people

Appendix C (Continued)

103. I wish I could be satisfied with myself	very much wish I could be satisfied with myself	more satisfied than sorry for myself
I wish I could feel sorry for myself	I wish very much I could feel sorry for myself	more sorry for myself than satisfied
104. I would like to be kind to people	very much like to be kind to people	more kind than harmful to people
I would like to hurt people	very much like to hurt people	more harmful than kind to people
105. I wish I weren't afraid of so many things	I wish very much I weren't afraid of so many things	I wish I were more unafraid than afraid of things
I wish I were afraid of many things	I wish very much I were afraid of many things	I wish I were more afraid than unafraid of things
106. I wish I could work with others	very much	more than by myself
I wish I could not work with others	very much	be by myself more than with others

Appendix C (Continued)

107. I wish I were a somebody

very much	were a somebody more than a nobody

I wish I were a nobody

I wish very much I were a nobody	I wish I were a nobody more than a somebody